
UNIT 1 INDIAN HIGHER EDUCATION: RETROSPECT AND PROSPECT

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Indian higher education has a long history with its universities like Nalanda and Takshashila dating back to several centuries. However, the dawn of the modern era can be fixed at 1857 when three universities, after the pattern of the London University, were set up in Bombay (now Mumbai), Calcutta and Madras (now Chennai). The major objective of higher education then was to turn out people who can support the colonial administrations. After attaining independence in 1947, India had had a close look at the objectives and goals of higher education in the context of its own national development needs. New thrust areas were identified; new institutions were established; and the whole directions of development were redefined. Greater attention was given to scientific and technological education and research as well as professional education and training. It was no surprise that post-independent economic reconstruction and development in India did not have to rely heavily on non-Indian personnel. We shall explore the growth and expansion of Indian higher education since 1947, after India attained independence, in this unit.

There was a phenomenal expansion of higher education in India in the last fifty years; there were also several path breaking initiatives. The founding of the five Institutes of Technology (IITs) in the 50s - four of which in collaboration with major industrialised nations (USA, Germany, Russia and UK), establishment of several engineering colleges, setting up of the Institutes of Management (IIMs) in the 60s, and the establishment of several agricultural

universities also around the same time, are all important landmarks in the development of Indian higher education. During this period, there was significant expansion of medical education, besides the growth of a rapidly expanding technician education base. All these developments were the direct consequences of the initiatives taken by the national government and therefore in discussing these developments, the role of national policies and initiatives holds the key.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

On completion of this unit, you should be able to

- explain the developments in Indian higher education,
- analyse and explain various issues in higher education, and
- critically appraise the likely future developments in higher education.

1.2 NATIONAL POLICIES AND THEIR IMPACT

The Government of India appointed a commission on university education under the chairmanship of Dr. Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan in 1948 to “report on Indian University Education and suggest improvements and extensions that may be desirable to suit present and future requirements of the country”. The Commission made several recommendations ranging from the need to redefine the aims of university education, standards of teaching and research, courses and curricula, the need to strengthen professional education, expansion of university education, its governance and funding, teachers and their conditions of work and several other related issues. The report of this commission was in fact a blueprint for reorganisation of university education in independent India.

The important point demanding attention here is that the government focused attention on higher education right from the beginning. Later, an Education Commission (1964-66), which was appointed to make a comprehensive review of all levels of education and in all areas, also dealt with higher education in great depth and made significant recommendations. While continuing the emphasis on quality and standards, the Education Commission of 1964-66 also recommended expansion of higher education to meet the manpower needs. The first *National Policy on Education, 1968* was based on the recommendations of the Education Commission; naturally, it contained important policy formulations on higher education. Higher education again figured in the revised *National Policy on Education, 1986* with an elaborate enunciation of the specific reform measures in a *Programme of Action* for the implementation of the policy. The diagnostic document, *Challenge of Education (1986)* expressed great concern about the conditions of the colleges and universities. The *National Policy on Education, 1986* indicated a few major thrusts in higher education. These were : (a) the need for expansion of

higher education, (b) an improvement of quality of higher education, and (c) the relevance and job orientation of higher education.

1.2.1 Reviews and reforms

Higher education is the only sector that has subjected itself to frequent reviews. Even while the focus of the reviews was on specific issues, the various committees and groups could not possibly avoid reflecting on the total higher education system. Besides extensive coverages in the University Education Commission of 1948-49 and the Education Commission of 1964-66, specific issues in higher education were dealt with by several other committees from time to time. Some of these were:

- Mahajani Committee on Colleges 1964;
- Sidhanta Committee on Standards of Universities 1965;
- Gajendragadkar Committee on Governance of Universities;
- Gnanam Committee on New Educational Management 1990;
- UGC Expert Committee on Autonomous Colleges, 1991; and
- Rastogi Committee on Teachers and their conditions of service 1997.

Besides a number of state governments also set up committees on higher education, specially to look into various aspects of the functioning of the universities, their management, including reorganisation and expansion. It is noteworthy that higher education has not allowed itself to stagnate for want of ideas, but has continuously reviewed its perspectives and brought in new structures, approaches, courses, curriculum, etc. In other words, it is a system that makes a continuing effort at self-renewal.

These policies and reviews have led to a number of major reforms in higher education. To mention a few – the introduction of semester system, examination reforms, norms for staff recruitment (qualifying in national eligibility test as a pre-requisite for appointment of teachers in all universities and colleges) and development (in-service education of college and university teachers), university and college governance, structures and management processes, restructured curriculum for vocational courses, autonomous colleges, departments of special assistance and centres of advanced studies for quality improvement in research, etc. These efforts indicate the steps taken in higher education to make it buoyant in the face of socio-economic changes.

It does not follow that the growth of higher education in India has been a problem free development. For one, the rising social expectations brought the system under severe pressure to expand and open up to ever increasing numbers. For another, the resources necessary to meet these social pressures were not always forthcoming. The inevitable consequence was the emergence of a large numbers of institutions with declining standards, inadequate teaching/learning facilities, and a large numbers of frustrated youth

- i) Do you agree that policy initiatives brought changes in higher education? Answer in about 50 words.
- ii) List the major changes that followed the reviews and reforms ?
- iii) Identify (on your own) two major areas which require immediate attention of planners and policy makers, in Indian higher education. Answer in about 50 words.

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

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Higher education in India expanded phenomenally during the last 50 years. From 28 universities in 1950-51, the total number of university type institutions rose to 229 in 1996-97. The number of colleges increased from 695 in 1950-51 to 9686 by 1996-97 (UGC, 1996-97). The total enrolment of nearly 6.76 million students (1996-97) is an exponential growth over 0.26 million students

in 1950-51 (Table 1). Similarly, the teachers' strength of about 2,000 at the time of independence, is now as strong as about 0.4 million.

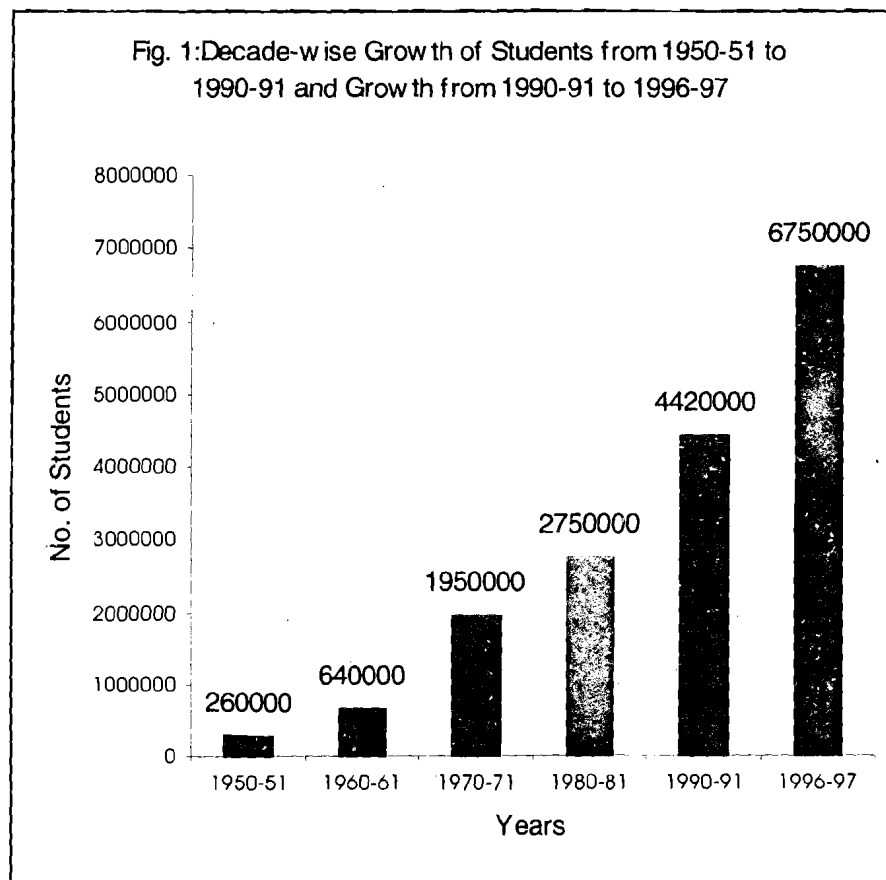
Table 1 : Institutions and Enrolment in Higher Education (1996-97)

States	No. of University Type Institution (1)*	No. of Colleges (2)**	Enrolment (3)***	
			Total in '000	% of Women
Andhra Pradesh	18	1033	476	31.5
Arunachal Pradesh	1	06	04	22.8
Assam	6	266	161	32.8
Bihar	17	748	525	18.6
Delhi	11	87	151	44.6
Goa	1	35	19	51.1
Gujarat	11	444	456	39.4
Haryana	05	178	155	38.6
Himachal Pradesh	03	73	40	38.3
Jammu & Kashmir	03	56	49	39.9
Karnataka	15	1119	546	34.4
Kerala	08	235	196	52.4
Madhya Pradesh	17	652	412	30.0
Maharashtra	24	1550	1042	36.4
Manipur	02	59	31	42.8
Meghalaya	01	29	--	--
Mizoram	--	10	22	39.7
Nagaland	01	10		
Orissa	05	559	228	32.3
Pondicherry	01	18	11	45.2
Punjab	05	240	209	51.1
Rajasthan	10	305	231	32.8
Sikkim	01	04	--	--
Tamil Nadu	19	470	496	39.9
Tripura	01	20	--	--
Uttar Pradesh	28	1047	940	26.7
West Bengal	13	408	385	35.5
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	00	03	--	--
Chandigarh	02	21	--	--
Daman and Diu	00	01	--	--
Total	229	9686	6756	34.1

* (Source: Universities Handbook by AIU)

** (Source: Annual Report of the UGC, 1996-97)

*** (Source: Annual Report of the UGC, 1996-97)



(Source: UGC, Annual Report, 1996-97)

The level-wise analysis of enrolment indicates that on an average 88% students are enrolled in the undergraduate programmes, about 9.4% in the post-graduate programmes and about 1.10% in the research programmes every year. The subject wise analysis of the enrolment indicates that more than 40% students are enrolled for courses in Arts, 19.6% in Science and 21.9% in Commerce. Enrolment figures in engineering and medicine are 4.9% and 3.4%, respectively. This pattern also remained more or less stable during the past several years.

The important point in the enrolment trend is the preponderance of the liberal arts and science courses, on the one hand, and the very small percentage of students entering the professional courses, on the other. Within the general education sector, a large majority of students are enrolled in arts subjects.

There is a wide gender disparity in enrolment, with women accounting for only about 32.8 % of total enrolment in higher education. We shall come back to this issue later.

The expansion was complemented by diversification which has taken different shapes in different universities. One of the major features of diversification was the introduction of courses at the undergraduate and post-graduate levels in a wide range of subjects. Starting with the conventional subjects in the early years of independence, many new disciplines have been introduced; for example, biochemistry, microbiology, regional planning, biotechnology, etc. The major innovative shift has been the introduction of vocational courses at the undergraduate level in the restructured curriculum (Sudha Rao, 1995). Another feature of diversification, at least in some universities, was the gradation of first degree courses into honours and pass courses.

The introduction of open and distance education in higher education was another major diversification. More than 60 conventional universities now offer programmes through distance education, in addition to the national and the state open universities. Together, the open and distance education system account for about 1.2 million students, about 20 per cent of the total enrolment in higher education. The introduction of open and distance education has brought in two qualitatively different aspects of diversification. First, it has diversified the mode of delivery of education. Secondly, open and distance education has made it possible to introduce continuing education, outside the conventional undergraduate and post-graduate programs, in the form of certificate and diploma programs. This aspect will be dealt with in greater detail, in Unit- 2 of Block-4 of this course.

Check Your Progress 2

Which are the major aspects of diversification that took place in Indian higher education, particularly during the last two decades? Answer in about 50 words.

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

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

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1.2.3 Infrastructure

Infrastructure, in the larger sense, refers to all those relatively permanent facilities that service the economy, and includes roads, railways, communication networks, power and water supply and, of course education and training. Each of these larger components of the social and economic infrastructure has its own sub-components. Just as the railways have railway lines, rolling stock, railway stations, communication systems, workshops and personnel, education and training infrastructure also has several components. These include the educational institutions, their land and buildings, their laboratories and libraries, their plant and equipment, the academic and other personnel, their residences and other campus facilities, and so on.

We have mentioned the physical size of the higher education system in India in terms of the number of universities and colleges. These have been established at different points in time. Some are more than a century old; quite a few are relatively new. But the problem of infrastructure is a common concern for both categories of institutions. While the old ones need to modernise their infrastructure, the newer ones have to assemble them almost from scratch. And both these categories face the same problem of acute scarcity of resources. Some of the best institutions in the country are comparable with the best in the world in terms of their infrastructure, but a vast majority of them cannot claim to have the facilities adequate enough to maintain the highest level of quality in education and training.

The higher education system in India is totally dependent on the central and state governments for their survival. Private contributions to higher education is marginal in terms of the total investment in the system. In the first place, India does not have private universities so far; and private initiative is confined to establishment of colleges which require affiliation with a university. Even in the establishment of colleges, private contributions are limited to provision of some land, and in some cases, also some buildings. These are by no means adequate for the full growth of a higher education institution. Soon enough, they will turn to the governments for funding for their development. And with no governments, anywhere in the world, flush with funds to provide generous support to higher education, provision of adequate infrastructure remains a perennial problem for most higher education institutions in the developing world. India is no exception.

It does not follow that the gravity of this problem has not been addressed in India. To begin with, an attempt was made to discourage establishment of new institutions of higher education without ensuring adequate infrastructure. This approach was reflected in what was termed as the policy of "containment of unplanned expansion" adopted in the early 70s. To provide teeth to this policy, the UGC Act was amended to make a provision in 1972 under which no new university or college would qualify for assistance from any central government

sources, unless such institutions created for themselves the infrastructural facilities on a scale prescribed by the UGC. The onus for ensuring the provision of these facilities fell largely on the state governments. It did not stop states from setting up new universities and colleges. All that it did was to delay the availability of central support till the infrastructural needs of the threshold level were provided. Generally, about 10% of the universities at a given time remained in the category of candidate members for assistance for periods ranging from five to ten years or more, while about 40 to 45% of the colleges always remained outside the scope of development support from central sources, especially the UGC. The result of course was the existence of a large number of higher education institutions with questionable credentials about their infrastructure.

It was not as though that the remedy lay only in this negative approach. A number of imaginative initiatives were taken simultaneously. The most important among them was the initiative taken in the 80s towards resource sharing and networking among institutions of higher education in India. The UGC was enabled, through a Parliamentary sanction, to set up common facilities that could be drawn upon by a number of institutions. Notable among these were:

- A Nuclear Science Centre as a common research facility
- An Inter-university centre for Advanced Studies and Research in Astronomy and Astrophysics
- An Inter-University Consortium for Atomic Energy facilities
- Consortium of Educational Communication for providing electronic media support to higher education
- An Information and Library Network (INFLIBNET).

Other similar initiatives included the establishment of Documentation Centres, Instrumentation Centres, and Centres for such sophisticated facilities as Crystal Growth and Radars.

Two more significant initiatives require to be noted in this context. These are the setting up of Curriculum Development Centres for continuous review and renewal of the contents of academic programmes in most disciplines. These centres make recommendations on the modernisation and updating of the curricula for courses in the disciplines assigned to them and these reports are then made available to all universities for their guidance in revising their course contents. The second major initiative was the establishment of several Academic Staff Colleges in well-established and developed departments of a number of universities in the country to offer on a continuing basis a large number of training and orientation programmes for teachers in universities and colleges. Some 48 Academic Staff Colleges offer in-service training to about eight to ten thousand teachers every year.

In more recent times, information technology has been inducted on an extensive scale in universities and colleges in India for modernising their administration. Most institutions have now computerised several operations relating to maintenance of student records, examination processes, financial accounting and so on.

Check Your Progress 3

Explain some of the innovative measures taken by India to meet the chronic problem of inadequacies in infrastructure for higher education. Answer in about 50 words.

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

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

1.3 ISSUES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

You will notice from the presentation so far that there are certain areas of serious concern in the development of higher education in India. The most striking feature of the system in India is its uneven development. There are institutions of excellence; there are also very poorly equipped and even sub-standard institutions. In spite of the huge size of the enrolment, higher education caters only to about 6% of the relevant age group. Even so, there is large scale unemployment among graduates which implies the ever widening gap between education and employment. We shall briefly explore these concerns in this section.

1.3.1 Relevance and quality

It is obvious that higher education in India expanded rapidly without appropriate changes in the curriculum to respond to the changing needs of the times. The growth was simply linear, or to put it differently, more of the same. However, as we noticed in the previous section, it was the effort to diversify the system that paid rich dividends. The outcome of that effort was the emergence of centres of excellence within the system. The Indian Institutes of Technology

(IITs), Indian Institute of Science (IISc), Indian Institutes of Management (IIMs), are, as groups of institutions, of exceptionally high quality, comparable with the best in the world. These institutions, you will recall, have also had the advantage of collaboration with premier institutions in the world. It is not surprising therefore that their curriculum offerings, their teaching methods, and above all their teaching-learning environment were all considerably influenced, and informed, by the experiences and practices of some of the best institutions in the world. Admittedly, this exposure ensured that their programmes were relevant to the needs of the global economy, and their quality compared favourably with that of the very best at the international level.

But what about the general run of universities in the country? Especially those which are engaged in general education, and have multiplied in large numbers. The picture is one of lights and shades. There are quite a few among them which can be counted as Centres of Excellence in specific fields; there are also a significant number among them that have made substantial contributions to education and research in sciences, social sciences and the humanities. By and large, the major contribution of Indian universities have been to post-graduate education and research and in this area, most of them have also been able to maintain acceptable levels of quality and standards. But this segment constitutes only 12% of the higher education enrolment.

The picture, however, is dismal when it comes to the first degree courses that account for 88% of the total enrolment, with the possible exception of the professional programmes that constitute about 20% of the enrolment at this level. The general education programmes in Arts, Commerce and Science which claims 80% of the enrolment are marked by indifferent quality, unrevised curricular content, and overall lack of relevance. It is this segment that accounts for the worst erosion in the quality of Indian higher education.

As we have seen in the earlier sections of this unit, the state of higher education in India has been a subject of comprehensive review by several committees. There was no dearth of ideas, nor of intent. It was a case of good intentions not implemented, mainly because of a lack of will and commitment. Qualitative reforms eluded Indian higher education generally. As Altbach said: "the complexity of the social context in which higher education exists (in India) very likely makes systemic reforms impossible" (Powar, 1995). It will be worth while to look at some of the reasons for this unhappy state of affairs:

- The inadequacy of infrastructure in most institutions is a serious impediment to meaningful reforms. There are not just enough resources to make good these deficiencies.
- No reforms are possible unless the initiative comes from the academic community. By and large, the perception about academics is that they prefer status quo to taking any risks with experiments and innovations which require initiative and considerable efforts. This perception is

strengthened by the fact that many universities have gone back on several reform measures as in examinations, etc.

- It was often claimed that reforms did not succeed because teachers did not have the initiative or freedom to design and develop courses of study and evolve methods of students assessment. A scheme of autonomous colleges was evolved precisely to provide teachers with this opportunity. However, the scheme was vehemently opposed by teachers on the ground that college managements would misuse autonomy and harass teachers! Not even 2% of the colleges in the country found this reform exciting enough.

In the more recent past, however, there have been several significant changes. The fact that programmes offered by universities and colleges should be relevant to the life and work of people is increasingly getting acknowledged. There is also an increasing awareness that higher education should develop in people the skills and competencies necessary to apply the knowledge they have acquired in solving the problems of social and economic development. These developments are reflected in the recent initiatives in providing a career-orientation to several first degree programmes by incorporating in them appropriate modules of relevant knowledge and skills in a wide variety of functional areas. Hopefully, these developments should lead to more meaningful changes in the programme profiles of the universities and colleges in India, and also in the ways in which they go about the processes of teaching and learning.

Check Your Progress 4

The Indian higher education system knew what it should do to improve its relevance and quality, but not much was done on the ground. Identify the major reasons for this failure.

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

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

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1.3.2 Access and equity

Access to education in India is an issue of major concern. In a large measure, this issue is a legacy of the past. The elementary and secondary levels of education in India have two streams of institutions. A small number of well-endowed, expensive private schools which provide education of a high quality, and the very large number of publicly financed schools run by the local

authorities most of which do not charge any fees and hence the education offered is of an indifferent quality. Looked at from another perspective, while the expensive private schools are the preferred choice of the urban elite, the publicly financed schools are the only option for the urban and the rural poor. This divide in the access to high quality education has several implications for social development. In the first place, economic power determines the nature and type of education that a child can access. Secondly, the notion of "merit" gets influenced by access that money can buy. In consequence, almost 80% of the seats in higher education go to the top 30% of the income brackets.

There are large segments of the population in India who are under-represented, or not represented at all, in the higher education system. There are disparities between regions within the country; there are disparities among different social groups; and there are disparities also between genders.

It is often agreed that the concepts of quality and excellence, on the one hand, and access and equity, on the other, are contradictory, if not mutually exclusive concerns. The pro-elitist argument runs on the lines that attaining peaks of excellence is the function of a selective process and that every one is not equally equipped to reach the top. Those who argue for wider access however point out that all human beings have the innate potential to blossom as top achievers and that the selection process is an artificial filter to keep many people out of the race. Throughout the 20th century, there are several examples of governments intervening to widen access to higher education for the socially and economically disadvantaged sections of the society all over the world. The emergence of democracy as a way of life demands that all people should have equal opportunities, and access to education is the surest guarantee for the process of equalisation of opportunities. It was inevitable therefore that higher education which was perceived, not so long ago, as an elitist pursuit should now become a vehicle for enhancing equity in society. Perhaps, because of this focus on equity, higher education systems are also being held guilty of compromising with quality and standards.

In more recent times, this conflict is being resolved by most societies by restructuring the educational processes and introducing extensive systemic reforms. The massive expansion of open and distance education, the rapidly growing involvement of communication and information technologies in education and, not the least the opening up of most of the traditional universities are all responses to the multiplicity of learner groups, and the ever increasing learning needs. All these developments have also had a deep impact on higher education in India.

Coming back to the current status of access to higher education in India, in spite of the impressive record of growth in absolute terms, the present level of 6% enrolment of the relevant age group is lower than that of many developing countries. UNESCO gives the average enrolment of the relevant age group of 18 to 23 as 14.1% for the year 1991 for the developing countries compared to

40.2 % for the developed countries (UNESCO, 1995). The major issue confronting higher education in India is therefore of providing equitable access to a large population entering the system in all the regions of the country and a high proportion of first generation learners from groups that can ill-afford even the present level of costs. It needs to be realised that the problem of equitable access has not been addressed squarely in the past to make any visible impact on the expansion of programmes or the development of infrastructure. The situation can only become worse if urgent steps are not taken to meet the twin needs of ensuring relevance for programmes and strengthening the infrastructure. The possible consequences of inaction are:

- entry into the higher education system will become more selective affecting the weaker sections and the principle of equity;
- higher education will become more expensive and therefore out of reach for large sections of the population, again to the detriment of the principle of equity.

Women in higher education

The participation of women in higher education has been a subject of extensive debate. Women's enrolment in higher education was 28 % in 1982-83. After a decade, the enrolment was 32.8 % indicating a marginal increase of 4.9 % only (Indiresan 1995). A faculty wise analysis indicates that of the total enrolment in Education Faculty, more than 52.4 % are women, and that in the Arts faculty, their enrolment percentage is 42.3. Of the total enrolment in engineering and technology related courses, only about 6.2 % are women. In order to encourage women's education, a special effort has been made to set up women's colleges. There were 647 women's colleges in 1982-83; it rose to 925 by 1991-92. Despite about 50 % growth in the number of women's colleges, women's enrolment grew only by about 5 %. This raises a serious question in terms of the effect and viability of separate institutions for women in enhancing women's education. This also raises doubt about the contention that women's education is restricted because of the lack of available infrastructure. Women's participation as a percentage of the total and their participation in professional education, is a matter of serious concern, particularly since women students have not been found wanting in their academic performance.

Participation of women in decision making in higher education is another area of serious concern. Although UGC has been chaired by two women scholars, the proportion of women Vice-chancellors is estimated at about only 7%. The percentage of Women Deans, and even women teachers in higher education is relatively low compared to their male counterparts.

1.3.3 Resources in higher education

As in any other country, resources in education are perennially in short supply. There are problems of allocation to the education sector ignoring the claims of other sectors of development, besides considering the competing claims of various sub-sectors within the educational budget. Apart from resource allocation and mobilization, resource utilization is also a significant issue.

The budgetary allocation for higher education in the First Five Year Plan (1956-61) was 09 % of the total education allocation which rose steadily to 25 per cent in the Fourth Five Year Plan (1971-76). By the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90) it came down to 14 per cent and to an all time low of 07 per cent in the Eighth Five Year Plan (1991-96). However, this allocation was separate from that made to technical education.

A major controversy in the last decade of last century is the financing of higher education. The prime issue is the priority given to higher education vis-à-vis basic education. The main criticism has been that the subsidization of higher education caters largely to the upper middle-class segment of the society. Because of increasing politicisation and growing militancy among students, the universities have not been able to raise fees. Even in the prestigious colleges under Delhi University, the monthly course fee is still Rs.18 as it was about 40 years ago, while the annual per capita expenditure was varied between Rs. 6000 and 9000 in 1992. The government cannot subsidize higher education to this extent; course fees have to be raised to recover a reasonable proportion of the cost. Higher education is under pressure.

More than 85 % of the budget in higher education is spent on salary alone. Hence, unless the human resources are adequately utilized, not much improvement can be brought about. While the UGC has stipulated about 40 hours of stay and work per week in higher education, of which less than 50 % is to be devoted to actual teaching (18 periods for lecturers, 12 periods for the readers and eight periods for the professors), and the rest of the time to research and preparation, the Commission on Teachers in Higher Education indicated that very few teachers, in fact, devote time to prepare for the classes, leave alone research work (NIEPA, 1985). Thus the teacher as a resource is grossly underutilized.

UGC initiated the "Country-Wide Classroom" program to enrich college education. Two hours a day of telecast, all round the year, and more than 15 specialized high-tech institutions to produce software for television, are maintained at an enormous cost to the country. The rate of utilization of the programs is just around ten per cent. Similar are the cases with laboratories, computers, etc. Thus, higher education suffers, on the one hand from the lack of resources, while on the other, it is unable to use the available resources effectively.

Higher and professional education has contributed tremendously to national development through the required manpower development in post-independent India. Had the government not taken those steps in the 1950s or 1960s, Indian education would not have been what it is today. If higher education is not subsidized, the country might risk its future development. If it is, the subsidy will benefit largely the upper middle class who can afford to pay and will, hence, be social injustice. The question is whether after 50 years of independence, Indian higher education has matured enough to fend for itself. It needs extensive investigation, particularly since a majority of the developed countries continue to subsidize higher education.

Check Your Progress 5

Do you agree that higher education is under pressure ? What are the main reasons for this situation? Answer in about 50 words.

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

ii) Compare your answer with the *one given at the end of the unit?*

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1.4 THE FUTURE

Higher education in India stands at the cross-roads. It is destined to take a course different from the one it has followed so far. This would, however, be a development over, and in continuation of, some of the existing experiences. This change will be both by design and by compulsion. Higher education as mentioned earlier, has been resilient as indicated by the frequent expert committee reviews. This spirit of reforms will continue. At the same time, changes will have to be made under the compulsion of globalization and global competitiveness in education, as well as the resource crunch. Private initiatives in higher education and the new technologies giving birth to the new learning systems and knowledge networks will add to this environment of change.

1.4.1 Globalization

Linked with the issue of quality, financing and privatization, is the issue of globalization of higher education. Indian students have for a long time been

going to the European and North American countries for higher and specialized education. This migration was largely at the initiative of Indian students. There has been a definite change in this trend after opening up of the Indian market in 1991. A large number of universities from Australia, Canada, UK and USA are directly offering courses in India with a face to face module in the respective countries and universities. Some of the foreign universities and institutions are twinning up with one or the other Indian institutions. The Indian middle-class, with its aspiration and spending capability, has enthusiastically responded to the international programs. In this process, many fake universities with addresses in the USA, UK etc. have also entered the scene. The Indian UGC has been concerned about this issue and has initiated steps to protect the Indian students. However, this trend of foreign universities enrolling Indian students, has resulted in one dimensionality in globalisation where the Indian market is being exploited by the western universities.

The Indian universities and the institutions have also been attracting students from the third world countries for the last three decades. While there is no authentic data, there are a good number of students from the African and South Asian countries in Delhi University, Pune University, MS University of Baroda and the like. IGNOU has provided manpower in distance education through its programmes PGDDE and MADE in 15 Commonwealth countries (Murthy, 1997).

The experience indicates that India is not doing enough marketing. Though there is no economic study, one can presume that there is no trade balance in the globalisation of education. The marketing by the foreign universities in India is strongly backed by the specific agencies of the respective country governments, the British Council for UK, the USIS for the US, the Aus Aid for Australia, for example. Compared to this, the Government of India has not developed any mechanism and policy to support Indian institutions marketing their programs abroad. This needs serious consideration if Indian higher education has to compete in the global education market.

1.4.2 Private initiatives

Privatization of higher education is another major issue. In the context of private agencies charging capitation fee for admission, the Supreme Court judgement of 1992 mentioned : "Such a treatment is patently unreasonable, unfair and unjust since merited poor cannot get admission where rich can purchase". The other important consideration with regard to the financing of higher education, is from the consideration of upfront national development.

The private initiative in education has taken two different forms. One form is that of the private colleges, usually professional colleges, which offer engineering, medical and teacher education courses. These courses are designed by the universities, and the concerned university also examines students and certifies results. Except a very small number, all universities are

financed by the government. There is a serious debate about initiating private universities. A Private Universities Bill has already been proposed to the Parliament. Some of the major industrial houses, media corporations and private institutions are eagerly awaiting the clearance of the Bill which will usher in a new era in higher education. Also, the existing conventional system will not have the capability of matching the quality expectation of the employers and the society which the Indian middle-class will be prepared to buy. Hence, in the years to come, private university institutions will not only emerge but will dominate the Indian scenario.

This scenario will lead to the creation of more and more autonomous institutions. There will be a shift in the governance of higher education from administrative affiliation to assessment and quality - related accreditation. The National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC), in all probability, will get into the business of assessment of the emerging institutions and accredit institutions for a specific period. This time-bound accreditation will bring in a departure from the current practice of permanent affiliation to the universities.

The second form of private initiative is with the corporate sector offering job-related courses. During the last two decades, certain private institutions offering courses have been in major focus. This is particularly true in competitive examinations, information technology, and management education. For example NIIT, one of the private institutions on information technology, has set up the virtual university, called NIIT's NetVarsity; on the Internet, it offers both graduate and post-graduate programs on information technology. The APTECH, Brilliant, Intel are the others in the market. Similarly, ZED Career Academy, a media enterprise, is a major player outside the university system. There is yet a third type -- the professional societies offering another set of job-related courses. For example:

- All India Management Association which offers courses in Management;
- Institution of Engineers which offers courses in engineering which are equivalent to Bachelor's or Master's degree;
- Institute of Chartered Accountants which offers courses in Chartered Accountancy, etc.

Despite the fact that these institutes are not integral parts of the university system in India, their products are in demand not only in the private sector but also in the government sector. Such institutions will grow in number in the coming years and become a predominant phenomenon -- a new reference point for relevance and quality education.

1.4.3 Open and distance education and new pedagogy

Open and distance education is emerging as another predominant feature of higher education. The number of conventional universities which offer distance education courses is more than 60. Gradually, other universities will join the new mode and offer courses, both through the conventional face-to-face and distance education mode. Along with the National Open University (IGNOU), more and more state open universities are coming up. There are already nine state open universities out of the targeted fifteen in the country. Open learning system at the university level accounts for about 20 per cent of the total enrolment. This is likely to go up substantially by the end of the next decade.

The open universities have brought in an open choice of courses and curriculum which the conventional universities have failed to offer. With greater democratization of education, the students will try to take courses they want which may not fall in line with the existing conventional combinations. In other words, in the coming decades, the universities will be challenged to offer individualized curriculum or "designer curriculum". The open universities have already branched off from the conventional correspondence courses to the multi-channel learning systems. The Indira Gandhi National Open University has enlisted the use of structured print material, television and radio, personal contact programs and interactive television. It has also started offering courses on the Internet. The proposal to set up a network of open universities will ensure that all open universities enter the multi-channel learning system by 2000 A.D (IGNOU, 1997). The lead taken by the open universities in using multi-channel learning will seriously influence the conventional universities. This will reduce the existing gap between the conventional universities and the open learning institutions in terms of quality of delivery of instruction.

With these imminent changes in higher education, coupled with the reduction in government subsidy, the teaching community will be challenged, in more than one respect in the future. They would have to become more accountable – both to the system as well as to the students; particularly, when the students pay for their education. The present permanent kind of jobs might be steadily replaced by contractual assignments which is already the practice in the private institutions in India and a majority of the institutions in the developed industrial nations. In other words, the future criteria for survival in the profession will be quality and continuous upgradation of professional skills.

Check Your Progress 6

How do you visualise open and distance education in the coming decade, and new teaching-learning strategies emerging from that?

Note : i) Space is given below for your answer

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

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1.4.4 Technology support

Technology will be another driving force in effecting change in the educational process, particularly in the mode of educational delivery and the way students learn. National Council for Education Research and Training (NCERT) was responsible for the short- term in-service education of primary teachers. Because of the large number, it resorted to the cascade model. With the availability of interactive television, it has switched over to a satellite based interactive distance education mode. Many national and state training institutions have adopted this new mode. An interesting case is that of Goa University, which is a conventional university. It has provided all its colleges with-(DRS) facility thus creating a network. It is now equipped to offer lectures by university professors to all its colleges simultaneously. It can offer tutorial services, remedial instruction and other such facilities. An increasing number of colleges and universities are getting connected to the Internet. An Indian company has also been supported by the government on Internet as part of Information Technology Policy. In the coming years, more and more students will take courses on the Internet. This is likely to lead to the development of an Indian knowledge network involving computer communication and satellite based interactive television and radio. The future mode of educational delivery will hence change substantially.

1.5 LET US SUM UP

Higher education is, by far, the most sensitive segment of Indian education. It has been criticized for subsidizing the upper middle class, but, it is this segment which gave India a head-start immediately after independence. It is not without such futuristic consideration that a visionary like Nehru invested on

higher education and called upon no less than Dr. Radhakrishnan to look into the issue right at the beginning of the country's independence.

Higher education has experienced tremendous expansion. Yet, not more than 6% of the relevant age-group is in the fold of higher education. In order to compete in the global market, India has to substantially expand its higher education facilities. Without the government subsidy and without legislative sanction for private universities, this is a major challenge. Higher education is one sector which is poised for major changes in the next few decades; and such changes will determine India's future in the era of globalization. We have covered in this unit, Indian higher education – origin, growth, expansion, major issues/challenges and its future scenario in the competitive global context.

1.6 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : POSSIBLE ANSWERS

1.
 - i) Yes
 - ii) The major changes resulted from the reviews and reforms are: examination reforms, adoption of semester system by many universities, norms for staff recruitment and development, restructured curriculum for vocational courses, autonomous colleges, centres of advanced studies, etc.
 - iii) In my opinion two major areas to be addressed by policy makers of higher education are : (a) declining standards at all levels of higher education (including research) ; (b) lack of relevance of programmes and courses offered by these institutions to changing societal needs.
2. The major diversification was; (a) introducing new subjects like biochemistry, microbiology, regional planning, biotechnology, etc. at undergraduate and post-graduate levels; (b) introduction of vocational courses at the graduate level; and (c) gradation of UG courses into honours and pass in some of the universities.
3. In the context of steadily declining resource support, an innovative initiative taken by India was the creation of common, facilities and services that could be shared by a number of universities. Establishment of highly specialised and sophisticated research facilities in Nuclear Science, Astronomy and Astrophysics, Information and Library Network, etc. are the major examples in this direction.
4. Several commissions and committees have diagnosed the higher education system in India, and made valuable recommendations to

remedy its weaknesses. But these recommendations were never implemented earnestly. Shortage of resources, lack of commitment on the part of the academic community, and an overall scepticism about all reform initiatives were the main reasons for the failure of reforms in Indian higher education.

5. Yes, I agree with the view that higher education is under pressure. The main reasons for this situation are – i) decreasing government funding for higher education; ii) government's reluctance to continue the subsidy in the light of the criticism that higher education caters only to the upper middle class of society; iii) politicisation and student militancy in universities, scuttling reform efforts especially in economic recovery of costs, etc.
6. With emerging communication and information technologies, open and distance education would further dominate higher education sector in the coming decade –open universities have already brought open choice of courses and curriculum, as well as multi-channel learning systems to their students. With increasing competition from private institutions, universities will be forced to offer individualized curriculum or ('designer curriculum') and customised services.

UNIT 2 HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE THIRD WORLD COUNTRIES : AN OVERVIEW

Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Objectives
- 2.2 Higher Education and Development
 - 2.2.1 The common inheritance
 - 2.2.2 The third world universities
 - 2.2.3 Variations in strategies and approaches
- 2.3 Management of Higher Education in The Third World
 - 2.3.1 Administration
 - 2.3.2 University finances
 - 2.3.3 The academic community
 - 2.3.4 The students
- 2.4 Problems and Prospects
 - 2.4.1 Curriculum and the organisation of study
 - 2.4.2 Language
 - 2.4.3 Inter third world country status
 - Central and Latin America
 - Asia
 - Africa
 - Arab States
 - Tasks Ahead
- 2.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.6 Check Your Progress: Possible Answers

2.0 INTRODUCTION

The term higher education, often used synonymously with tertiary education, is education of an academic level higher than that attainable on completion of a full secondary education course. 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). Though the narrow notion restricted to traditional universities and colleges does not reflect the growing complexity and diversity of the contemporary higher education system, to cope with which, and to cater to the myriad demands of the clientele group, there exists today a large array of higher education institutes in many of the Third World countries, as elsewhere in the world. The term higher education is often used interchangeably with

'university education'. Today, universities are not the only element in the post-secondary educational system, but they attract maximum attention and critical analysis, particularly in the Third World. Higher education, in the particular context of the Third World has been used to designate the education imparted by various types of formal post-secondary education institutions besides universities, which train middle and higher-level professional personnel through degree, diploma and certificate granting programmes.

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

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you should be able to

- describe the status of higher education in general, and in third world countries in particular,
- explain 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.

2.2 HIGHER EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

The traditional definitions of the Third World emphasised "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 globe 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 systems of higher education, especially in countries that gained freedom and status as independent nations. In most of these Third World countries, higher education has undergone radical transformation. The higher education institutions were expected to take part in the development and modernization of their nations by enlightening and training the personnel for national

administration, accepting the western academic experts' views stressing, along with other ideas, the creation of key social infrastructures at the top of the society as the route to modernization. Many Third World nations emphasised building or expanding the higher education system as an immediate top priority in the post-independence agenda. The education budget of many of these countries were skewed toward post-secondary education and expectations were high from this sector. Universities 'produced' graduates who occupied vital positions in the countries' administrative hierarchy. In some countries, however, the over supply of such graduates in the field of the liberal arts was obvious while shortages continued in the technical/professional areas. Moreover, other vital areas like primary education and adult education were neglected as in the case of India, and development remained uneven. In recent years, a change in perspective is coming about in some countries. For example, in India, in the recent past, universalisation of primary education and campaigns for total literacy have moved to the top of the development agenda.

- Despite the fact that due to changing trends in development policies, less attention is being paid to university development by scholars and by international agencies, Third World nations remain committed to higher education as an important part of the process of modernization. University development is seen as a key priority in almost every Third World nation regardless of ideological persuasion or economic status. The stress on non-formal education, the need for building up basic literacy, etc., have in recent times contributed to some deemphasis on higher education.

2.2.1 The common inheritance

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

- the colonial past, which still remains a major influence on the intellectual and educational life of many of these nations. The latter have freed themselves from colonial bondage only to enter into an era of neo-colonial dependency; that 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 metropolitan 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 Third World countries. The

latter's 'provincial status' handicaps them in the creation and distribution of knowledge which are 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 Third World, 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.

2.2.2 The third world universities

Third World universities, primarily based on western models, are, in a sense, foreign institutions in their own countries, reflecting many of the norms and values which often clash with those of the still traditional societies; 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 which continue 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 was largely followed except for Brazil with a predominantly Portuguese influence. Contemporary western influence, particularly that of USA, is perhaps of major importance in many Third World nations with adapted patterns of academic and curricular organisation.

Certain other common features of university life in these countries are:

- a) The instructional medium in the universities and other higher education institutes still remains a foreign language and many of the faculty have been trained outside the country. The language for teaching and research, is a prime issue of concern in most Third World nations except the major part of Latin America. The practice in many of these countries is to have a European language as the medium 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, and 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, libraries are not equipped for modern advanced scholarly pursuits.
- d) Many faculty members are too busy with heavy teaching loads or with responsibilities such as advising government agencies or holding outside jobs to pursue research interests.
- e) The academic systems serve a small proportion of the so-called relatively "elitist" section of the relevant age-group even in those countries which have been making major efforts to expand higher education, like Nigeria, Thailand, the Philippines and India. Virtually 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.
- 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 -- the UK, France and the United States, in particular. These relationships are, in general, unequal in nature with the Third World universities mostly at a disadvantage.

Even to-day, the Third World nations have not been able to free themselves totally from foreign influence. The continuing, rather complex impact of the industrialised nations is glaringly obvious. Some of the key elements are:

- a) In several Third World countries, as in the oil-rich Arab nations, foreigners constitute a majority of teachers in both secondary and higher education. In many cases, expatriates among the academic staff, often hold senior appointments, as in Nigeria with a large number of expatriate academics from Britain. Sometimes teachers from other Third World countries, like India or Egypt, serve as expatriates; these faculty members invariably affect their employer institutions with their academic thinking style; norms and values; orientation towards research, teaching styles; etc.
- b) Students from many Third World 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 cooperation among the Third World countries in sharing facilities, exchanging students and seconding teachers for work in each other's institutions. Such regional links can potentially be an important force for the improvement of higher education; coordinating 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. Some sort of 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) 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.

Check Your Progress 1

What are the three major common features of the universities in the third world countries?

- Note:** i) Space is given below for your answer
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this unit.

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2.2.3 Variations in strategies and approaches

The Third World 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, as such, 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 unrewarded, 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 obvious among the Third World universities. For example, while most academic systems 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. Third World expansion has been, in general, more rapid than in the industrialised nations, partly because the original base was very small. Nevertheless, such rapid explosion of the academic system in a decade or so, has taken its toll in both financial and human terms.

Some Third World 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, virtually 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 Third World countries with a significant private sector in higher education as in the Phillipines and certain Latin American countries. Major gaps have obviously developed between the higher education policy and the realities emerging from rapid growth patterns.

The orientations of the Third World nations diverge widely in terms of the higher education policy with significant shifts in their directions over time becoming evident. Centrally planned countries like Cuba, Vietnam and China have generally emphasised 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 (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 Third World nations invested substantially in post-secondary education after independence. With the realisation that higher education was not the panacea for all developmental problems, 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.

Consequently, the educational policy emphasis of many Third World countries shifted, leading to a de-prioritization of higher education since the 1970s. For example, in many countries, including India, the focus is now on basic education.

The considerable variations in the higher education policy of the Third World nations may also be attributed to variables like ideological perspective, levels 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 2

Identify the following statements as 'true' or 'false'.

Note: Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit.

- i) Teaching of social sciences and humanities expanded rapidly in third world countries. ()
- ii) China and Vietnam emphasized education and training in vocational and technical fields in their post secondary educational institutions. ()

2.3 MANAGEMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE THIRD WORLD

The 1980s and early 1990s were a difficult period 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, and so on. Demands on management in these situations differed; the extent and manner

of adaptation to them 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 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. Different countries have responded differently to the rather diverse situations which have nevertheless retained certain common managerial policies with an impact on institutional functioning.

Higher education systems, as we have seen in the previous unit, have generally been subject 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). Institutions in countries namely Singapore, Phillipines, Nigeria, Algeria, like in the Nordic countries, might be classified as institutions where governments have already decreed a policy change to a more self-regulatory type of system, and with the cooperation of higher educational institutions, certain elements have been implemented. However, the impact of these changes, (which are very recent), on institutional management has not been fully analysed.

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.

2.3.1 Administration

In general, the approaches to higher education administration have evolved without careful planning because the early universities in the Third World were small institutions, not needing a complicated administrative mechanism. The debate concerning autonomy and accountability in higher education is a world-wide one; in this context, certain issues in the Third World are more complex than the ones in the industrialised nations: Some of these issues are:

- a) the colonial model of the university offered little scope for academic autonomy, as for example, in India colonial higher education was moulded in a culture of 'subservience';

- b) the culture and polity 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 a source of dissent; (in Indonesia, Thailand, South Korea and China, students have played a key role in overthrowing governments; fear of this compels the governments to limit the autonomy of academic institutions);
- c) in relation to their costs, universities in the Third World are expensive institutions and they depend on governments for funding -- a massive government fiscal support virtually prompts the governments to have a major voice in goal setting for higher education and in determining some of the details of university operations;
- d) the demands of development often need 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 the Third World nations 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 Third World 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 Third World 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 -- both technical knowledge and administrative skill-- of the university administrative staff across the Third World 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 organisation.

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 emphasized decentralisation and client-involvement in higher education, little efforts are evident in this direction.

The wealthier, particularly the newly industrialized countries have put the higher education system under government steering in order that they 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 centralised. The institutions in the latter, being 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 innovations aiming to link universities with industry to enhance external funding and growing interest in using computers for management, (as in Indonesia and Thailand) is 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 some places, as in the case of Birla Institute of Technology and Sciences in India, institutional management have been private and often assisted by the local industries and foreign aid agencies.

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 themselves. 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 small. The government offices are in regular liaison with the Rectors; data gathering is limited, and centralised accounting does not allow the identification of the costs of university sub-units. Higher educational institutions in the Philippines 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 are comparatively freer to decide admission numbers, course design, examination policy, staff selection, financial management and so on, but there is a 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 and staff recruitment/dismissal.

2.3.2 University finances

A growing number of Third World nations, characterised as advanced developing countries like Singapore, Malaysia, Hongkong, Taiwan, South Korea, Kuwait and the oil-rich nations of the Gulf Region, with high economic growth are devoting substantial attention and resources to develop stable higher education systems. These countries have certain distinct advantages. For instance, 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 no inhibitions in acquiring technology and securing 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 of the Third World countries, however, the 'resource crunch' is a perennial problem. The management of higher education finance occupies a significant position in these countries. Empirical exercises show that in Latin America, the budget is the main instrument of academic control, but the process 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 are absent. An authoritarian concept of management and control has tended to curb any interest in cost efficiency. Institutions act defensively and lack adequate systems of financial management to 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 which are funded 90-100% by their governments which in many cases appoint the key staff for administration and academic affairs. Universities may have some control over the internal allocation of resources for the relatively small amount 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 to enhance 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, comparatively, the least freedom to spend. The Tanzanian university of Dar-es-salaam has recently acquired some flexibility with budgeting partially decentralized to faculty level under strong administrative control. The ceiling is decided by the Ministry and the Bursar makes priority-wise 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 and may re-allocate funds, generate income for departmental use and carry forward underspending 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; they 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 Vice-Chancellors of Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Swaziland and Zimbabwe.

Check Your Progress 3

What are the major issues in the financial management of universities in the Third World?

- Note:** i) Space is given below for your answer
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this unit.

In Asia, government funding per student in real terms generally decreased in the 1980s. For example, it declined by 22% per student during 1980-1985; in Pakistan and India, universities regularly had to resort to overdrafts; quality maintenance is difficult and there is constant pressure to expand, upgrade and to conduct applied research.

The revenue, earned from tuition fees, which are under government control, is small and has declined in public universities; in Nepal and Pakistan fees have remained unchanged for over the last 13 years and 40 years, respectively. In Thailand, only 5% of the funds for universities are from fees, while in the Philippines, India, Singapore and Korea it is varying from 10% to 50% respectively. Private institutions in Korea and the Philippines get 80% of their revenue from fees but unit costs are lesser.

Funds are allocated according to line-item budgets on 'historical' incremental' basis. In 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 paid regularly. 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 plans, appoints staff and assigns students with grants. 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 -- a 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; the staff are state employees; transfers involve a complicated process and, are therefore, rare. Though institutions may take in fee-paying students, they are still given an enrolment quota for such students. Despite certain technical institutions earning from research and training contracts, etc. the underlying major problem of high unit cost still remains. Improvements have been made by broadening educational programmes and organizing institutional networks to share facilities; but these do not affect the high costs of such institutions which even offer services like hospitals and schools to their staff.

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. Conspicuous features in financial management of Indian higher education are the lack of proper rules on staff ratios, infrastructure and admissions; cuts in funds for books, laboratories and equipment, which have led to undesirable expenditure patterns and too much spending on non-teaching staff in comparison to that on infrastructure.

In 1989, the Pakistan government tried to improve their financial position by eradicating deficits and enhancing tuition fees. The responsibility for higher education was transferred to the provisional government. Institutes may now "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.

For enhancing flexibility for financial management, in Tunisian institutions any unspent credits at the end of the year may now be transferred to a fund at the disposal of the particular institution, which then has to get the approval for expenditure from that fund in the following year.

Countries like Singapore, Indonesia, Malaysia, major Latin American countries -- 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 areas like literacy, draw attention to the fact that the availability of financial resource is vital, but not "the only ingredient for building an effective academic system" (Altbach, 1982). Several countries in South-East Asia and East Asia have experienced high rates of economic growth in the past decade and have invested considerable resources in education. In these countries like Singapore, Taiwan, Malaysia and South Korea higher education has made impressive gains in terms of expansion of the system as also of quality improvement though their academic system serves only a small portion of the relevant age-group; many students, unable to enter the local universities, go abroad for academic pursuits.

2.3.3 The academic community

The situation of Third World academics is paradoxical. They are members of an international community with links to professionals in the major world centers of research and scholarship; but, in many countries they face difficulties in terms of access to international journals, research facilities and contacts 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). Third World academics are often among the elite of their society; 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.

Conflict between the key traditional academic functions of teaching and research in the Third World context 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 lecturing 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 only limited autonomy and has to show loyalty to the government in both teaching and not-teaching activities.

There are conspicuous differences among the Third World nations with regard to the status of the academic profession. For example, in the oil-rich Arabian Gulf countries with recently established universities, the academic staff are handsomely paid; but the lack of an established university tradition and the absence of well-stocked libraries stifles the effectiveness of the profession. In Singapore, and to some extent in Malaysia the growth has been

carefully planned so that expansion has not completely overwhelmed the profession. 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 'professionalise' 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).

2.3.4 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 caused 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 Third World, 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 the Third World students in higher education.

2.4 PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

Almost all countries of the Third World are grappling with enormous problems. Their economies in many cases are in shambles; their history of independent nationhood is no more than half a century old. 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 societies), most of the Third World countries are still to reach the stage of modernisation. There is no denying the fact that education has to play a crucial role in bridging this gap, in accelerating the process of modernisation and creating the environment for transition to the post-modern societies. The problems are plenty, and the prospects awesome. We shall make a quick survey of this landscape in this section.

2.4.1 Curriculum and the organisation of study

The Third World academic systems, in general, inherited a curriculum heavily loaded with the liberal arts disciplines and organised in the classical European style-- its basic assumptions often being questionable due to the very different realities of these nations. The clientele lacked a western cultural background; the need for educated manpower was quite different, and these universities were required to provide human resource for the emerging technological societies. Despite all these, change has been slow since the Third World nations felt the top priority was to offer university studies to a growing population, and the old order continued with the curriculum and courses organised in the traditional way, ultimately resulting in the oversupply of graduates in liberal arts and a general fall in academic standards.

In the advanced developing countries, the concentration on liberal education gradually lessened, through a stress initially on the Social Sciences and later, on natural sciences and applied technology. Curricula in fields like Education, Economics and Sociology have been partly adapted to indigenous needs. Areas such as Engineering, Management studies, etc., have become prominent. The growth and diversification of national economies has led to needs both in skills relevant to Financial Management -- Business Administration, Accountancy, specialised fields in Law, Marketing and Advertising, and in the applied technologies. Singapore's world renowned urban housing programme is the handiwork 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 who have won major contracts abroad. In Malaysia the need to expand, strengthen and upgrade agricultural technology was recognised as crucial. Malaysia's Agricultural University was upgraded from college to university status in 1970. Its success in diversifying the economy and its ability to undertake relatively large rural modernization projects was possible only because of successful

restructuring of higher education. In India too, the scenario is changing fast, and newer subjects are rapidly gaining popularity.

In recent years, efforts to modify the classical pattern of organisation of studies have been widespread; the academic systems, in general, have moved from the European to the American pattern of organisation. 'Continuous assessment' of academic work and shorter courses with specified marks assigned to monitor students closely are in practice permitting the teachers to be in more direct contact with the learning process and provide 'feedback' for students. Some universities like that of Kuwait have implemented a major shift from the British model to 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 organisation of curriculum that will work effectively in all developing countries of the Third World, but it is for sure that "the traditional European curricular and organisational 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 Third World are trying to diversify the curriculum, but a number of constraints still impede this effort, like (a) textbooks mostly continue to be imported from the industrialised 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 suit the local circumstances; (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. Another significant hurdle is the language used by the universities.

Third World countries have been mostly using European language. The continued use of a European language eliminates a significant segment of the country's population from access to higher education which gets insulated from the society. The privileged sections, largely from the urban areas who can access education in the metropolitan language, generally dominate the scene.

Check Your Progress 4

What are the constraints in diversifying the curriculum by universities in Third World countries?

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

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

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.....

2.4.2 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 reaches of the society and even to this day this is true of certain Third World nations. Use of the national language broadens access to, and influence of, higher education; research 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 Third World nations are multilingual with the language policy often being politically volatile. The use of a European language as the central medium for intellectual exchange blocks access to knowledge for large segments of people in these nations; language becomes a device of social stratification. Those with command of a 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 the Third World even in countries with some commitment to national languages, like Indonesia, as well as to the paucity of technical and scholarly books in the national languages. The Third World directly takes knowledge from the industrialised 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 how 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 their "domination of the world's research system, of publishing houses, the use of the major metropolitan languages, in particular English and the sheer size and wealth of the academic systems in the industrialized nations..... Academicians trained abroad in metropolitan languages are hesitant to teach at home in indigenous

languages; textbooks and other instructional materials are mostly unavailable in such languages besides being expensive and difficult to produce. Many countries with an indigenous language as an instructional medium, have a common complaint -- that they still depend 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. While all Arab countries are committed to use Arabic as the instructional medium, some do use English partly -- like Kuwait. However, in many Third World nations, most students are effectively bilingual; the synthesis of instruction in an indigenous language combined with the use of books and text materials in a European language, is not impossible. For example, long ago India made a commitment to use the country's regional languages, but it still continues to use English in the educational system, enabling universities to fulfil 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 developing nations are, invariably, dependent on expatriates to help establish new and more applied disciplines, more relevant to developing economies, and they can function in a European language, and since these nations need 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 face nations 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 organisations. This network is dominated by major universities as the nerve-centres, though for the large industrialised nations, academic institutions elsewhere are to some extent, peripheral. The Third World universities have to come to grips with this peripherality 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.

2.4.3 Inter-third world country status

The current status of the Third World nations vis-a-vis higher education may largely be attributed to the various types of steering policies adopted by them, as revealed from the trend study during an empirical investigation (Sanyal, 1995). From the preceding discussion, emanate the inter Third World country similarities and differences, in respect of various variables. The status of the various regions and countries with regard to these, is as follows:

Central and Latin America

The major problems in the region, in higher education are: (a) mass social demand, (b) declining quality, (c) students inability to study full-time, (d) low staff salaries compelling good academics to leave/take up additional jobs, (e) politicization of all issues by teachers and student unions, (f) inadequate social/political framework to manage change, and (g) government bureaucracy.

The measures adopted include: (a) tight government control over expenditure, (b) 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, (c) curb on universities' role 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 in curricula and teaching. Administration was to work according to objectives and not by tasks. Institutional heads, however, were hesitant to take decisions and 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", (Sanayal, 1995).

In this region, despite problems at the national level, individual institutions have taken management initiatives, in large universities in Mexico and in Brazil funds have been provided for computers and information systems indicating the availability of tools to assist efforts for achievement of more efficient management.

Asia

This region comprising some of the richest and the poorest countries, has tried: (a) cooperation with the productive sector, emphasising technology and science; and (b) privatization which has greatly expanded the provision of higher education.

In the Philippines, 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 programmes, 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. The processes for executing institutional self-regulation, that is, the accrediting agencies, are functioning at present.

It is evident that most Asian Countries have conducted, in cooperation with bilateral or international agencies, sporadic overall system evaluations necessary for reform decisions.

Africa

The African region has been tremendously affected by : (a) the world economic crisis; (b) serious financial and management problems in higher education, (c) compulsion on the universities to produce too many graduates to meet the insatiable social demand, and (d) high enrolment and imbalance in disciplines leading to problems regarding low quality, unemployment and unrest.

The measures adopted by the African countries include: (a) reduction of unit costs by encouraging students to live off campus -- as in Ghana, Uganda and Tanzania; (b) cutting out certain allowances and course rationalisation as in

Nigeria and Ibadan; (c) converting bookshops and cafes into self-financing enterprises as in Uganda and Zambia; (d) student loan schemes as in Botswana, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Rwanda, Zambia and Zimbabwe; and (e) payment to academic staff by lecture output as in Uganda. These measures have been useful but not adequate to arrest the declining quality of teachers, buildings, and equipment, etc. Certain universities in the region, as in Mozambique, depend largely on donor assistance for survival.

Under the 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 a particularly critical target area 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 systems are: (a) their largely traditional nature and inability to cope with necessary changes due to lack of capable administrators, sound planning, clarity of objectives and control. Faculties have little autonomy, as the ministry manages the staff and budgets are extrapolated from previous years; (b) little attempts by the governments/institutions to innovate; and (c) 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 centralisation. In Iraq, the Ministry decides, besides policy and funding, faculty work loads, programmes and examination schedules. The Egyptian Supreme Council of Universities decides the

enrolments, sets down admission regulations, etc. In Kuwait, measures were taken to strictly enforce university entrance and staff regulations. Tunisia has adopted a policy to expand technical education; in 1988, it rationalised higher education by regrouping faculties around basic administrative units and in 1989 passed a law to reorganise 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 decentralise 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 the majority of the executives have to belong to the region and to the commercial and other economic sectors.

On the whole, the picture that emerges is that there have been serious attempts at reforms in several Third World countries, especially in those which have a regime of centralised planning and control. These attempts were not as strong in those countries which had adopted self-regulation and accountability. In the developing countries this has happened because the governments have taken little action, and without the political will, the institutions can take no initiatives.

Check Your Progress 5

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

Note: i) Check your answers with those given at the end of this unit.

- i) Universities in Mexico and Brazil have taken initiatives in modernising their management, though there are problems at the national level. ()
- ii) Most Asian countries have conducted sporadic overall system evaluations necessary for reform decisions. ()
- iii) Most universities in the African region do not depend on donor assistance for survival. ()
- iv) Excessive centralisation, rigid bureaucratic control and a complete absence of modern management culture are the major features of universities in the Arab Region. ()

Tasks Ahead

Government funding mechanisms and institutional financial management have not changed markedly in the developing countries, irrespective of their economic and educational development levels. Monetary constraint has tended to result in tight control, making innovation or risk unaffordable.

Besides, traditional approaches to higher education planning and decision-making have failed to build appropriate mechanisms into their development and reform strategies to assess uncertainty and risk. The educational planners are, therefore, confronted with the need to move away from a crisis management attitude to a risk analysis approach..... In the case of higher education reforms..., what is really needed is an impact assessment approach reflecting the nature of higher education reforms and innovations which by essence, challenge established practices and vested interests.” (Salmi,1991).

2.5 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 Third World 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 course is on the management of education, we have focussed 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.

2.6 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : POSSIBLE ANSWERS

1. Three main features that are common to the universities in the Tird 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 and iii) lack of funds and laboratory facilities to carry out advanced research. .
2. i) True, ii) True

3. Most of the Third World countries do not have the necessary social and economic infrastructure to support and sustain high quality education and research in their universities. Many of them depend on international aid to develop the higher education infrastructure. Since internal resources are far too scarce, the rigour and discipline associated with financial management are seldom emphasised, and management of aid programmes tends to become loose and soft practices.
4. 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 can not adjust their expertise to suit local conditions; iv) in some countries, expatriates form the main faculty in applied scientific fields.
5. i) True, ii) True, iii) False, iv) True.

UNIT 3 MANAGEMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION: SYSTEMIC LEVEL

Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 Directions of Development since Independence
 - 3.2.1 The role of the central government
 - 3.2.2 The Central Advisory Board of Education
 - 3.2.3 National policy on education
- 3.3 Apex Bodies in Higher Education
 - 3.3.1 University Grants Commission (UGC)
 - 3.3.2 All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE)
 - 3.3.3 National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE)
 - 3.3.4 Distance Education Council (DEC)
 - 3.3.5 Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR)
 - 3.3.6 Other research councils
 - 3.3.7 Professional bodies at the national level
 - 3.3.8 Association of Indian Universities (AIU)
- 3.4 The Role of the State Governments
 - 3.4.1 State governments and the universities
 - 3.4.2 State level agencies
 - 3.4.3 State government and colleges
- 3.5 Structure of Higher Education
- 3.6 Financing of Higher Education
 - 3.6.1 The mechanism for grants
 - 3.6.2 Higher education and five year plans
- 3.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.8 Check Your Progress: Possible Answers

3.0 INTRODUCTION

Unit-1 of the block provided you with an overview of the Indian higher education system – its past, growth and development in the last 50 years, the current status and also the issues and problems for the future. You will recall that while discussing the organisation and structure of higher education in Unit-2 of block 1, we had also taken a look at the role of the governments and the bodies created by them (we called them the apex bodies at the meta system or mega system levels) in the management of higher education. We shall now turn to the management of Indian higher education at the meta/mega system level and examine the roles of the central and state governments as well as the bodies created by them.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After studying this Unit, you should be able to

- identify and describe the major roles played by the central and state governments in Indian higher education,
- examine and analyse the roles and functions of various national bodies in different areas of higher education and the nature of their inter-relationship,
- critically consider the problems and conflicts that a multiplicity of agencies might cause in the functioning of the institutions at the micro level, and
- explain the financing pattern in higher education.

3.2 DIRECTIONS OF DEVELOPMENT SINCE INDEPENDENCE

After the British withdrawal from the country in August 1947, the people of India faced the challenge of bringing about a total transformation of the quality of their living, which involved, three tasks of fundamental importance: first, to frame a programme of national reconstruction for material well-being, secondly, to evolve an ideology for moral and spiritual nourishment, and lastly, to foster a feeling of national identity and involvement in its affairs. The three tasks were integrally related; in fact, they were three facets of a single process and the success of all three was directly or indirectly linked with education. Though, considered relatively, the growth rate of India since 1947 has been slow, yet for an informed observer India had never grown faster, or with a greater will, in the past.

The new Constitution which sought to build India into a Sovereign Democratic Republic was adopted by the Constituent Assembly on November 26, 1949 and came into force on January 26, 1950. The new Constitution, which embodied the aspirations of the new nation, pointedly emphasized the peculiar importance of education in the life of the Indian people, and accordingly made provisions for a national and democratic system of education. The major constitutional provisions relating to education are as follows:

- promotion of education is a shared responsibility of the union and the states;
- the primary responsibility for educational provision is that of the states;
- admission to educational institutions shall be open to all citizens irrespective of religion, race, caste or language;
- minority groups, religious, and linguistic, have the right to establish and run educational institutions of their choice;

- the state shall take special measures to promote the educational interests of the weaker sections of the people.

3.2.1 The role of the central government

The most important point in the constitutional arrangements mentioned above is that promotion of education is a shared responsibility of the central and state governments. While the place of education in the life of the people of India is emphasised, there is a special mention of the education of the minorities-religious and linguistic, as well as the socially and economically disadvantaged sections of the society.

The constitution, while specifying certain areas of responsibility for the centre and the states, assigns to the central government the following functions:

- coordination and determination of standards in institutions of higher education or research and scientific and technical education;
- maintenance of institutions established by the central government (universities, libraries, and museums and scientific and technical institutions);
- establishment and maintenance of institutions of national importance.

This allocation of responsibilities looks seemingly simple as, by and large, the state governments are left with the major tasks of creating facilities, maintaining them and ensuring that people have access to education.

However, a closer look at the centre's area of responsibility in higher education indicates that it has a more complex task to perform. For instance:

- In all higher education, centre has to set the standards and ensure that they are maintained. Since standards of education are functions of several variables like physical infrastructure, content and structure of courses, 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 universities and higher education institutions.
- The core issue in 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 (postgraduate education and research in highly specialised fields which cannot be created in all universities, for example), and the second is concerned with the content,

structure and standards that have a broad measure of comparability 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 for education at the disposal of the states.
- Finally, as the Central Government, it has to assume the responsibility for formulation of the national policy, priority for various sectors and the plans for action in the future which will guide the states in their efforts in the field of education.

This apparent ambiguity in the roles of the central and state governments was cleared with a major amendment to the constitution in 1977. This amendment made education a concurrent subject, that is, a subject on which both the centre and the states could legislate. The constitutional scheme had already a provision that wherever there were conflicts between the central and the state laws, the central law would prevail. This arrangement made the centre's role in education more decisive. It could establish universities anywhere in the country which it could not do till then.

3.2.2 The Central Advisory Board of Education

The Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) was set up before independence to advise the Government of India on the formulation of educational policies and programmes. The Board at present is presided over by the Central Minister in charge of 'education' and consists of all the Education Ministers of all the states and Heads of all major apex bodies in education. There are, besides, a number of educationists and representatives of non-governmental agencies on the Board.

The Board meets from time to time and deliberates on current major issues and recommends changes in policy formulation and implementation of specific programmes. As education is primarily the concern of the State Governments, and since the CABE represents all of them, the Board's views and suggestions find ready acceptance all over the country. It also helps in building a consensus in implementing programmes on which there could possibly be differing views and perceptions.

3.2.3 National policy on education

The approach to educational development after independence was guided largely by the recommendations made by the University Education Commission in 1949 in respect of higher education and by the Secondary Education

Commission in 1957 in respect of school education. However, it was not until 1964 that the central government felt the need for taking a more holistic and comprehensive view of education at all levels and in all areas. This led to the appointment of the Education Commission which submitted a major report entitled *Education and National Development* in 1966. Based on the recommendations and observations made in this Report, the central government felt the need to formulate a national policy to guide the country's educational development. On the recommendation of a Committee of Members of Parliament, the government finalised and announced a policy statement in 1968. We do not wish to go into the details of the policy at this stage as our intention is only to draw attention to the role of government in policy making. As for the content, the policy touched on all areas of education and proposed that development of higher education should be planned, merit should be the criterion for entry in to higher education institutions, and that evening and part-time courses should be organised to widen access to higher education.

The policy-making functions in education devolve on the Department of Education of the Union Ministry of Human Resource Development. The Department of Education has several Bureaux, each one with the specific responsibility for one area. There is a Bureau each for elementary education, secondary education, vocational education, teacher education, technical education and university education. The Department is headed by a Secretary, a civil servant, who reports to the Minister of Education.

The necessity to assign a more positive role for the Central Government in the field of educational development and more pointedly to the achievement of the goals which were set forth in the Directive Principles of the Constitution and the National Policy on Education, 1968, were some of the basic considerations which prompted transfer of the subject from the State to the Concurrent list. Thus the powers, which were formerly enjoyed by the State Governments alone are now being enjoyed by the Union and the State Governments concurrently. This has created a new possibility for the Centre to bring about desired changes and reforms in the field of education. However, the central government holds the view that the State Governments should continue to shoulder the responsibility for educational development and that nothing should be done through legislation which will have the effect of diluting or abridging the developmental responsibility of the states, though the Centre may justifiably intervene to ensure coordination and maintenance of standards of education, to take care of matters of national importance like promoting national integration through education, to promote the growth of national institutions of quality, and to ensure adherence to the National Policy and providing correctives in the events of substantial departures from it. Because of these considerations, the centre's responsibility is limited to such functions as are fundamental and essential to the growth and development of education in the country.

There are some areas of professional education which are not directly administered by the Ministry of HRD/Dept. of Education. The most prominent among these is Agricultural Education and Research. The Central Ministry of Agriculture has a Department of Agricultural Education and Research which is the policy making body in this field. A major initiative taken by this Department was the establishment of Agricultural Universities in the country. There are at present 27 such universities in India. Besides, the Department has a large number of research institutes and centres dealing with research into all aspects of agriculture. The Indian Council of Agricultural Research coordinates the functions of the Agricultural Universities and Research Institute and also provide their funding. Together, these institutions have made major contributions to the breakthrough in Indian agriculture and making India self-sufficient in food production in the last three decades or so.

Check Your Progress 1

- Notes:** i) Space is given below for your answers.
ii) Compare your answers with the one given at the end of this unit.

- a) What are the major responsibilities of State and Central Governments in the area of education? Answer in about 50 words.

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- b) What do you understand by the word 'concurrent subject'? Answer in about 30 words.

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3.3 APEX BODIES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

You will recall that while discussing the organisation of education systems in Unit 2 of Block 1, we had mentioned that in most countries, a number of apex level bodies have been set up to promote and regulate the development of education. We shall now take a look at these national agencies which are involved in the development of higher education in India in one form or another.

3.3.1 University Grants Commission (UGC)

The establishment of a 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 a UGC was expressed by the commission in the following terms:

- a commission for allocating grants to universities from the Centre is fundamental to the improvement and development of universities in India;
- such a body should consist of experts and representatives of government. The political decisions on policy and resource allocation require for their execution, experts who have the knowledge and 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 feasible to provide 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; and
- 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 Central 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. The major functions of the Commission are:

- promotion and coordination of university education;

- determination and maintenance of standards of teaching, examinations 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.

The UGC since its inception has been performing a wide range of functions for the development of university education in India. During the 1950s and the 1960s, the higher education system expanded very considerably. Beginning with the 1970s, the UGC has been advocating a policy of restraint in expansion, and greater attention to consolidation and improvement of quality. During the latter phase of development, the UGC took several major initiatives which included establishment of centres of excellence, improvement of the quality of teaching in colleges, setting up of major facilities for research in specialised fields that could be shared by a number of universities, development of facilities for the application of electronic media in higher education, measures for improving the conditions of work of teachers and their training and scholarships and fellowships for students. The UGC has been providing financial support to about 180 universities and nearly 4000 colleges in the country. The total grants disbursed by the commission in 1997-98 was about Rs. 6400 million.

As we noted earlier, the UGC is not providing any support for Agricultural Education and Research for which another specialised agency Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR) was set up earlier. Similarly, the Commission also does not provide any support for medical education as the Ministry of Health is the nodal agency for medical education and no funds are placed at the disposal of the UGC for promoting education and research in medicine and related fields.

3.3.2 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 Minister-in-charge of Technical Education at the centre and consists of all State Ministers of Technical Education besides a number of educationists and experts in engineering and technology, drawn from academia and also business and industry.

The AICTE was instrumental in ensuring the planned development of technical education in India. It provided financial support for establishing institutions

and also equipping them with physical infrastructure on the basis of models developed by it for each branch of studies under its charge at the diploma and degree levels. A countrywide network of polytechnics for the training of technicians was developed by the AICTE, including some women's polytechnics (there are about 800 polytechnics in India at present). Specialised facilities were also set up for the training of teachers in these polytechnics.

Development of engineering colleges offering Bachelor's degree programmes throughout the country was another significant achievement of the AICTE. It also formulated and organised a substantial programme of post-graduate education and research in the country.

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

In 1987, the AICTE was converted into a statutory body through an Act of Parliament. The statutory status conferred on the AICTE gave it considerable power and authority in regulating the establishment of new institutions in the private sector, most of which were inspired more by commercial consideration than furthering the cause of education.

The AICTE functions through four Regional Committees which maintain close coordination with the State Governments in their respective regions. As far as development of engineering, technology and management programmes in the university departments is concerned, the AICTE functions in close cooperation with the UGC which provides funding to the universities only on the advice of the AICTE.

3.3.3 National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE)

With the phenomenal expansion in education in post-independent India, the availability of qualified teachers became a pressing need. Although there were several teacher training colleges in India, 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 sprang up across the country, many of them no more than commercial ventures and functioning with sub-standard facilities. The initiatives by the Central and State governments to regulate this sector through advice and guidance proved ineffective. The Ministry of Education then constituted a National Council for Teacher Education as an advisory body. Later, in order to make this body more effective as a regulatory mechanism in the area of teacher education, it was given the status of a statutory body under an Act of Parliament.

NCTE's jurisdiction extends to training of school teachers at the primary and secondary levels. However, training of primary teachers does not fall within the sector of higher education in India, but the training of secondary school

teachers which leads to the Bachelor's or Master's degree is organised in colleges and universities. To that extent, the NCTE is also a regulator in Indian higher education. Universities need the approval of NCTE to introduce new programmes of teacher training in their departments or to affiliate new colleges of teacher education. The NCTE also advises the Central and State governments as well as the universities on the content and structure of teacher education programmes.

The NCTE does not provide any financial support to any teacher training college or university.

3.3.4 Distance Education Council (DEC)

The DEC was established in 1992 under the provision of the IGNOU Act. Its major responsibility is to promote and coordinate the growth and development of distance education in India. We shall take a more detailed look at the DEC and its functioning in Block-4.

3.3.5 Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR)

The Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR), which is almost half a century old, looks after agricultural education, research and extension. ICAR maintains a number of research laboratories and also field stations. It finances research and development in the agricultural universities spread over the country. The agricultural universities, which were established during the last three decades, have played a notable role in the progress of agricultural education, research and extension, the significant impact of which is on the growth of agricultural production and self-sufficiency in food.

The ICAR is not a statutory body, but it functions as an autonomous body within the framework of the Ministry of Agriculture.

3.3.6 Other research councils

There are two categories of 'research councils' functioning outside the university system. Both these nevertheless have close linkages with the universities in the country.

The first of this kind are national research laboratories where applied research in science and technology is carried out. They were set up to promote the country's industrial development. The second category of research council is primarily coordinating and promotional agencies at the national level. They do not themselves take up research work but support research in universities and outside through funding.

a) Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR)

The Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) was established through a resolution of the Central Legislative Assembly of pre-independent India in 1942. The Council is the premier organization for the promotion of scientific and industrial research in the country. The primary objective of the Council is to establish a sound base of scientific capability and excellence in research in a wide spectrum of science and technology. To this end, the Council sponsors as well as carries out research which is crucial for accelerating the tempo of industrial development in the country.

At present, the Council has 43 national laboratories/institutes which specialise in different areas of scientific and industrial research. In addition, there are two industrial research associations and 138 extension centres/field stations. The Council is also a very important funding agency for scientific researches that is being carried out in various universities. Most of the national laboratories provide facilities for research degrees offered by various universities.

b) Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR)

ICSSR was established in 1969 with the responsibility for the development of the social science disciplines generally, and research in them in particular. It operates through seven regional centres in addition to the main office at Delhi. It finances and promotes research in the social sciences in all possible ways. It maintains a data archive of its own; organizes and funds training programmes in research methodology; funds organizations for developing documentation services and research information; funds and subsidises publications, travel, visits abroad, seminars, conferences and workshops, short and long term research projects, besides bringing out a number of publications, newsletters etc. of its own. It gives fellowships and study grants; it also supports a number of institutes. The ICSSR is the frontline organisation in the field of social science research, and the development of social science studies and research in the country could, to a great extent, be attributed to it.

In addition, there is a Council each for Historical Research and Philosophical Research. Both these councils perform functions similar to the ICSSR in their respective fields.

3.3.7 Professional bodies at the national level

We have noticed while looking at the organisation of education systems in Unit-2 of Block 1, that there are several professional bodies which influence, and even regulate the programmes of higher education, and that some of them are not, in fact, components of the education system. These professional bodies have been set up primarily to regulate the growth of the concerned professions

and ensure that their practitioners conduct themselves in the best traditions of their professions and that they do not commit any breach of professional ethics. Most of these bodies are statutory and have the power and authority to prescribe the details of the preparation (education and training) of the practitioners of their profession. These include the content and structure of the curricula, the physical facilities required to be provided, the qualifications of teachers to be appointed, and so on. Universities which do not conform to these requirements risk derecognition of their degrees.

In India, there are several such professional bodies in Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacy, Law, etc. These Councils perform only regulatory functions of the kind mentioned above in their respective fields, and do not perform any functions like promoting education or providing funds for its development.

3.3.8 Association of Indian Universities (AIU)

The Association of Indian Universities (AIU) was established at the initiative of the Government of India as the Inter-University Board of India and Ceylon in 1925. There were only 15 universities at that time which were independent and governed by their own Acts or Charters. There was no coordination at the all-India level. A Conference of Vice-Chancellors expressed the necessity of having an inter-university organization to facilitate the coordination of university work and to act as a bureau of information. 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 the Board even after these countries became independent nations. But they withdrew from the Board at the beginning of the 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 of the universities or bodies 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 sport 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 these 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 and accreditation, etc.;

- it has a major publication programme consisting of a weekly 'University News', besides several hand books and research publications;
- the membership of the AIU presently covers Universities, deemed universities, an institutions of national importance;
- under the aegis of the AIU, the Vice-Chancellors of the member institutions (236 in 1998) have been holding regular discussions on matters of common interest in various committees and conferences, particularly at the annual meetings of the Association.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: i) Match the following of Group 'A' with those of Group 'B'
ii) Compare your answers with the one given at the end of this unit.

Group A

- i) Technical Education
- ii) Teacher Education
- iii) ICSSR
- iv) ICAR
- v) Inter-university organisation

Group B

- a) social sciences
- b) agriculture research and education
- c) AIU
- d) AICTE
- e) NCTE

Check Your Progress 3

What are the major functions of UGC and which is the most important among them? Answer in about 50 words.

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this unit.

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3.4 THE ROLE OF THE STATE GOVERNMENTS

The primary responsibility for the provision of educational facilities for the people of India is that of the State Governments. This was the exclusive responsibility of the states till 1977 when, as we said earlier, through a constitutional amendment, it was made a joint responsibility of the centre and the states. The centre has, however, confined itself to a limited role of intervention only in critical areas like removal of regional imbalances or initiating innovative programmes. In other words, the major issues like making provisions for education through establishment of new institutions at all levels (schools, colleges and universities) are still the concern of the state governments.

3.4.1 State governments and the universities

Most Indian universities are established and maintained by the State Governments; the Central Government runs only 15 of the 235 or so universities in India. All these universities function under state legislations, and their maintenance expenditure is provided by the concerned state government. The State governments exercise a broad supervisory function over the universities through the State Governors who are the Chancellors, (Heads) of these universities. There are several provisions in the University Acts which require the universities to obtain the Chancellor's approval (certain appointments, changes in rules, and so on).

With the increase in the number of universities, and the continuous rise in the state expenditure on them, universities have come under pressure from their governments. The traditional concept of university autonomy is progressively getting diluted, and the states are imposing several constraints on the university managements in the name of accountability.

In recent years, University Acts have been amended in several states some of which have given rise to major conflicts between universities and states. For instance, some of these amendments prescribed that the Vice-Chancellor shall hold office during the pleasure of the Chancellor; the power for taking decisions on affiliation of colleges shall be exercised by the state governments and not by the universities; and prior approval of the government was mandatory in creating posts and incurring additional expenditure, etc. There have also been instances of the political executive (Chief Minister or Education Minister) being designated as the Chancellor or Pro-Chancellor of Universities through legislation. The trend is obvious; governments are seeking greater control in the management of universities.

The executive authority of the state universities generally vests with their syndicates (also called Executive Councils or Boards of Management).

Generally, three senior officers of the government sit on these bodies; the Education Secretary, the Finance Secretary and the Director of Higher Education (the Executive Councils of the Central universities do not have officers of the Central Government on them with the exception of IGNOU). These officers or their nominees are also members of the Finance Committees of all universities which approve the budgets and set the ceilings for all university expenditure.

3.4.2 State level agencies

The Education Departments of the State Governments have been performing all the administrative functions in respect of the universities in their states. These included advising the Chancellor (Governor) on matters referred to him for decision, sanctioning grants; and responding to questions and discussions raised in the legislatures.

There are also several issues of policy at the state level. These include methods of admission to various programmes (common admission tests); the need for establishment of new universities and colleges; the pattern of grants; the conditions of service and salaries of university and college teachers, and so on. As mentioned earlier, these Departments also maintain close contacts with the Education Department of the Central Government as well as the national agencies like the UGC, AICTE and NCTE. They also participate in national policy making through participation in the meetings of the CABE.

During the last two decades or so, with the rapid growth in the number of institutions, the need for state level coordinating mechanisms has been keenly felt. The Government of Madhya Pradesh set up a state level University Grants Commission; Bihar set up an Inter-University Board; and several other states established Coordination Committees of Vice-Chancellors.

The National Policy on Education, 1986 recommended the establishment of a more formal mechanism at the State level. It suggested a statutory body like a State Higher Education Council. The major functions proposed for this body include planning, coordination with the UGC and other central agencies, promotion of reforms and innovations in higher education, regulation of admission to institutions, advising the governments on establishment of new institutions or expansion of the existing institutions, and funding of universities and colleges. Several state governments have established Higher Education Councils as statutory bodies. They include Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal.

3.4.3 State governments and colleges

Colleges constitute the largest segment of the higher education system in India in terms of the number of institutions and enrolment. There were over 9300 colleges in India in 1997. Over 80% of the 6 million or so students in higher education were enrolled in colleges. These colleges have been established either by the state governments themselves or by private trusts or societies. Many of these colleges offer both first degree and post-graduate programmes in most subjects. Besides Arts, Commerce and Science Colleges (these constitute the largest number), there are colleges offering professional programmes, architecture, education, engineering, law, medicine (including dentistry), pharmacy and so on.

Colleges do not award their own degrees. They have to seek affiliation to a university which alone has the power to award degrees. Colleges only teach the courses prescribed by the universities; examinations are also held by the latter. Since the 1980s there has been an attempt to make selected colleges autonomous; under this dispensation, the autonomous colleges prescribe the curricula, teach the students and examine them; the university to which it is affiliated, award the degrees. There are about 150 such autonomous colleges at present.

Since the number of colleges is continuously rising, (on an average, about 120 new colleges are set up every year), it cannot be said that all of them are adequately provided with the physical and human resources required for good quality education. Nevertheless, in the context of the continuing rise in the demand for higher education facilities, new institutions get established in the hope that some support will be forthcoming from the state governments in the near future. Meanwhile, they admit students, hire the services of teachers on a temporary basis (often fresh post-graduates or research scholars) and also secure a temporary affiliation from the university concerned. It will then be a story of pressure building up on the state government till it sanctions some support which by no reckoning is adequate enough.

While this practice continues to proliferate the general education colleges, the professional colleges come up in another fashion. Since there is considerable demand for professional education facilities, and people are willing to pay any fees for education in engineering, medicine and also teacher training, several self-financing institutions have come up in many states. These colleges do not seek any financial aid from the state governments; they charge a higher level of fees which will meet all its expenditure. The emergence of this practice has also had a negative impact in commercialising education. The judiciary had to intervene and decree corrective action to protect the public interest.

The UGC has been providing some development grants to colleges. Since the funds at the disposal of the UGC are limited, it has laid down stringent conditions of eligibility for its grants. Only less than 50% of the colleges qualify for any grants from UGC.

Most of the recurring expenditure on colleges is met by the state governments. All of them have framed grants codes. There are directorates of college education in most states which administer the grants and monitor the performance of colleges.

Check Your Progress 4

What are the functions of State Councils of Higher Education and why was it considered necessary to establish such Councils? Answer in about 50 words.

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

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

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3.5 STRUCTURE OF HIGHER EDUCATION

In the Indian system, higher education begins at the end of 12 years of schooling, (ten years of primary and secondary education followed by two years of higher secondary education). The first degree, the Bachelor's degree, is obtained after three years study in the case of liberal arts, and four years in the case of most professional degrees (four and half in case of medicine and five/six in case of law). The Master's programme is usually of two years duration. The research degrees (M.Phil and Ph.D) take variable time depending upon the individual student (see Fig. 1).

The postgraduate degree programmes (except engineering) involve 2 years of study after the first degree. The M.Tech., programme however, has been restructured and takes 3-semesters. MD, MS and MDS courses take 2 years after MBBS/BDS.

The M.Phil. programme is of one and half years duration. It is a preparatory programme for doctoral level studies. Ph.D programme is research study for

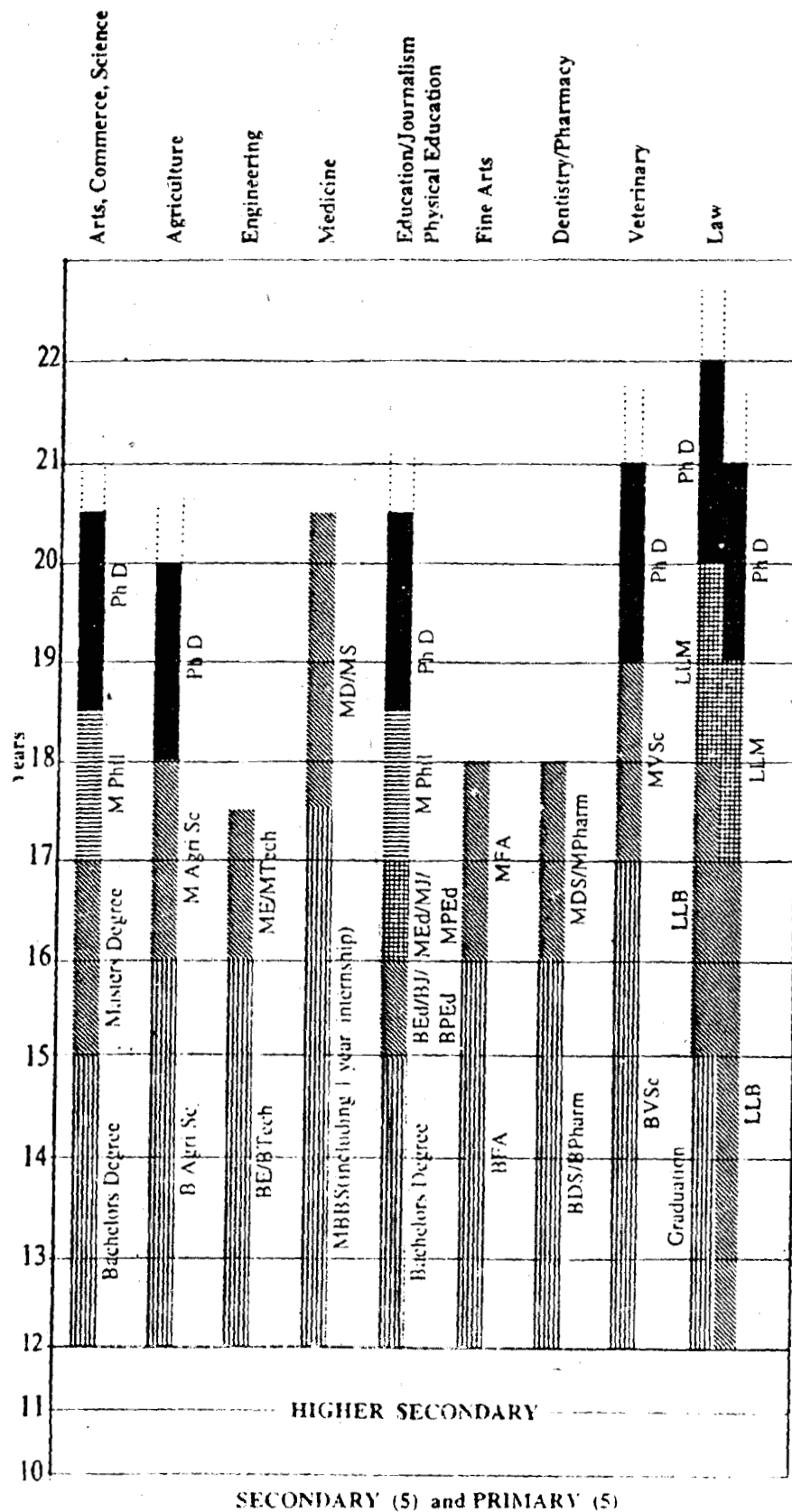


Fig. 1: Duration required for various programmes at Higher Education Level
(Source: Powar, K.B. 1997)

two years, after M.Phil. (direct registration for Ph.D is also possible, in which case it takes three years or more) while DSc and D Litt are awarded by some universities after Ph.D for original contributions.

In addition to the degree courses, a number of diploma and certificate courses are also available in universities. Their range is wide and they cover everything from poetics to computers. Some of them are undergraduate diploma courses and others postgraduate courses. The duration varies from one year to three years.

3.6 FINANCING OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The finances for higher education come from a number of sources. Besides fees, government grants are the major source of education finances in India. The state governments and the central government, through various agencies like the UGC, AICTE, ICAR, etc. provide funds for the development, maintenance and quality improvement of programmes at the universities. Over the years, universities have become too dependent on central and state grants. In a situation where they do not have appreciable sources of income other than government grants, it seems the universities have lost much of their autonomy and the opportunity to bring about changes in their academic and management structures. In the following sub-sections we will discuss the mechanisms for providing grants to higher education institutions and certain general problems regarding the funding system.

3.6.1 The mechanism for grants

The grants to universities and colleges normally come from the UGC and state governments. These can be broadly classified under two categories:

- (a) Maintenance grants: Maintenance grants are basically meant for the day to day functioning of institutions. The norms vary from state to state.
- (b) Development grants: Development grants are usually provided to initiate new programmes and activities and come from the national agencies like UGC, AICTE, ICAR etc.

The development grants can be for non-recurring expenditure for construction of building and purchase of equipment, or for recurring items such as the payment of salaries of staff. While the former are usually one time grants, the latter can be given on a recurring basis for a specific period.

Despite the continuous rise in expenditure on education in general, and on higher education in particular, universities have found it difficult to be sure about the adequacy of financial inputs to meet their ever growing needs. The

situation is further complicated by the continuous decline in the value of money especially in the recent past; with the result that, although in monetary terms the grants given have increased appreciably, the actual inputs as goods and services are much less than what they used to be.

As far as funding is concerned, the experience of developed countries may not be of much help for the developing countries. The advanced countries as forerunners had some distinct advantages in terms of educational development. The educational development in these countries preceded the economic development. The developing countries are at the moment trying to achieve the same type of results under conditions of austerity and that too when the time available for bringing about these reforms is much shorter and the pressure on the system is unprecedented. It needs to be mentioned that universities in some advanced countries are able to lay down and enforce criteria for admission which helps to keep their enrolments within the limit of the capacity to provide quality education. In India on the other hand, universities have generally adopted policies of *laissez-faire* and admit students even when they might not benefit from university education.

Various studies have shown that the system of state grants suffers from quite a few drawbacks, like its unequal distribution, non-specificity of rules and regulations, inadequacy of the quantum of assistance and lack of feedback about the effective utilisation of grants (Azar, 1984). There is no clear cut demarcation between the Central and the State Governments regarding the provision of assistance in respect of institutional development.

The grants and funding mechanisms of central organisations suffer from certain inadequacies and incongruities. For example, the bulk of UGC grants are for the building up of physical facilities only. It has been shown that the focus of many schemes for the funding of research activities is in sharp contrast to one another. The organisations concerned do not have a built-in mechanism to avoid duplication and overlapping of research efforts. There is no rational basis for the allocation processes as a few institutions corner the bulk of the funds whereas the majority of collegiate institutions are not touched by research support.

Research studies have shown that the problem of university finances is not merely one of augmenting the financial inputs but also of its efficient management. The present system of grants leads to a lot of uncertainty and consequently the utilization of resources may not be optimal. A reformed system based either on a medium term or a long term perspective of university plans and needs, is hence called for.

To sum up, central universities receive funds from the University Grants Commission (UGC) as development (plan) grant and maintenance (non-plan)

grant. Institutions of national importance, like the Indian Institutes of Technology and IGNOU receive their grants directly from the Ministry of Human Resource Development (Deptt. of Education), Government of India. State universities are funded by the State Governments in the form of block/maintenance grant as well as development grant. State universities also receive development grants from the University Grants Commission provided matching components are given by the respective State Government according to a prescribed formula. In addition, universities also collect fees from students and a few universities receive some financial support from trusts, philanthropists and from industries. Government and private colleges receive funds from the respective governments in the form of grants-in-aid for maintenance and development purposes. The system of grants-in-aid is mainly based on a flat percentage increase on the previous year's budget, and does not take into account the changing academic and research needs of the institution or the changes in prices of supplies and increase in student enrolment. As a result, most of the colleges and universities operate with tight budgets and often incur deficits. The role of non-governmental sources in financing higher education continues to be limited.

3.6.2 Higher education and five year plans

It was only after independence that any kind of planning was introduced in the higher education system. Keeping in view the inter-relatedness of different sectors of development and also of education at different levels, plans concentrated more on the quantitative dimensions of the system. The suggestions of the University Education Commission of 1949 were the guiding force in the formulation of plans for education. The major thrust of the First Plan was reorganization of the system in order to meet the urgent needs of the newly emerged nation and to ensure the availability of adequate personnel for the new development initiatives. Different plans had different objectives, thrusts, targets, allocations and achievements. The ninth Plan priorities have focussed on the relevance and quality of education: access, equity; the university and social change, adult, continuing education and outreach; women's studies; management of education and finance Under each of the thrust areas several programmes have been planned for ensuring that the higher education system works better than in previous years.

Check Your Progress 5

What are the major sources of funding for state universities and colleges?
Answer in about 50 words.

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this unit.

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3.7 LET US SUM UP

We have presented in this unit an overview of the structures and processes involved in the management of higher education at the top of the system. We thought a clear understanding of these structures and their roles and functions is very essential to understand the issues and concerns in the micro-management of higher education at the institutional level. After going through this unit, you are likely to conclude, and very rightly too, that Indian universities are indeed 'managed' too much from the outside with a multiplicity of agencies and their regulatory interventions. A serious concern that has often been expressed by the universities in India is that there is very little coordination among these 'regulators' and that they are always pulling the universities in all directions.

3.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: POSSIBLE ANSWERS

1. a) According to the constitutional arrangements, promotion of education is a shared responsibility of the central and state governments. The primary responsibilities of state governments in the area of education are that of creating facilities, maintaining them and ensuring that people have access to education. The role of the central government is coordination and determination of standards in institutions of higher education, establishment and maintenance of central universities, and other institutions of national importance, and supporting quality assurance initiatives.
- b) A 'concurrent' subject under the Indian constitution means a legislative field in which the central and state governments can legislate. In order to avoid any conflict between a central and a state law, the constitution provides that in such cases, the central law will prevail.
2. i) d, ii) e, iii) a, iv) b, v) c.

3. The major functions of the UGC are promotion and coordination of higher education, determination and maintenance of standards, allocation and disbursement of grants to higher education institutions and advising universities, central and state governments on issues related to higher education. Promotion of higher education in the country through allocation and disbursement of grants is perceived to be the most important among these functions.
4. With the establishment of a large number of universities and colleges within every state, major issues in the areas of planning and coordination, resource allocation and utilisation, and also coordinated implementation of development programmes in conjunction with central agencies like UGC, AICTE, etc. began to emerge. The state councils of higher education were expected to address these issues and function as a state level mechanism for coordination.
5. State universities and colleges are funded by the state governments in the form of block/maintenance grants as well as development grant. UGC also provides development grants to state universities and colleges, provided matching components are given by the state government as per prescribed formula. Most of these institutions have no other source of income; their income from fees is almost negligible.

UNIT 4 MANAGEMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION: INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL

Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 Universities: The organisational framework
 - 4.2.1 Structure of universities
 - 4.2.2 Universities according to roles/functions
- 4.3 Governance of Universities
 - 4.3.1 Constitution of universities
 - 4.3.2 The executive council
 - 4.3.3 The academic council
 - 4.3.4 Faculty/schools
 - 4.3.5 The court (senate)
 - 4.3.6 Finance committee
 - 4.3.7 Other models of governance
- 4.4 The People Who Manage The Universities
 - 4.4.1 The visitor/chancellor
 - 4.4.2 The chancellor
 - 4.4.3 The Vice-chancellor
 - 4.4.4 The Pro-vice-chancellor/rector
 - 4.4.5 The deans
 - 4.4.6 The registrar
 - 4.4.7 The finance officer
- 4.5 Management of Colleges
 - 4.5.1 Types of colleges
 - 4.5.2 Colleges and the universities
 - 4.5.3 Autonomous colleges
- 4.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.7 Check Your Progress: Possible Answers

4.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous three units of this block, we discussed the growth and development of higher education in India as well as the issues that confront higher education in the present context in terms of the relevance and quality of programmes and also the concerns of access and equity. From this perspective, we also took a close look at the prospects that higher education will face in the immediate future in the Indian context. In order to place these concerns in the developing country perspective, we made a quick survey of the problems and prospects of higher education in the third world, before moving on to the consideration of the management of higher education at the systemic level in India. You will have noticed that an analysis of any contemporary development theme that concerns India is likely to run into far too many complexities compounded by a bewildering variety of problems and issues and an equally baffling multiplicity of institutions and structures set up

to deal with them. What we have just discussed in Unit-3 about the institutions and structures in higher education in India is an eloquent testimony to this complexity.

What follows in Unit-4 is an extension of these complexities, considered in the context of the organisational varieties and structures in higher education at the institutional level. We realise that it is not essential to master all these complex structures and processes to understand the functions of management in higher education; some insights in to them, however, are very helpful to appreciate how higher education is organised and managed in a world which is no more a paradigm of simplicity.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After completing this Unit, you should be able to

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

4.2 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 these new universities at Dacca, Aligarh, Banaras, Rangoon, 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, which we briefly outlined earlier, did not permit the central government to establish universities till it was revised in 1977. Nevertheless, it was inevitable that certain special institutions were required to be set up by the central government, and a chain of new institutions called 'Institutions of National Importance' were soon set up. The Indian Institutes of Technology, the All India Institute of Medical Sciences, etc. come in this category, adding to the variations in structures.

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

4.2.1 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 typical pattern, however, is of a state university with major financial support from a state government and support for its developmental programmes from the central government via the University Grants Commission (UGC) or the AICTE. On a functional basis, institutions of higher education consist of multi-faculty universities, single faculty universities (e.g. agricultural, technological and medical universities,) and institutions of national importance like IITs, AIIMs, etc. in addition to institutions deemed to be universities (BITS, IISc) and specialized universities like women's universities, language universities, Ayurveda universities, etc. The institutions of higher learning existing at present in India fall into the following broad categories:

Universities established under Acts of Parliament and state legislatures are generally known as Central Universities and State Universities respectively (there are only 15 Central Universities in India in 1999). Almost all these Universities are either affiliating-cum-teaching or only teaching universities. They are also called federal or unitary universities. Besides general universities which are engaged in teaching and research in all the traditional disciplines, there are universities devoted to clusters of specialised disciplines like agriculture, medicine, technology, languages and law. The 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 or Academic Senate).

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

a) Affiliating universities

The affiliating type of universities have a number of colleges affiliated to a single university after satisfying the conditions laid down by the universities. The majority of Indian universities are primarily of the affiliating type. In the affiliating system, the university concerned prescribes the courses of study, holds the examinations and awards the degree while all the teaching is done

by the colleges. The university has very little to do with appointment of teachers, and the administration of day-to-day academic functioning of the colleges. All it does is to periodically review the facilities available to them on the basis of which affiliation is renewed; The major preoccupation of the affiliating university continues to be conducting examinations which is by any standards a mammoth operation. The teachers in the affiliated colleges, who actually transact curriculum have very little say in the framing of courses or in the conduct of examination; they do not generally get to participate in the corporate life of the university. The academic communities in colleges and universities have very little interaction among them. The sheer size of the student and teacher community does not allow any major innovation in terms of framing courses as well as teaching and examining practices. For long, such universities remained only as affiliating and examining bodies with no teaching and research. The main function of such universities was to control and coordinate collegiate education.

The University Act of 1904 made provision for teaching in the universities as well as the appointment of the teachers by the university. Thus the model of teaching and affiliating universities emerged at the beginning of this century. This model accommodated not only the affiliation of colleges but also teaching students in the university departments and its constituent colleges. Research has also been an important activity of this type of universities.

With the multiplication of the number of universities, it became necessary to assign to each of them specific territorial limits so that there are no jurisdictional conflicts in the matter of granting affiliation to colleges. This statutory assignment of jurisdiction (normally a group of districts) really meant that colleges located in those areas did not have any choice in seeking affiliation to a university. Their affiliation to the university in whose jurisdiction they were located became compulsory.

In the case of universities which were purely teaching this problem did not arise as their operations did not go beyond the campuses on which they were functioning. Nevertheless, their legislation still defined a jurisdiction, corresponding to the campus area, so that the territorial limits within which the universities can exercise their authority and perform their functions are clearly specified.

b) 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 post graduate studies and research or sometimes undergraduate as well as post graduate classes are held. It directly controls all aspects of curriculum transaction, including curriculum planning, teaching and examinations. A typical unitary university comprises of 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 role 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, perhaps, responded to a large extent to the need for attaining excellence, their response to the demand for access for a greater number of students, has not been as impressive as in the affiliating universities.

(c) Federal Universities

These universities do not affiliate colleges; instead they have constituent colleges, whose academic as well as administrative functions are clearly the responsibility of the university. The university controls the design of courses, selection of teachers, supervision of teaching activities and conduct of examination in 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 time become ineffective. For example, Delhi University used to be largely 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

What are the major differences between 'unitary' and 'affiliating' universities?
Answer in about 50 words.

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the Unit.

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4.2.2 Universities according to roles/functions

We shall now move from the structural pattern to the functional types among the universities in India:

(a) 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 institutionalize the response to the demands on Indian higher education.

The first agricultural university was the GB Pant University of Agriculture and Technology at Pant Nagar, Uttar Pradesh. At present, 27 agricultural universities provide education at undergraduate and postgraduate levels and undertake research in agricultural and veterinary sciences. In fact extension work is increasingly being considered as the legitimate responsibility of the university in India, and credit for this should go mainly to the model set by the agricultural universities. The Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR) does most of the funding for these universities. Most agricultural universities are single campus institutions, though in some cases there are more than one campus. Some of them have agricultural and veterinary colleges affiliated to them.

(b) Technological Universities

These again are universities specialising in a single faculty area of engineering and technology. The genesis of this category of universities is in the conversion of established colleges of engineering into autonomous institutions. The first of its kind was established in 1949 when the prestigious Thomson College of Engineering (established in 1857) was raised to the status of a full-fledged university called the University of Roorkee in Uttar Pradesh. In more recent times, and especially in the last three decades, some state governments took the initiative in setting up exclusive technological universities by bringing together several engineering colleges functioning as affiliated institutions of different universities within their states. They also organised their teaching programmes. The States of Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu pioneered this movement and several others followed this example. Some of these technological universities are among the best in the country in teaching and research.

(c) Medical Universities

As in the case of technological universities, the establishment of medical universities also followed a similar pattern. To begin with, such universities were established primarily to bring together all the medical colleges in a state affiliated to different universities under one umbrella. Such universities were also established first in Tamil Nadu and then in Andhra Pradesh.

(e) Deemed Universities

Section 3 of the UGC ACT provides that an institution of higher education other than a university which is doing work of very high standard can be

declared as an institution deemed to be a university. This provision in the UGC Act enabled the central government to notify, on the recommendations of the UGC, several institutions which had made significant contributions to education and research outside the established university system, as institutions deemed to be universities, these institutions were required to redesign their academic and executive management structures to conform to the pattern of the formal universities. Such institutions enjoy the academic status and privileges of the university and are able to strengthen activities in the field of their specialization. Some of the prestigious institutions like the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, the Birla Institute of Technology and Science, Pilani, the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Mumbai, the Gujarat Vidyapeeth, Ahmedabad, and the Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages, Hyderabad are institutions deemed to be universities. There were as many as 39 such institutions in 1996.

(e) Open Universities

With the purpose of democratising higher education and making it widely accessible especially to those sections of the society which had had no opportunities for higher education due to socio-economic or geo-demographic reasons or who had missed higher education to enter the world of work early in life, a few open universities have been established since the eighties. Andhra Pradesh Open University was the first of its kind to be established in India. At the national level the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) was established in 1985. We shall take a detailed look at these universities later in this course.

(f) Institutions of National Importance

You will recall that while discussing the role of the central government in education (in section 3.2.1 of this block), we had drawn your attention to the constitutional dispensation of the powers and responsibilities in education between the central and the state governments. We had mentioned there that except to a limited, but potentially significant, extent, the primary responsibility for education was that of the states. Only the state could establish universities; the centre did not have the power to do so. However, the centre had the explicit responsibility to establish and maintain institutions and facilities which were of national importance. In pursuance of this power, the central government established, under Acts of Parliament the five Indian institutes of Technology as centres of excellence in engineering and technology education. Two similar institutions were set up in medical education, the All India Institute of Medical Sciences in New Delhi and the Post-Graduate Institute of Medical Education and Research in Chandigarh. Another major institution in this category is the Indian Statistical Institute at Calcutta. The total number of such institutions in the country is only 12. All these are highly specialised centres with state-of-the-art facilities and high quality expertise. Most of them are devoted to education and research and admit students on the basis of all India selection. The Acts empower them to award their own degrees. Most of them are funded directly by the central government and have a governance structure comparable to that of the

universities though their Governing Bodies have a fair proportion of people nominated by the government on them.

Check Your Progress 2

What is the difference between technological universities and Indian Institutes of Technology? Answer in about 50 words.

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

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

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4.3 GOVERNANCE OF UNIVERSITIES

The experience of universities in the country varies depending upon the type of the university, the period for which it has been in existence and whether it has been under the control of the union government or a state government. One thing, however, is common to all Indian universities and that is, that they have all been established under legislation, central or state, and that they are all intended to function as autonomous institutions. In addition to the state-established universities, there is another category, namely, those which are 'deemed to be universities'. There are quite a number of them. They do not belong to a uniform pattern and their governance structure also varies from institution to institution.

Briefly stated, autonomy of a university is its freedom to organize 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, (both teaching and non-teaching), determine their relationship with one another and facilitate their smooth functioning with a view to realizing their objectives.

Obviously, a university exists primarily for its students and scholars and, through them and their work, for the society at large. It provides them learning opportunities in a variety of ways through teachers in the class-rooms, books in the libraries and experimental facilities in the field or in the laboratories, opportunities of 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 university 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 thus that the student can get the best out of the university and the nation gets sustenance from its human resource developed through the university system.

The concept of education and hence of educational institutions has undergone a great change in recent years. Education is no longer just creation and dissemination of knowledge. Education also has social concerns, and must grapple with the problems of contemporary life outside its immediate areas of concern. Students and institutions have to be involved in study, work and services related to national development which have come to be called the third dimension of education. Research and creative activities of the students and institutions are channeled for tackling specific problems of regional and national development. This new concept has great potential for making education an investment rather than merely a social service. It should be able to attract far more funds for its programmes and to pay back to society handsome dividends through not only human resources development, but also participation and intervention in the whole process of socio-economic and cultural development. Through its linkages with research institutions, industry, agriculture, and the government, the university should be in a position to enrich academic programmes and offer a variety of services to the society. JCL

4.3.1 Constitution of universities

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

It should be emphasised again that autonomy is not a legal or constitutional concept. It is the Committee on Governance of Universities 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 right and their 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 matter of privilege, but as a condition necessary for it to discharge its duties and obligations. The two conditions on which university autonomy is 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 have drawn your attention to a number of components. If you take a close look at these 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 managerial 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 in 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 decision 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 arrange for personnel, finances and infrastructure. On the other hand, if the Executive Council finds that due to shortage of resources, some of the current programmes require 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 co-ordination 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 the 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 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 power they exercise.

4.3.2 The executive council

The Executive Council (also called Syndicate or Board of Management) 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 the conduct of all the 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.

4.3.3 The academic council

The Academic Council is the principal academic authority of the university. All decisions on programmes, courses, teaching methods, evaluation systems, academic standards, creation of new departments, etc fall 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 External 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 Department and the 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 50-250 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 of the academic policies 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 examination, qualification of teachers, award of degrees, diplomas and other qualifications, conduct of examinations, institution of scholarships and fellowships, 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 statutes/ordinances/regulations are internal legislations, they require the approval of the Executive Council.

Check Your Progress 3

What are the major functions of the Executive Council and Academic Council? How are conflicts in the functioning of these two bodies resolved? Answer in about 70 words.

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

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

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4.3.4 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 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 only to exercise a broad supervisory function. The 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 discipline 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 (Readers and Lectures), representatives of teacher 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.

4.3.5 The court (senate)

The structure of governance described above is the pattern that has emerged in the last three decades or so in India. Prior to that, most universities in the country 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 has been a review and reformulation of the composition, functions and powers of this body.

Traditionally, the Court/Senate consisted of a cross section of the academic community (teachers, administrations and students) and representatives of different sections of the general community outside the university (legislators, civil servants, 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. 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 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 fulfillment in 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 function for the management of the university.

In recognition of this role, the Court (Senate) in later legislations were 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 the country. 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 provision to constitute a Court (Senate) for universities established under them.

4.3.6 Finance committee

All universities have Finance Committees which prepare the budget, set the ceilings of expenditure and manage the university fund. It decides on investment of funds which are not required for immediate expenditure, considers and recommends purchases of equipment and stores, construction of buildings, considers and makes recommendations on the annual accounts, and so on. The Finance Committee of a University is not an independent decision-making body. It can only make recommendations on financial matters to the Executive Council which alone can take decisions on them. Some Acts provide that certain matters which 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 which provide 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.

4.3.7 Other models of governance

The pattern discussed so far is what prevails for the Governance of Indian Universities which could be said to belong to the liberal tradition. 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 Institute 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 to be nominated by the government of each of the states comprising the zone in which the institute is situated, from among technologists or industrialists of repute;
- four persons having special knowledge or practical experience in engineering or science education to be nominated by the Council;
- two professors of the institute, to be nominated by the Senate.

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.

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

Further, in the university system, an aggrieved person has practically no court of appeal - the VC who has made a decision is unlikely to let the issue be discussed freely in a meeting which he or 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 Academic Affairs, Research and Development, Student Affairs in contrast to faculty based deanships prevalent in 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

Do you consider it necessary that a university should have a forum for interaction with the larger society, as a part of its governing structure? Would such a forum interfere with the functioning of the university?

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

4.4 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 affairs of the university and to remain responsible and accountable for all that it does. 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.

4.4.1 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 or amendments to them,
- institution of inquiries into mismanagement, if any
- adjudication of appeals against the decisions 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, to the extent that the Head of State has to perform his/her functions on the advice of the Council of

Ministers, the distance remains 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.

4.4.2 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 presides over the meetings of the court and the convocations of the university. He is not vested with any other functions or powers.

The State Universities do not have a corresponding statutory office. The Governor, who is the Chancellor, also performs these roles. To that extent, he 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

4.4.3 The vice-chancellor

The vice-chancellor is the administrative and academic head (Chief Executive Officer) of the university. He/she is actually a scholar-administrator. He/she is the keeper of the university's conscience, as mentioned in the University Education Commission Report 1948-49. And as stated by the Kothari Commission (1964-68), he/she should be 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. On him/her depends to a great extent the success with which a university is able to function effectively and efficiently to fulfil its objectives. The term of appointment of a vice-chancellor is generally for a period of three years in most of the state universities and five years in central universities. In a few states, it is four years. It is seldom that a Vice Chancellor gets a second term. The main functions of a vice-chancellor of a university 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 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 Act, 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 decision.
- He/she can delegate his powers to other officers.

The vice-chancellor of Indian universities is appointed by the Visitor/Chancellor from a panel of names recommended by a Committee of eminent persons specially constituted for this purpose. These committees normally have three members – two nominated by the Execution 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.

4.4.4 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 recommendations of the vice-chancellor. In most cases he/she is selected from amongst the senior Professors of the University though appointments from outside the university is also possible. He/she exercises the powers and performs the duties that are prescribed by the university or delegated by the vice-chancellor.

The term of office of the PVC/Rector is generally laid down by the Executive Council. It is normally three years and is co-terminus with the term of 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 either away from the headquarters on official business or on leave. Hence, the prime functions of the PVC/Rector is a kind of partnership with the vice-chancellor to ensure the effective functioning of the university.

4.4.5 The deans

Dean of Faculty is the Head of the 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. 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.

4.4.6 The registrar

The position of Registrar who is the head of the administrative wing of a university is a key position. He 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 is ex-officio, the Secretary of all the Statutory bodies of the university, issues notices for their meetings, prepares the agenda, and also the minutes of the meetings. These key functions of the Registrar enable him/her to occupy a position of pre-eminence in the university management. He is privy to all discussions at the meetings of the 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 Registrars. Where, in a state, there are several universities, a system of transfer of the Registrar from one university to another is also in vogue.

4.4.7 The finance officer

The Finance Officer is the manager of the University's funds and properties. The financial 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 government (almost 90-95%) of the total income. This required proper preparation of the budget, setting the ceilings for every item of expenditure, and ensuring that the expenditure did not exceed the ceilings. The pre-occupation of university Finance Departments was thus more on accounting and monitoring the observance of procedures than mobilising resources and managing the finances.

Since the Finance Officer was a key functionary in university management, and was responsible mainly for managing government funds, an officer from the government used to be appointed on deputation to this position by the universities. In recent times, some state governments have taken it upon themselves to appoint the finance officer who then was not an employee of the university. Though this practice amounted to the university's loss of the freedom of choice of its Finance Officer, given the dependence on the state for funds, it had to go by the wishes of the government.

Check Your Progress 5

Who is the Chief Executive of the University and who is the Head of the Administration wing? What should be the linkage between them for effective administration of the university? Answer in about 50 words.

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

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

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4.5 MANAGEMENT OF COLLEGES

While looking at the Indian higher education system, we have repeatedly made references to “colleges”, which constitutes over 80% of the system. Any discussion on management of higher education in India 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 “Madrasa” 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, 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 noticed, 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 encouragement of a regular and liberal course of education by conferring academic degrees as evidence of attainment in the different branches of the Arts and Sciences. The universities were established on the London university model, conferring degrees upon persons coming from any affiliated institution who has pursued a regular course of study for a given time and has passed the required 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.

4.5.1 Types of colleges

In the previous unit, we have had a brief discussion on the relationship between the state governments and the colleges (3.4.3). 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 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 personnel working in the college, including teachers, are government employees. All their terms and conditions of service are the same as those applicable to the civil service (recruitment, promotion, retirement and staff benefits). Perhaps, the major departure from the regular civil servants is that teachers in government colleges have vacations.

A private college is established by a Trust or a Society registered under the relevant laws in the country. This registration is essential to give the college a

legal status. The management of the college then vests in the Trustees, or 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 (the Trust/Society) make the initial investments (land, buildings, equipment and staff) and generally seek some support from the concerned state government for maintaining the college in later years, as education remains a state responsibility (the notion here is that private initiatives are only to supplement the state efforts).

There is a third 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. Such university colleges will have a management scheme decided by the university which appoints a Managing Committee or a Governing Body. For all practical purposes, these colleges are integral parts of the university which provides the funding and controls its work though they have a technically differentiated management structure. These colleges are also known as constituent colleges.

4.5.2 Colleges and the universities

Almost one hundred and sixty years ago, 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 passed the required 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 enroll in colleges. It is this relationship between the university and the college is what is known as 'affiliation'.

What are the main features of this affiliation? Most Indian Universities require the fulfillment 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 fulfillment 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 prescribed period of study, the college

can present the students at the university held examinations, and those who qualify will get the degrees.

We have already said that in this scheme, teachers in colleges have not 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.

4.5.3 Autonomous colleges

It was to remedy some of these inadequacies of the affiliating system that 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 evaluation 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 upto 1990, the figure has reached 150 mark at the end of 1999. The reasons for this tardy progress are:

- 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 managements 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 also increase as they will have more to learn;
- 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.

4.6 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 you 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. Yes, we said the culture of management. The last two units of this block would have provided you some insights into the making of that culture which distinguishes the management of education from the profession of managing business and industry.

4.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: POSSIBLE ANSWERS

1. Unitary Universities are single campus institutions engaged in teaching and research in their own departments; they have no institutions outside their campuses. Federal Universities have constituent colleges involved in cooperative teaching; the colleges are integral units of the university. The affiliating university does most of its teaching through several colleges scattered over a wide geographical territory. Each of these colleges has an independent management, their teaching programmes and methods are however determined and controlled by the university.
2. The Indian Institutes of Technology (IITs) were established by the Government of India as institutions of National Importance through an Act of Parliament. They were designed to be centres of excellence in education and research in engineering and technology and allied fields. The technological universities established by the State Governments, on the other hand, are umbrella institutions to which all existing engineering colleges in a state are affiliated. They have also their own departments engaged in teaching and research of a high order.
3. The Executive Council, as the name suggests, is concerned primarily with the executive governance of the university as an organisation, managing its personnel, finances and properties. The Academic Council concerns itself with the core functions of the university, namely, organising teaching and research, designing and developing the curricula, determining the teaching methods and prescribing the student assessment procedures and practices. Without performing these functions, a university cannot exist; but for performing them, it needs

personnel, funds and facilities. To the extent that these key inputs are controlled by the Executive Council, there can be conflicts, but the top management of the university which is at the helm of both the councils can guide and lead the members of both bodies to reach decisions that are in the best interests of the university.

4. A university is essentially a social system. Its policies and programmes should therefore reflect the expectations as well as the aspirations of the society that supports it. There can be no better way to ensure this synergy between the university and its environment than to provide for an interactive mechanism as a limb of the university's structure. It is of course necessary to ensure that this instrument, while mirroring the social concerns, does not have the power to overrule the university's decisions.
5. The vice-chancellor is the Chief Executive and Academic Officer of Universities in India. He heads both the academic and administrative organisations of the university. The Registrar, who is responsible for the administration (property, personnel and records) functions under the overall supervision of the vice-chancellor. His major responsibility is to advise the vice-chancellor on all matters relating to the internal administration, university rules and procedures, methods and practices and so on. He is also responsible for carrying out all decisions taken by the university.

REFERENCES AND SUGGESTED READINGS

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