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CONTENTS

BOOK REVIEWS

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Higher Education in India
Strategy of Empowerment for Quality Assurance

Purva Kansal*

Abstract

India today has a large and complex Higher Education System. Indian higher education system comprises 322 universities and 15,000 colleges, catering to over 9 million youth with an annual growth rate of 5 percent. However, quality of education is an area of concern in the Indian economy. Nearly 90-94% drop out (including those who never attended school) or slip through the cracks of our present education system at different stages, and around 1.6 million make it through. These 6% who do go for higher education have only seven options for further studies, i.e., Arts, Commerce, Science, Law, Management, IT, Engineering, and Medicine. But of these nearly 84% opt for Arts, Commerce and Science, which in today's economic scene may not be very relevant. That leaves only 16% of 6% or about 1% of the total 29 million who prepare for a formalized education-employment plan. As a result, 6% of Indians, who do cross the educational "Line of Control" and are called educated youth, may not be very relevant in today's context for the sake of employment generation and National GDP enhancement. Lack of quality education is influencing the employability of Indian youth.

In this article we study the past and present higher education system from the perspective of various stakeholders in this industry, so as to find explanations for lack of quality. It was found that the Indian education system has failed to keep up with the changing demands of its stakeholders. Though the infrastructure has grown since Independence yet the perspective and management orientation is the same, which incidentally is a vertical organisation.

Need of the hour is to satisfy various stakeholders i.e. teachers, students, employers etc. For this a strategy needs to be developed which not only targets quality improvement but also quality assurance.

Indians believe that source of our greatest strength is the human resource and to tap this resource we need to educate it. For long Indian policy makers have been trying to set up

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an infrastructure and policies to increase literacy rate. For this purpose Indian Education Policy makers have postulated that - "If you can write your name, you are literate". Therefore, target of Indian educationists has been quantity-oriented.

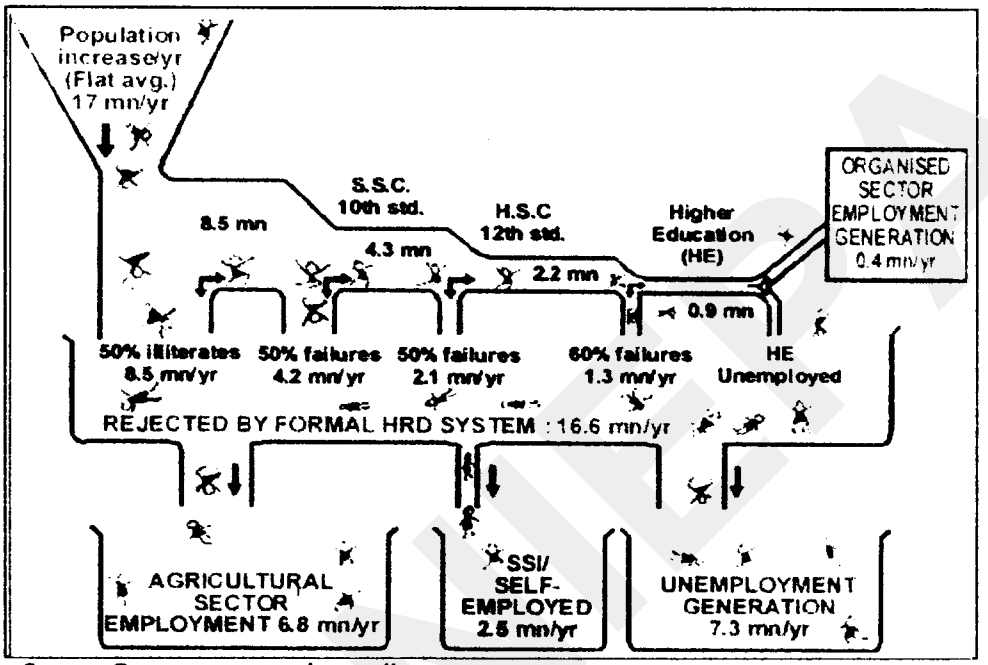
When India became independent, it had only 20 universities and 500 colleges located in different parts of the country. It enrolled around 1 lakh students in higher education. In the post-independence period, higher education has expanded fast, and it is mostly public in nature (India and UNESCO, 1998). Today, India has a large and complex Higher Education System. Statistically, from infrastructure perspective, there are 322 universities and 15,000 colleges in the country, catering to 9 million youth with an annual growth rate of 5 percent (Majumdar, 2005). From population perspective, India has 17% of the world population, with over 30% of this population being below the age of 15 (Table 1).

Indians are very Young. Hence, India should be a supplier of the entire range of skilled manpower. However, target based approach in education system has failed to develop India into a human resource powerhouse it could be, except in the IT sector. *iWatch* has documented that only in IT and software can one find world-class training facilities in India (Khanna, 2005). But IT accounts for only 1.5% of the world GDP and about 3.0% of India's GDP. Indians are ignoring balance 97% of the economy and enterprise. For example, the Tourism Industry is nearly 9 times the size of IT, i.e., US$3,700 billion per year. Therefore, *9 times more important than IT!* Concentrating on the quantitative targets in the education system has led to the quality aspect being ignored. Quality of education is area of concern in the Indian economy.

TABLE 1
Age-wise Comparative Distribution of Population

India	0-14 years:	31.2%	(male 173,634,432/female 163,932,475)
	15-64 years:	63.9%	(male 356,932,082/female 333,283,590)
	65 years and over:	4.9%	(male 26,542,025/female 25,939,784) (2005 est.)
European Union	0-14 years:	16.03%	(male 37,608,010/female 35,632,351)
	15-64 years:	67.17%	(male 154,439,536/female 152,479,619)
	65 years and over:	16.81%	(male 31,515,921/female 45,277,821) (2005 est.)
China	0-14 years:	21.4%	(male 148,134,928/female 131,045,415)
	15-64 years:	71%	(male 477,182,072/female 450,664,933)
	65 years and over:	7.6%	(male 47,400,282/female 51,886,182) (2005 est.)
United Kingdom	0-14 years:	17.7%	(male 5,490,592/female 5,229,691)
	15-64 years:	66.5%	(male 20,329,272/female 19,855,862)
	65 years and over:	15.8%	(male 4,063,357/female 5,472,683) (2005 est.)
United States	0-14 years:	20.6%	(male 31,095,725/female 29,703,997)
	15-64 years:	67%	(male 98,914,382/female 99,324,126)
	65 years and over:	12.4%	(male 15,298,676/female 21,397,228) (2005 est.)

Figure 1
Present Education Capacity of India



Source: Courtesy www.wakeupcall.org

Present State of Education in India

Indians have been talking about state of education and what can be and should be done to help improve its quality. However, it was till now restricted to coffee-table talk. The dimension of seriousness has been added only recently. This seriousness is a result of increasing feeling of inadequacy among the educators, administrators, and educational policy makers. Why do they feel it to be inadequate? Policy makers have been concentrating on trying to get education within arms reach of Indians. Present education infrastructure is a result of this target-based approach. However, despite these efforts, Indian structure is equipped for only 6% of the total population. About 29 million people are added every year to the existing education system, which is like adding another Australia + Hong Kong + Singapore + UAE per year! Nearly 90-94% drop out (including those who never attended school) or slip through the cracks of our present education system at different stages. Around 1.6 million make it through the present educational system, which lays emphasis only on higher education (Figure1). The balance 27.4 million are left on their own to fend for themselves (Khanna, 2005).

These 6% who do go for higher education have only seven options for further studies, i.e., Arts, Commerce, Science, Law, Management & IT, Engineering and Medicine. Out of this, nearly 84% opt for Arts, Commerce and Science, which in today's economic

scenario may not be very relevant. That leaves only 16% of 6% or about 1% of the total 29 million who prepare for a formalized education-employment plan (Figure 1) (Khanna, 2005).

The problems of policy makers do not end at quantitative aspect of education system. Researchers like Albach (1993), Weidrich (2003) and Saxena (1990) have documented limitations of the current university system. Their research shows that unprecedented expansion of higher education in India, which took place in the last four decades, has resulted in the neglect of quality, research and management aspects. The resources at the disposal of the universities are not adequate to ensure maintenance of standards. In India's bureaucratic environment, political will to change the universities has also been inadequate. For these and other reasons, the mainstream of Indian higher education, suffers from deteriorating standards, occasional unrest and inadequate resources. Moreover, Weidrich (2003) points out that Indian education system suffers from limitations of caste, gender, class and regional disparities, shortage of teachers, Inadequate school buildings, Lack of modern curricula, lack of teaching and learning equipment and lack of teacher training. As a result, the universities and colleges are functioning much below their optimal levels and fail even to fulfil their minimum and basic tasks, such as making admissions, completing teaching, conducting examinations, declaring results and awarding degrees on time.

As a result 6% of Indians, who do cross the educational "Line of Control" and are called educated youth, may not be very relevant in today's context for the sake of employment generation and National GDP enhancement (Khanna, 2005). Due to low quality of educational inputs (such as non-existent or very poor teaching materials and facilities) and educational outputs (such as low cognitive achievement levels of Indian students in international comparisons and low levels of literacy among those who have acquired some schooling), India is forgoing economic growth [Khanna (2005), (Sahney, Banwet and Karunes, 2004), (Khawas, Elaine, De and Holm-Neilson, 1998), (Kingdon and Geeta, 1996)].

Lack of quality education is also influencing the employability of Indian youth. In the past the primary employer in the Indian economy was the State. State as an employer focussed on academics as a measure of employability. However, due to liberalization these days, the primary employer in the Indian economy is now the Private Sector. Of all new employment generated, 1% are government jobs, 2% are in the 'organized sector' and the balance 97% in the 'unorganized sector' (Khanna, 2005). This private sector, as an employer, stresses on capabilities in their human resource which would help them keep up with global competition. Academics is considered as one variable, among many, for judging capability. For students, this dynamism means an education system which helps them develop practically applicable capabilities-based portfolio. Therefore, these stakeholders want a flexible education system, new and dynamic subject combinations and a teaching system which stresses on capability development as well as academics, i.e. overall quality management.

However, present higher education system is relatively inflexible. The courses offered in the system emphasise on academic achievement rather than on capability development. In all, emphasis of our education system on the theoretical aspects rather than skill development, renders our youth unemployable.

As a result of this mismatch between wants of stakeholders and present education system, the education policy makers are feeling the pressure to shift their focus from the one on quantitative expansion to one which lays emphasis on quality [(Sahney, Banwet and Karunes, 2004)].

Therefore, one can say that the higher education system, as we know it, has reached crossroads. One thing that is certain at this point is that it needs to change in order to move forward. However, the dilemma here is which road to opt for.

One of the high roads here is in decontrolling the sector and motivating educators to commit to pursuit of excellence. The solution to problems of poor quality in education and training is in decontrols and not controls by bodies like the University Grants Commission, the apex body of higher education in India.

Commitment to pursuit of excellence and decontrolling requires the policy makers to decentralize power to all levels in the education system and especially to the educators.

Empowerment of Teachers

Empowerment of teachers, in a layman's language, is about decentralization of power. It means principals and administrators giving teachers the power to take decisions for the benefit of their students. Indian education system works in a vertical kind of organization system. Under this system the power is concentrated at the top with principals and other administrators. Teachers are given very specific syllabus, content and curriculum to teach with very little scope for flexibility. Moreover, these teachers are pressured to fight a war between syllabus (which incidentally has changed very little since its inception) given to them and time within which to teach it (in India it is a struggle to have 200 teaching days out of 365; ironically India makes a calendar of holidays rather than working days). The conflict between syllabus and time has led teachers loosing freedom and will to experiment with what to do and how to do it. Moreover, the examination system in state funded education institutions is descriptive, direct and syllabus oriented. This kind of predictable education and examination system requires students to use only 5% of their brain. Therefore, we need to bring education system in tune with the requirements of the stakeholders.

Empowerment of teachers, as a solution to increasing quality of education in India, is discussed under three sections. We start with discussing the concept of empowerment while moving to the concept of teacher empowerment. Lastly we focus on relationship of empowerment and quality.

"Empowerment" has been frequently used in management circles since the 1980s. At the core of the concept of empowerment is the idea of power. For empowerment to succeed, it has to exist in relationships between people or things and not in positions (Page and Czuba, 1999).

Some general definitions of empowerment say that: Empowerment is a multi-dimensional social process that helps people gain control over their own lives. It is a process that fosters power (that is, the capacity to implement) in people, for use in their own lives, their communities, and in their society, by acting on issues that they define as important (Page and Czuba, 1999).

Hence, empowerment is an act of giving people the opportunity to make workplace decisions. It deals with creating an organization which supports autonomy in decision making. However, in the context of this article, the most relevant definition is the one given by (Blanchard, 1997). He describes empowerment as the breaking down of traditional hierarchical structures, and giving the line personnel closest to a problem authority to solve the problem.

From a service perspective, empowerment gives employees the authority to make decisions concerning customer service. True empowerment means that employees can bend and break rules to do whatever is necessary (within reason) to take care of the customer (Tschohl, 1997). In other words, empowerment is the "wisdom to know what to do, the will to do what needs to be done, and the wherewithal to do it" (Troyer, 1997).

Researchers since the mid-1980s have looked at teacher empowerment in an attempt to understand it. Most researchers have associated teacher empowerment with the *ability to make decisions and take actions*. For instance, teacher empowerment has been defined as teachers' power to control critical decisions about teaching and learning conditions (Sweetland and Hoy, 2000); ability of teachers to participate in school decision making (Marks and Louis, 1997); to manage and be owners of their own classrooms (Pacini, 2000); to make independent decisions based on student needs (Barksdale-Ladd and Thomas, 1996); to use professional judgment for development of goals, policies and rules in a decentralized organization (Thornton and Mattocks,1999); and to participate in the development of knowledge about teaching (Garrison, 1988).

However, some researchers have defined empowerment not only in terms of ability to make decisions and take actions but also as a subjective confidence in one's knowledge, decisions and potential for action. For instance, Barksdale-Ladd and Thomas 1996 have defined empowerment generally as "confidence in personal knowledge and in the ability to make decisions and take actions based on personal knowledge". Short, Greer and Melvin (1994) defined empowerment as *a process* whereby school participants develop the competence to take charge of their own growth and resolve their own problems.

As discussed earlier, the Indian education system realizes the importance of quality management in education system. However, there are two aspects of quality in education, i.e. quality assurance and quality enhancement. Quality assurance involves ensuring fitness for purpose (Walsh, 1990) (West-Burnham and Davies, 1994). While for the individual lecturer, quality enhancement is about improving their students' work based on the premise that they want their students to do well (Jackson, 2002). Yorke (1996) argues that attention has turned to quality enhancement rather than quality assurance.

However, in India, to gain lost confidence of its stakeholders, we need to focus on quality assurance as well as quality enhancement. For this, teachers' morale needs to be

boosted and they need to be motivated to commit to the pursuit of excellence both in themselves and their students.

Teachers' morale has a positive effect on student learning and attitudes. Raising teacher morale makes school more fun for all involved and more productive (Miller, 1981). Passive teachers cannot produce active students and dull and careless teachers cannot inspire bright and caring students (Ayers, 1992).

When teachers are empowered, they use conceptual selectivity by controlling instruction in selecting the materials to be used, organizing the curriculum, and designing the instruction (Duffy, 1991). This allows teachers flexibility to design curricula around development of those skills which are required by the employers. This is an important factor in enhancing organizational effectiveness and student performance.

Traditionally, empowerment has meant teacher participation in school decision making which has assisted administrators in coordinating and in building commitment among their faculty (Bolman and Deal, 1991; Conley, 1991).

However, works of researchers like Scarnati and Scarnati (2002), Tschohl (1998) and Pennington and O'Neil (1994), have expanded the vision to empowerment. They have documented a positive relationship between empowerment and quality process. Tschohl (1998) says that empowerment enables employees to take care of customers, keep them coming back and maintaining good customer relations.

Therefore, there is a strong case in favour of teacher empowerment and not many dispute the relationship, direct or indirect (Marks and Louis, 1997). Empowered teachers have the ability to lead as well as deal with and make proactive changes. Empowered teachers have the skill, self-confidence, and motivation to create opportunities for students. However, organizations find it one of the difficult management principles to apply.

In India, there are many bottlenecks to empowering teachers, like large number of rules for every task, centralized decision making, detailed definition of the tasks to be performed in a job, inadequacy of resources and if available bureaucratic control over these resources. However, these are symptoms of a deep rooted cultural variable, i.e. love for power and desire to control.

This is better explained by Power Distance Index (PDI) discussed by Hofstede. PDI focuses on the degree of equality, or inequality, between people in the country's society. A high power distance ranking indicates that inequalities of power and wealth have been allowed to grow within the society. A Higher Power Distance index also makes power something which is cherished and desired.

India has Power Distance index (PDI) as the highest Hofstede Dimension for the culture, with a ranking of 77 compared to a world average of 56.5. This Power Distance score for India indicates a high level of inequality of power and wealth within the society. This condition is not necessarily subverted upon the population, but rather accepted by the population as a cultural norm (Hofstede). There is a continuous tussle amongst the people to acquire more of power. This perception of power also influences the choice of career. For example, one can find engineers, accountants, lawyers, MBAs, graduates in

Science, Commerce and Arts – but no skilled manpower in the 2500 different fields required by enterprises, to run the nation. One of the reasons people opt for these streams is the perception of reputation and power in the society.

The faith in power is made stronger by the existence of vertical organizations in the Indian economy. This is true for Indian education system as well. Traditionally, Indian education system is such where power is affiliated with positions and is concentrated at the top. However, for implementing the teacher empowerment, power has to push down in the organizational hierarchy. This, given the Indian culture, becomes extremely difficult and therefore, influences the efficiency of empowerment.

Pursuit of teacher empowerment, in Indian education system, need not be guerrilla warfare. It need not be a power tussle between the teachers and principals where one wants to gain power and other does not want to part with it. They have to understand that they are members of the same team. Empowerment of staff will promote teamwork and benefit the students.

After that fine sales pitch, practically the solution has to be adopted in two stages, as our quality problem is of quality assurance and quality enhancement.

First, a short-term solution to gain acceptance of the concept and second a long-term perspective. In India, we can divide power into power in terms of Professionalism and Bureaucratic Control. As teacher empowerment policies have to focus on enhancing professionalism and ability, we need to decentralize power which deals with improving quality and enhancing teacher professionalism, i.e. teachers must have power and ability to use it to make important classroom and instructional decisions (Sweetland and Hoy, 2000). Meanwhile, we could keep the bureaucratic control concentrated at the top.

Participatory decision making may also temper empowerment to the extent that it reduces individual autonomy (Smylie, Lazarus and Brownlee-Conyers, 1996). Involvement in decision making consumes workers' time, immerses them in responsibility beyond their own specialized work, necessitates negotiation where interests conflict, and requires participants to be accountable for their decisions (Howard and Schneider, 1987) (Sirianni, 1987). This would help in achieving quality assurance as classrooms would be able to work as semi-autonomous units with explicit standards and processes which are set in accordance with stakeholder feedback and convenience.

However, for quality enhancement, a vision is required. Block (1987) refers to the essence of empowerment as *enacting the vision.* He outlines three dimensions of empowerment which we need to consider for quality enhancement:

- Vision
- Balance of autonomy & dependence
- Courage

Vision is when we take a stand for a preferred future--something we want. The first step to choosing empowerment implies that we are solely responsible for success or failure of our vision and goals. We have to take risks, stand up for what we believe in and ultimately be held accountable for our actions. However, this independence need not be

at the cost of team work. In an empowered organization, it is the responsibility of the leader to achieve a balance of autonomy and dependence.

Dependency can be healthy as well as unhealthy. Unhealthy dependency refers to inability to take risk and work in a "they" organization. In such an organization accountability of members reduces. However, dependency can also be healthy. Useful dependency helps us clarify the organizational framework, confirms and validates us, helps us feel connected, protects us from unreasonable problems, and helps us learn from others. Taking the road of empowerment is walking out of the arms of stability and predictability. Vision in itself encompasses a commitment to change and unpredictability. This road is a test of our integrity and commitment to the vision. It requires courage to at times break norms and rules and vice versa.

Therefore, an empowerment policy on one hand should have participative vision formulation while on the other it should strive for giving members of the organization a balance of autonomy and dependency, and also inspire courage amongst the employees so as to help them walk the road.

Hence, in present times Indian Administrators need to think in terms of Vision statement to improve quality in higher education system, especially the state funded institutions. We need to think in terms of policy structures which allow teachers the following freedom:

- Reduction in number of rules.
- Allow independent judgment, especially as far as classroom and professional field is concerned.
- Participatory goal setting.
- Define job broadly as projects so as to allow flexibility in doing the job.
- Provide more freedom of access to resources.
- Provide more freedom of access to people.
- Reduce number of approval steps.
- Delegate and decentralize power.

Conclusion

Today, India has a large and complex Higher Education System. However, traditionally Indian policy makers have followed a target-based approach for state funded higher education institutions. Concentrating on the quantitative targets in the education system has led to the quality aspect being ignored. Indian education system suffers from limitations of vertical organization structure, caste, gender, class and regional disparities, shortage of teachers, inadequate school buildings, lack of modern curricula, lack of teaching and learning equipment and lack of teacher training. This lack of resources is influencing the quality of education and thus the employability of Indian youth.

Therefore, quality of education is a major area of concern in Indian economy.

Empowerment of teachers is a solution to enhancing quality of education in India. The idea of this concept is to motivate teachers to commit to pursuit of excellence in their

profession and in their students. This increased motivation is complimented with power, responsibility and authority to do anything (within reason) to achieve this excellence. In India, though the concept and its merits are well understood yet the application is difficult. The major bottleneck to this concept is the fact that its application requires decentralization of power while Indian culture teaches people to cherish and desire power. As a solution to this problem, for application purposes, we can divide power into power in terms of Professionalism and Bureaucratic Control. As teacher empowerment policies have to focus on enhancing professionalism and ability, we need to decentralize only that aspect of power which deals with improving quality and enhancing teacher professionalism i.e. teachers must have power and ability to use it to make important classroom and instructional decisions. We can centralize the bureaucratic control. However, for quality enhancement, India needs to formulate a long-term vision. This vision should concentrate on reduction in number of rules, allowing independent judgment, especially in classroom management, broad definition of job so as to allow flexibility, freedom of access to resources and people and lastly, lesser number of approval steps.

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Endogenous Indicators of Institutional Performance

An Exploratory Factor Analysis of Technical Education

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Abstract

Globalisation and the resulting cross cross-border ventures have increased competition in every field, including higher education in India. Performance of the institution as measured by quality indices has become the focus of every educationalist. The variables affecting the quality of Technical education are many and accurately assessing their influence is difficult. Identification of a few factors that will encapsulate the variables is attempted here. Only the endogenous variables that can be improved directly by the institution without any external help have been considered. A total of 197 endogenous variables were considered. The survey was conducted among 600 respondents. Exploratory analysis conducted reveals that knowledge assimilation, teamed effort, governance and emotional development are the four indicators that decide the performance of Technological Institutions. The 't' test was used to find out the perceptional differences between the industrialists and the educationalists, staff and students about the indicators. The results will be of direct use to educational planners, in respect of deciding the inputs from stakeholders for improving the performance of technological Institutions.

Introduction

In this era of technological revolution with the quantum of knowledge information expanding exponentially the needs of a constantly growing and increasingly varied

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student population are increasing at much higher rate. In this context the quality of training for teachers and the quality of teaching in higher educational institutions are to be given foremost importance to improve the quality of education. In India, the growth of educational institutions has increased to a great extent in the recent past. Under such a scenario sustaining competence of an educational institution is a great challenge. The extraneous factors, such as society, government, industry and technology, are becoming more dynamic and hence prediction of key factors pertaining to quality of education becomes difficult. Even though these factors influence the performance of the higher education institutions, due to the unpredictable nature of these factors, the endogenous factors take a higher priority. Endogenous factors are truly internal to the institutions and are not dependent on extraneous factors and hence are controllable.

Literature Review

Extensive research has been carried out on performance related to general education, mainly focusing on school education (Ranjit 1999; Tilak 2001, Patric 2003 and others). Performance in higher education institutions is generally taken for granted since the status of the institutions in yesteryears have been consistently good. The number of colleges offering higher education has increased from 750 in 1950-52 to 11,089 in 1998-99, a 15 fold increase. Number of universities has increased from 30 to 238 over the same period. The number of engineering colleges in the year 1951 was 50, in 1995 it was 416 and in 2002, 1064. The number of engineering colleges in 2006 reached 1346 as per All India Council of Technical Education (AICTE) report. This mushrooming growth of institutions of higher education, have resulted in decline in quality of education being imparted. Deteriorating performances of such institutions, especially the technical education institutions are of great concern to every educationalist.

Quality – A Performance Indicator

In the past few years researchers have worked on factors that are instrumental in improving the efficiency of technical education. Team spirit, analytical and creative skill, co-curricular activities, personality development, educational technology tools and grades are considered as critical factors for improving quality of education by many researchers.

Narayanarao and Brahadeeswaran (1997) in their study on assessing the quality and standard of technical education found out that personnel management, financial management, classroom teaching, laboratory teaching, interaction with external agencies, communication flow, information network, decentralized responsibilities, training for professional development, and matching between job and person were critical. Technical education should focus on developing the talents of individuals and measure its success in terms of value added education (the additional knowledge and skills gained by individuals through study, research, or work at the institution). Technical education has to be constantly increasing its cost effectiveness, in order to maximize the number of individuals it can serve, and to facilitate the expansion of the technical education system

as a whole. This is the vital point dealt with by Tang and Zairi (1998) on the quality improvement in technical education.

Natarajan (1998) observes that excellence of technical education depends on producing global engineer with a global vision. He has emphasised the importance of sharing of information between universities, collaboration with government agencies and professional societies, undertaking international benchmarking, rationalization of fee structure, involvement of multinational industries in higher education, and the improvement of infrastructure facilities as vital factors, to produce a global engineer. While discussing the anatomy of excellence and the characteristics of excellence in technical education, he has also pointed out that factors such as the size of the organization, planning, implementation and discipline affect excellence. It has been concluded that an excellent movement is essential to transform technical education from the present state of complacency to a state of vibrancy in order to meet global challenges.

An empirical study by Jose et al (1999) indicated lecture classes, oral assignments, syllabus, group discussions, library, periodic test, assignment, staff student interaction, educational technology tools, exposure to modern media and exam pattern as critical variables for improving quality of technological education. Bhattacharya (1999) has worked on improving the teaching learning effectiveness in technological institutions. He has highlighted the need for teacher contribution in curriculum updation, research, development and extension of services to community and industry.

For improving the performance of the educational institutions review of literature revealed that 'quality' is identified as a key for indicator of the performance of any educational institution. Many researchers have postulated that variables such as industry institute interaction, periodic review of curriculum, continuing education, consultancy, staff development, research and development, extra curricular activities and academic environment, influence the quality of education. Among them many are exogenous variables many of them require the help of external bodies for improvement. This makes the improvement strategies difficult. It is always a good practice to control and improve the factors that are under the direct influence of an institute. In the present work the endogenous variables have been identified and factor analysis has been attempted

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Cameron and Ettington (1988), using factor analysis, have conducted a study on organizational culture and effectiveness of institutions. A factor analytic approach may be used to represent a set of variables in terms of a small number of hypothetical variables called factors, using observed correlations (Ledyard and Robert 1994).

Factor analysis may be used as an expedient way of ascertaining the minimum number of hypothetical factors that can account for the observed co-variation, and as a means of exploring the data for possible data reduction (Michael 1994). The basic concepts of exploratory factor analysis as a tool to evaluate score validity, has been mentioned in the study by Connie (1997).

Factor analysis is a generic term that is used to describe a number of methods designed to analyze interrelationships within a set of variables. This results in the construction of a few theoretical variables called factors that are supposed to contain the essential information in a larger set of observed variables. This reduces the overall complexity of the data by taking advantage of inherent interdependencies. A small number of factors will usually account for approximately the same amount of information as do the much larger set of original observations Sangeetha (2000). There are two types of factor analysis - confirmatory and exploratory. If factor analysis is done to confirm the results of a previous study then it is referred to as confirmatory factor analysis. To explore the factors that affect quality of education, exploratory factor analysis is used in this study Jae and Charles (1991). In exploratory theory, it is possible to determine the number of factors, whether the factors are correlated or un-correlated and also the variables that are loaded under each factor.

It is important to find out the validity of the factors obtained by exploratory factor analysis using a reliable and proven method. One method of validation is provided by Cronbach (1971). He has discussed validation as a process used by a test developer or test user to collect evidence that supports the types of inferences to be derived from the test scores. Reliability coefficients Reynaldo at al (1999). E.g. Cronbach alpha measures the homogeneity of item that are grouped as a single dimension. Factors having Cronbach alpha of atleast 0.60 Tom et al (1998) were considered as reliable.

Another method used for extracting the significant factors is to draw scree plot. The scree plot illustrates the rate of change in the magnitude of the Eigen values. The rate of decline is steep for the first few factors but then levels off. The "elbow" or the point at which the curve bends is considered to indicate the maximum number of factors to be extracted Suganthi et al (2000). This is only an approximate measure, which gives the number of factors to be extracted at the first instance. To validate the factor extracted by this elbow method Cronbach alpha of each factor needs to be determined.

To arrive at an accurate value a more specific model, namely Kaiser Rule, has been adopted in this work to find the minimum factor loading that is acceptable. Kaiser Rule states that the minimum factor loading to be considered is = $5.152/(n-2)^{1/2}$ Biswajeet et al, (2002).

Survey Methodology

The variables that affect the quality of technical education are innumerable. Brain storming exercises that were conducted resulted in the identification of as many as 197 variables that directly or indirectly influence the quality of technical education. In the first step, many of the variables which were directly or indirectly linked were joined together and the number was brought down to 55. In the next step the variables that were found to be repeating or conveying the same meaning were clubbed together and changes were made. Thus the number of variables were brought down to 30. With the final set of 30 variables, a questionnaire was developed for the study using survey method. A pilot survey was conducted among 10 educational experts, with the questionnaire thus

developed. Based on the comments of the experts, a few modifications were incorporated in the questionnaire, to make it more clear and meaningful. In the next stage, a pretest was conducted and analyzed. Based on the results, a few more changes were made in the questionnaire administered in the pretest to make it self explanatory and clear. This questionnaire was used for the eventual survey. The data collection was done in government-approved technological institutions (internal customers) and industries (the external customers of technological institutions). The respondents were given ample explanation to evaluate the variables. 600 copies of the questionnaires were administered keeping in mind students, teaching staff, industrialists and educational administrators. Respondents were selected using random sampling technique. The questionnaire was administered to 100 students, 300 teaching staff, 100 industrialists and 100 administrators. The objective of this survey was to assess the perception of students, staff, industrialists and administrators with regard to the variables affecting the quality of technical education. Out of 600 questionnaire administered as explained above 300 were administered in person and the other 300 by post. Out of the 600 questionnaires, 250 responses were received. In that a total of 228 responses were complete in all aspects and were considered for analysis. Exploratory factor analysis was performed on the survey responses using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Principal component factor analysis was done to extract the factors of importance. Then using varimax rotation initial Eigenvalues and percentage variance were determined. Total number of variables to be considered for analysis was determined using Kaiser Rule. After finalizing the variables, the number of factors to be extracted is determined by drawing scree plot. However to confirm the number of factors to be extracted and to validate the factor analysis Cronbach alpha was calculated.

The 't' test was performed to find if there was a distinction in perception between different category of respondents, staff and students, institutes and industry, male and female respondents taking into account their responses. The null and alternate hypotheses are:

H_0: There is no significant difference between the means of population 1 and population 2 ($\mu_1 = \mu_2$)

Ha: There is a significant difference between the means of population 1 and population 2 ($\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$).

At 95% confidence level (0.05 significance) for 't' test with equal variance, the table value is 1.96 for large samples.

Quality Indicators – Factor Extraction

Factor analysis was done using principal component analysis. The total variance with the initial Eigen values and the percentage of variance are given in Table 1 (for Eigen value above 1.0)

TABLE 1
Total Variance Explained

Factors	*Initial Eigen Values Total*	*% of Variance*	*Cumulative %*
1	4.118	13.728	13.728
2	2.467	8.224	21.952
3	1.864	6.214	28.166
4	1.676	5.586	33.752
5	1.552	5.175	38.927
6	1.352	4.507	43.434
7	1.275	4.250	47.684
8	1.152	3.841	51.525
9	1.063	3.544	55.068

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

To arrive at a set of factors vital for improving the quality of education two tools of validity, namely Scree plot and Cronbach alpha were employed. Scree plot is drawn for the 30 factors; Fig. 1 indicates the 'elbow' to be around 4 factors. Hence it is decided that 4 factors can be used for further study. To confirm the initial result of 4 factors Cronbach alpha is determined.

FIGURE 1

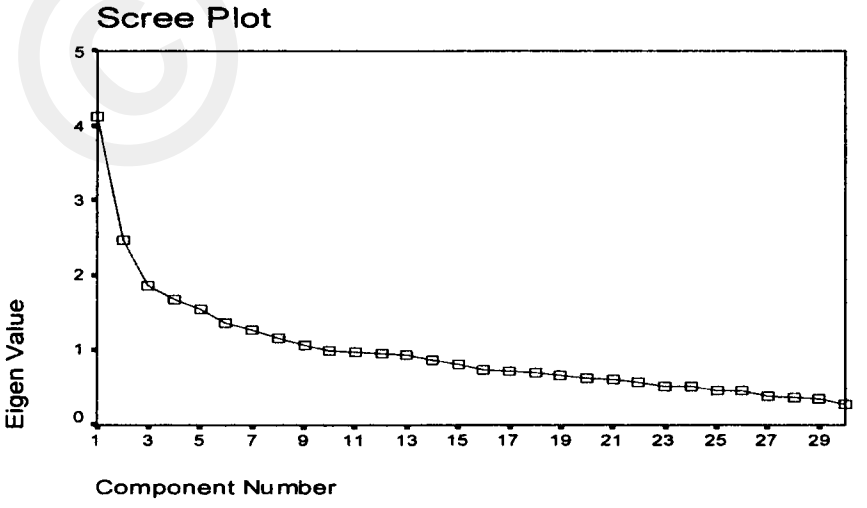


TABLE 2
Factor Loadings (Rotated Component Matrix)

Variables	*Factor 1*	*Factor 2*	*Factor 3*	*Factor 4*
1	.0418	.321	**.387**	.041
2	.0557	-.097	**.261**	.059
3	**.500**	-.078	.137	.079
4	**.708**	.017	.059	-.019
5	.277	.161	-.045	**.320**
6	.243	.113	.204	**.376**
7	.279	.178	.064	**.568**
8	.283	.092	-.134	**.646**
9	**.518**	-.132	.196	.084
10	.316	-.088	**.518**	.155
11	.0802	**.538**	.115	-.067
12	**.347**	.200	.170	-.275
13	-.179	-.018	-.022	**.493**
14	.161	.224	**.690**	-.122
15	-.089	**.566**	.136	.204
16	-.041	.121	**.641**	.063
17	.105	**.525**	-.049	.098
18	-.029	.371	-.051	**.510**
19	-.114	**.458**	.063	.244
20	**.505**	.290	-.087	.122
21	-.053	.019	.107	**.525**
22	.103	-.130	**.622**	.145
23	.143	**.468**	-.045	.139
24	.057	.389	**.417**	.023
25	**.364**	.249	.196	-.090
26	.285	**.533**	-.125	.0079
27	**.426**	.347	-.159	.238
28	-.189	.195	**.465**	-.066
29	.108	.106	.242	**.516**
30	**.496**	.035	.184	.136

Source: Statistical Package for Social Sciences
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
Rotation Rotation converged in 7 iterations.
Note: The numbers in bold indicate the significant factor loading of the variables.

Kaiser Rule is adopted to decide the significant loading. Minimum factor loading to be considered was found to be 0.3. Rotation using varimax was performed for four factors. The factor loadings are given in Table 2. The factor loadings that are greater than 0.3, have been considered for further analysis. The factor loadings along with the Cronbach alpha value for the four factors are given in Table 3.

TABLE 3
The Variables Loaded Under Four Factors

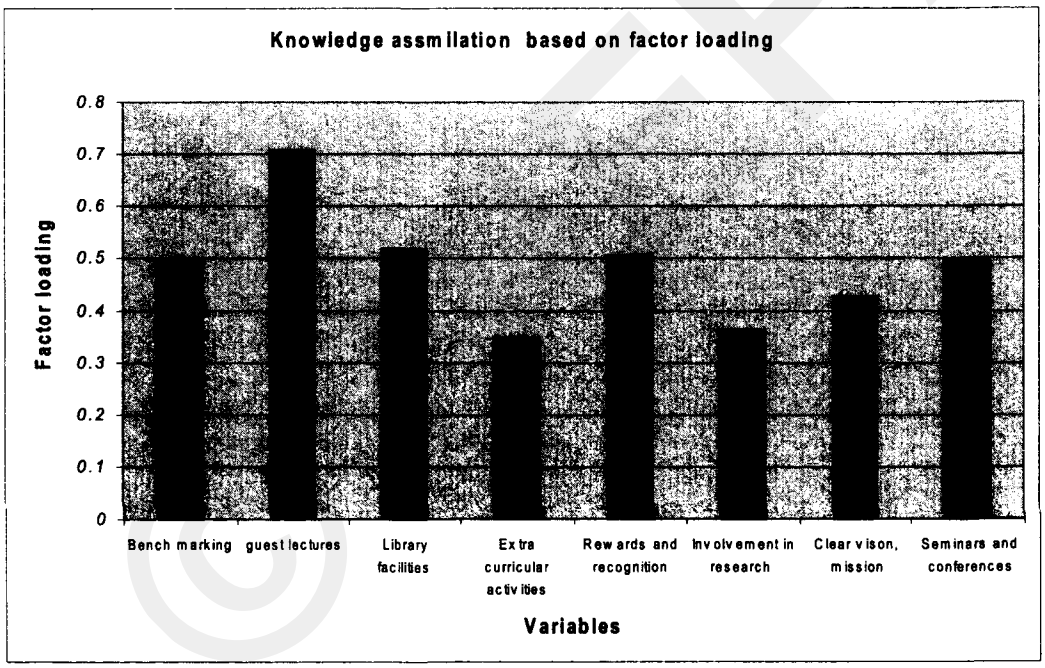
Factor 1 *Knowledge Assimilation*	*Factor 2* *Team Effort*	*Factor 3* *Governance*	*Factor 4* *Emotional Development*
Guest lectures (factor loading 0.708)	Team work and balanced work allotment 0.566	Centralised decision making 0.690	Student motivation 0.646
Library facilities and laboratory infrastructure 0.518	Staff-student ratio 0.538	Strict rule enforcement 0.641	Staff student interaction 0.568
Rewards and recognition 0.505	Communication gap 0.533	Thrusting of issues 0.622	Staff setting difficult goals 0.525
Bench marking 0.50	Staff being role models 0.525	Periodic tests and assignment 0.518	Well trained and experienced faculty 0.516
Seminars, conferences and workshops 0.496	Highly motivated staff with high job satisfaction 0.468	Teaching rather than learning 0.465	Counselling and solving students problems 0.510
Clear vision and mission 0.426	Student support facilities 0.458.	Secured job environment 0.417	Performance appraisal of staff 0.493
Involvement in research 0.364		Willingness of staff to change 0.387	Clean environment 0.376
Extra curricular activities 0.347			Curriculum updation 0.32
Croanbach alpha 0.61	0.60	0.63	0.61

Source: Table 1 Factor Analysis.

The factor 'knowledge assimilation' includes a wide spectrum of variables. They are guest lectures by industrial experts being enforced (0.708 is the factor loading); library

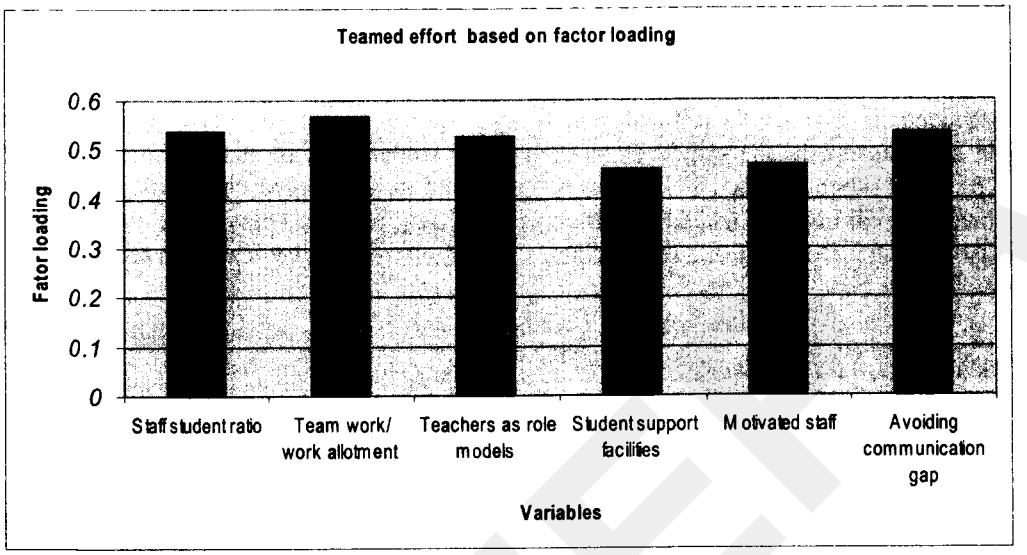
facilities and laboratory infrastructure (0.518); rewards and recognition for achievements (0.505), which motivates others to perform and thereby improve overall quality; benchmarking within the institution (0.50) between departments, create competitiveness and ensures quality of education. Organizing seminars, conferences and workshops for staff and students is a must for educational quality improvement (0.496). Imparting clear vision and mission in the minds of students help students to attain high quality output (0.426). Only when the staff involve in research and publish research papers, the quality of education will improve (0.364). Extra curricular activities also play a role in improving quality (0.347) of education. The variables and their respective loadings are shown in Fig.2

FIGURE 2



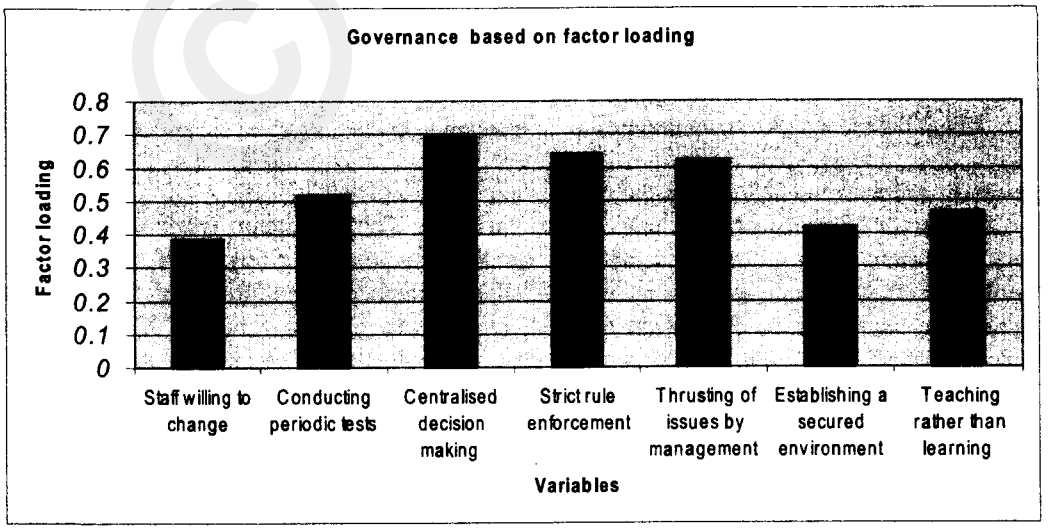
The factor 'team effort' includes seven variables. They are team work and balanced work allotment among staff, essential for quality education (0.566). Staff student ratio should be maintained as per norms (0.538), avoiding communication gap within department increases co-ordination (0.533), teachers to be role models (0.525), highly motivated staff with high job satisfaction (0.468), and student support facilities (0.458) have a definite role in educational quality improvement. Support facilities include, rest room, canteen and transport facilities. These facilities help the students and the staff to be together and bring an improvement in 'teamed effort. The variables and their respective loadings are shown in Fig.3.

FIGURE 3



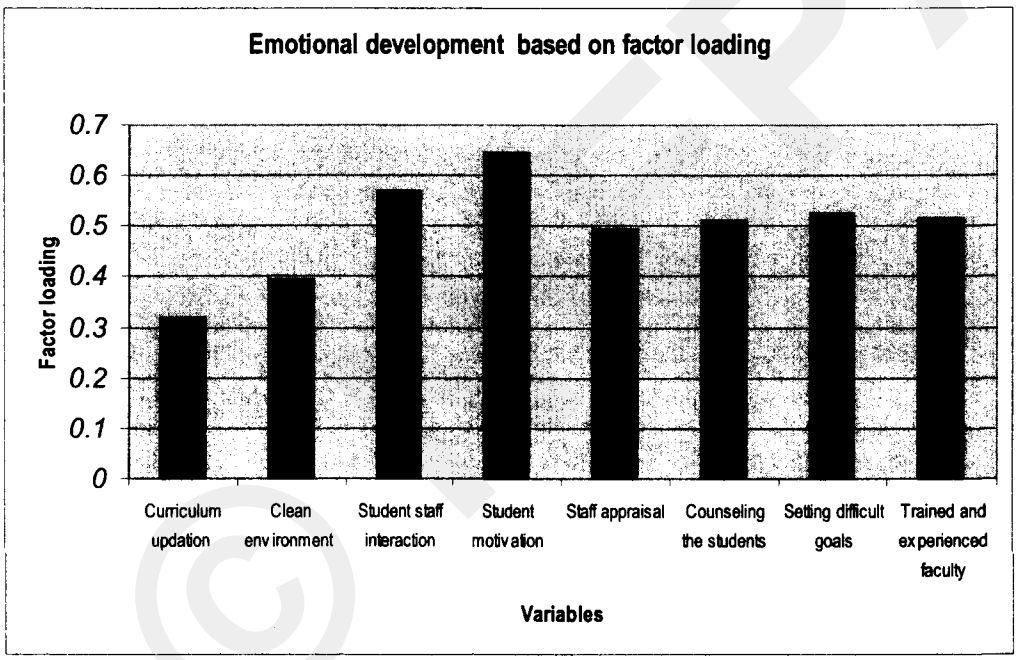
The factor governance includes centralized decision-making (0.690) and strict rule enforcement (0.641). These variables are mandatory in improving the quality of engineering education. Thrust on the vision of the management (0.622) conducting periodic tests and giving assignments (0.518), teaching rather than learning (0.465) are important factors. Establishing a secured environment has an impact on the quality of output (0.417). Willingness of staff to change is vital for continuous improvement in quality (0.387). The variables and their respective loadings are shown in Fig.4.

FIGURE 4



The factor 'emotional development' includes student's motivation to achieve difficult goals (0.646). Staff-student interaction (0.568), staff members setting difficult goals for quality improvement (0.525) well trained and experienced teaching faculty (0.516), and staff involvement in counselling students and solving their problems (0.510) are also critical. Staff must be appraised by students periodically to make them know their standing and for continuous improvement (0.493). Curriculum updated frequently (0.320) and clean environment means a focused mind (0.376). The variables and their respective loadings are shown in Fig.5.

FIGURE 5



The above four factors derived from the factor analysis play an important role in improving the quality of technical education. In order to find out as to which of the factors are considered very critical by the respondents the factor wise average scores were calculated. Based on the average score for each factor the factors are ranked as follows

1. Governance (2.4),
2. Knowledge assimilation (2.3),
3. Emotional development (1.8), and
4. Team effort (1.7).

It is evident that even in technological institutions; 'governance' is the most important factor as against knowledge assimilation. This shows that in every institution the management holds the key. Success or failure, performance improvement or downfall, depend on management. This is the prime endogenous indicator.

The second important indicator is the educational process which results in knowledge assimilation. The maturity level of the personnel, as implied in the emotional development is the third indicator of performance. The fourth important factor is team effort. Only cohesiveness can bring in this.

In the case of the factor 'knowledge assimilation' at 95% confidence level for the variable 'extra curricular activities help in overall development of students', the t-calculated is above the t-table value and hence the alternate hypothesis is accepted (i.e.), there is a significant difference between the population means of the institute and industry respondents. In the case of the variable 'lack of library facilities and laboratory infrastructures deteriorates educational quality', the alternative hypothesis is accepted indicating there is a significant difference between the population means of staff and student respondents.

In the case of the factor 'team effort' at 95% confidence for the variable, the 'team work and planned work allotment among staff are essential for educational quality' and 'staff-to-student ratio should be maintain as per norms', the t-calculated is above the t-table value and hence the alternate hypothesis is accepted (i.e.), there is a significant difference between the population means of the institute and industry respondents.

In the case of the factor 'governance' at 95% confidence for the variable 'establishing a secured environment (permanent job) has an impact on the quality of output', the t-calculated is above the t-table value and hence the alternate hypothesis is accepted (i.e.) there is a significant difference between the population means of the institute and industry respondents.

In the case of all other variables at 95% confidence, the t-calculated is less than t-table value and hence the null hypothesis is accepted (i.e.) there is no significant difference between the population means of the industry-institute, staff-students, male-female respondents. This indicates that while framing policies for technological institutions, the variables under the factors should be considered at different scales for different categories of end users to make the technical educational system more effective and efficient.

Conclusion

All the categories of the stake holders of Technical Education were involved in the survey conducted to evolve the major endogenous indicators of performance of the institutions. The survey conducted on the respective lines and the analysis carried out resulted in the identification of four major indicators.

The reliability values obtained for all the four indicators are above 0.6 which is comparable with the standard values. Based on the average score the four endogenous indicators of institutional performance in respect of Technical Institutions are ranked in

the following order, governance, knowledge assimilation, emotional development and team effort. These should be the focus for every institution. Vision statements of institutions may reflect this. The faculty members should strive to understand the importance of this and prioritise the activities in the institution for maximizing the performance index.

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Internationalization of Higher Education under WTO

Problems and Prospects

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Abstract

The Higher Education sector has been subjected to significant changes with the establishment of the WTO and adoption of a liberalized trade regime. The main thrust of the developed countries has been in the direction of adopting measures conducive to exporting their educational services. The major players at international level are Australia, USA, UK and Canada, whose earnings through export of education in the year 2000 were to the tune of about US $ 17 billion. The developing countries must gear themselves up to face the challenges posed to their higher education sector. Necessary policy changes need to be incorporated and a thorough review of various issues facing the higher education sector needs to be effected before the provisions of GATS come into operation in 2005. Some of these challenges and issues with particular reference to India are discussed in this paper, and policy measures suggested to face the challenges ahead.

Introduction

It is now over a decade since the formation of the WTO, replacing GATT, as a means of facilitating more effective integration of world economies, commonly referred to as the process of globalization. Unlike the GATT, the WTO also incorporates trade in services and is therefore far more comprehensive in its application and impact. There are mixed reactions to the entry of the WTO in the service sector, especially in higher education, for higher education will no longer remain a noble and nation building process. It will be transformed to a profit-making venture subject to international treaties and negotiations. While the developed countries are eager to reap the advantages of such trade, developing countries are skeptical and wary of the impact on their economies. The dilemma for the developing countries is not whether to go ahead with the process of globalization. In fact they have no option but to accept it. While there are inherent fears of trading and competing with global giants, there are at the same time benefits and immense opportunities that globalization offers. It is for the developing countries to avail of the opportunities and reap the benefits of a

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liberalized trade scenario. The present paper examines both these aspects of globalization under the WTO regime with respect to higher education. In the context of the Indian situation, it seeks to examine the ways in which India can benefit from such trade and the action plan needed to accomplish this. The General Agreement on Trade in Services, which came into effect in 2005, will have far reaching repercussions on the education sector. It is, therefore, imperative to examine the various issues related to it thoroughly and formulate necessary policy measures.

Internationalization of Higher Education

The services sector accounts for a significant and growing share of gross domestic product in nearly all industrialized as well as developing countries. Besides, this sector is also emerging as an increasingly important source of employment in these economies. Further, it is attracting an ever expanding share of world foreign direct investment. In the present knowledge based economy, most countries are seeking to develop their educational sector, especially higher education, to maintain appropriate levels of human capital formation. The inclusion of "educational services" in the GATS negotiations now underway in the WTO has raised awareness of the trends and issues relating to international trade in educational services, especially in higher education. Two important policies to promote internationalization of higher education, one based on cultural approach and the other on commercial approach, have led to the present growth in international trade in educational services over the past decade. Not only has it increased substantially, it has also taken new dimensions.

While international exchanges in the field of education have earlier been promoted on cultural, political and economic grounds, countries such as Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States are increasingly viewing them as trade. Problems encountered in the funding of higher education as a result of massification, and the growing numbers of international students have led these countries to opt for a commercial approach to the internationalization of higher education. The primary feature of the commercial approach is to offer educational services to international students at unsubsidized rates covering at least the cost of the education. The second feature of this approach is the drive to attract a large number of international students to corner a large share of the market. The United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, and New Zealand have all opted for this approach. They have all set up international agencies to promote higher education systems abroad and authorize their universities to provide educational services at other than subsidized rates. There are others, for example, France and Germany, who seek to attract international students by subsidizing their education.

International trade in educational services, especially at the tertiary level has witnessed global expansion since the 1980s. According to UNESCO estimates by mid 1990s more than 1.5 million tertiary level students were studying abroad. The global market for international higher education was estimated at US $ 27 billion. The United States is the leading exporter of education services, accounting for 29% of students, followed by UK (13%), Germany (10%) and France (9%) (Table-1). Main export markets for US higher education are in Asia, accounting for 64 % of US exports of education services, followed by Europe and Latin America. Important countries (markets) in Asia are China, Japan, India, Korea, Thailand, Indonesia,

Taiwan and Malaysia. USA is facing increasing competition in the Asian market, especially from Australia and the United Kingdom.

Table 1 shows data on leading exports of tertiary education in the world. These six countries account for almost 70% of total tertiary level educational export in the world.

TABLE-1
Leading Exporters of Tertiary Education in the World

S. No.	*Host Country*	*Year*	*Total No. of Students*	*% of Total Exports*
1	U.S.A.	1995-96	453,785	29
2	UK	1996-97	198,839	13
3	Germany	1996-97	165,977	10
4	France	1995-96	138,191	9
5	Australia	1997	102,284	6
6	Canada	1993-94	35,451	2
	Total		1094527	69

Source: Adapted from UNESCO 1997, 1999.

So far as origin of foreign students is concerned, Asia, perhaps, is the most important region and offers good scope for export of higher education. Table-2 highlights data on origin of foreign students in the five most important supplier countries.

TABLE-2
Origin of Foreign Students by Region in Five Main Supplier Countries.

S. No.	*Host Country*	*Year*	*Percentage Distribution of Students by Region*						
			Africa	*North America*	*South America*	*Asia*	*Europe*	*Oceania*	*Not Specified*
1	U.S.A	1995/96	4.6	10.7	4.9	64.1	14.8	0.9	-
2	UK	1996/97	7.1	7.8	1.2	34.2	46.2	0.9	2.6
3	Germany	1996/97	9.1	3.3	2.3	36.2	47.2	0.2	1.6
4	France	1995/96	51.7	3.6	2.7	13.4	27.6	0.1	0.9
5	Australia	1995	1.7	3.2*	-	75.7	3.1	13.1	3.1

* This includes data for both North and South America.
Source: UNESCO 1999.

It is clear from the above data that Asia is an important market for exporters of tertiary level education. In USA, Asian students account for as high as 64% of all foreign students, while in Australia an overwhelming 75% of foreign students are from Asia. In UK and Germany also, more than one-third of foreign students are of Asian origin. Asia, therefore, offers a highly lucrative market for exporting tertiary level education.

An element of caution is called for in interpreting these data as they refer to only one mode of supply of education – consumption abroad. The data does not take into account students receiving education in their home country from foreign providers, primarily through distance learning programmes, which have grown enormously in the wake of rapid developments in information and communications technology, such as cable and satellite transmissions, PC software, CD-ROMS, and in particular the internet. Reliable data on these is unlikely to become available.

Another reason for caution is that the data over-estimates the relative importance of overseas students in individual countries. Although total overseas student enrolment has increased from 0.93 million in 1985 to 1.5 million in 1995 (UNESCO estimates for various years), as a percentage of worldwide student enrolment at tertiary level, there was only a marginal increase from 1.5% to 1.8%. Only in Australia and UK there was a noticeable increase in percentage of overseas students, from 4.3 to 14.8 percent and 6.8 to 11.6 percent respectively in the two countries. In France, the proportion actually declined from 10.8 to 8.2 percent while in USA it remained at around 3 percent. Australia stands out among the main exporters in that the number of foreign students there has tripled since 1990 and multiplied more than 13 fold since 1980 (Larsen and Vincent, 2002).

For many developed countries, educational exports have grown during the last two-decades or so. By the turn of the century exports from USA stood at US $ 11.7 billion (1998-99), making education the fifth largest service sector export of the United States in 1998 (NAFSA 2000). Other important exporters of education are Germany, France, Australia and Canada. In Australia in 1999-2000, education 'exports' were valued at AUS$3.4 billion, and in 2000-2001 at AUS $4.1 billion, making 'education services' among the top ten of Australian exports, and the third among service sector exports. Table 3 below shows the trend of educational exports between 1989 and 2000 in some leading exporting countries.

TABLE 3
Export Earnings from Foreign Students as Percentage of Export Earnings from Services

Country	*1989*		*1997*		*2000*	
	US $ million	*% of Total Service Exports*	*US $ million*	*% of Total Service Exports*	*US $ million*	*% of Total Service Exports*
Australia	584	6.6	2190	11.8	2155	11.8
Canada	530	3.0	595	1.9	796	2.1
UK	2214	4.5	4080	4.3	3758	3.2
USA	4575	4.4	8346	3.5	10280	3.5
New Zealand	-	-	280	6.6	199	4.7

Note: Data for Australia and New Zealand include students from levels other than tertiary; for other countries data refers to tertiary students only.
Source: OECD Statistics on Trade in Services; IMF data for US in 2000.

Higher Education and GATS

The formation of WTO is significant as it also covers trade in services. This implies that every economic activity will be influenced by agreements emanating from Geneva, market access will improve with lowering of tariffs and dismantling of other import restrictions, and lower tariffs will mean higher access to domestic markets for foreign companies. In the sphere of services, WTO has established General Agreement on Trade in Services. It is a multinational framework of principles and rules for trade in services with the primary objective being expansion of such trade under conditions of progressive liberalization. The basic rules of GATS will apply to education in the following ways:

i). Members shall accord to services and service suppliers of any other member, the same treatment that it accords to its own services and service suppliers. The most favoured nation treatment implies there should be no discrimination between the members to the agreement.

ii). A member country can decide which service sector it would like to cover under GATS.

iii). In case of any disagreement between members the council for trade in services shall refer the matter to arbitration, the decision of which shall be final and binding on the members.

Services under GATS include: Business, Financial (Insurance & Banking), Communication, Health Related and Social, Construction, Tourism and Travel, Distribution, Recreational and Sporting, Educational, Environmental Services and Transport.

Trade in educational services under GATS may be of the following four categories:

a). *Cross Border Supply of Services:* When institutions of a member country provide distance courses to another member, the former is deemed to be exporting education services to the latter.

b). *Consumption Abroad:* When students of a member country move to another member country, the latter is exporting education to the former.

c). *Commercial Presence:* When foreign universities or providers of member country set up courses through branches or franchise arrangements with institutions in another member country, the former would be exporting education to the latter.

d). *Movement of Natural Persons*: When teachers of a member country move to teach in another member country, former would be deemed to be exporting education service to the latter.

This is summarized in Table 4.

TABLE 4
International Supply of Educational Services Under GATS

Mode of Supply	*Explanation*	*Examples of Supply*	*Potential Market*
a). Cross-border supply	Refers to provision of services that cross the border (consumer does not move)	Distance education Virtual educational institutions Education software Training through ICT delivery	A rapidly growing market Has great potential especially through the Internet
b). Consumption abroad	Provision of service involves movement of consumer to the supplier country	Students going abroad to study	A traditional form. Probably the largest share of the global education market
c). Commercial presence	Service provider establishes facilities in another country independently or through domestic institutions	Local university or satellite campuses Language training companies Private training companies	Has great potential for expansion Becoming increasingly popular
d). Presence of natural persons	Persons travelling to another country on a temporary basis to provide the service	Teachers and researchers working in another country	A potentially strong market given the emphasis of mobility of professionals

Source: Adapted from Larsen and Lancrin: International Trade in Educational Services; Good or Bad?

Those services, which are provided in totality by the government and are also free do not fall within the purview of GATS. When services are provided partially by the government or some fee is charged, or it is provided by private providers, they fall within the purview of GATS. Such total public monopolies in education are extremely rare and almost all of the world's education systems fall under the GATS umbrella. In India we cannot get exemption in education from the application of GATS because education at all levels, particularly at higher education level, is not entirely free. Under GATS, education services are divided into five sub-sectors: primary education, secondary education, higher education, adult education and or for inclusion of education under GATS provision.

The education service industry is estimated at a trillion dollar with a huge global market. The teaching learning process has been transformed from a nation building process to one in which profit making is the main motive. Commercialization of education process is complete. The developed nations are poised to enter in a big way this very vital area of economic activity in developing countries and make inroads into their cultural lives. Global public spending on education at present is estimated to exceed one trillion US dollars, representing the cost of 50 million teachers, one billion students and several million educational institutions all over the world. Though predominantly supported by government, on account of economic reforms,

most governments are gradually withdrawing from it. The liberalization, privatization and globalization process in the services sector is also being encouraged by the government in India.

The service sector in the advanced industrial countries accounts for 60% of production and employment on an average. This sector accounts for almost a quarter of European Union's (EU) total exports, and one-half of all foreign investments flowing from EU to other countries. Developed countries accord great priority to education as is evident from a lecture delivered by Tony Blair, Prime Minister, in which he listed three priorities for his government, as education, education and education. Bill Clinton, too, in an inaugural address mentioned education as 'every citizen's most prized possession' and promised that "the doors of higher education would be open to all" (Powar, 2000). The pressure of developed countries, particularly USA on WTO members with respect to trade in education services is therefore understandable.

During the major part of the twentieth century, education, including higher education, was financed by the state almost in totality. Till late eighties this trend continued both in developed and developing countries alike. States' share in higher education was Canada 91%, USA 48%, Australia 75%, France 83%, Germany 90%, UK 100%, India 89%, Indonesia 63%, and Venezuela 73% (OECD 1997). The role of government in financing of education has changed during the last fifteen years or so, partly due to expansion in education and partly due to obligation towards other sectors. It is quite paradoxical that with masses now going in for higher education, government is now gradually withdrawing from this activity.

The Indian Scenario

In India, with the initiation of economic reforms and adoption of the strategy of liberalization, privatization and globalization, higher education scenario has undergone a marked change. The government has drastically reduced funding to the higher education sector and instructed the institutions to mobilize internal resources. All that most institutions have done is to raise fees for different courses, especially job oriented courses. Introduction of new courses under self-financing has also taken place. The government has allowed easy entry to private providers in the field of education, who are guided by considerations of profitability, in the area of higher education. There has been a proliferation of institutions imparting higher education in disciplines of engineering, business management, computers, journalism, multimedia, tourism, hotel management etc. Inspite of the high fees they charge, the quality of education they provide is far from satisfactory.

There has also been a rapid increase in foreign education provision in India. With the imminent entry of WTO in the area of educational services, this trend is gathering momentum and is very likely to assume importance in future development of higher education in India. Indian students going to USA, UK and European countries for higher studies and training is not something new. Foreign education has in the present acquired new dimensions. An aggressive campaign by these countries, notably Canada and Australia, is being undertaken to woo Indian students towards their universities and colleges. All the forms of foreign higher education discussed earlier in this paper, are up for sale to Indian students. With a little above 7 million students

enrolled for higher education in India, the scope and possibilities it offers to overseas suppliers are enormous and commercially highly lucrative.

Some foreign universities have engaged Indian agencies and firms to recruit students to study in their universities. In 1999, about 20,000 students went abroad for education, mostly to USA, UK, Australia, Canada and France. Against this, on an average only 1500 students per year came to India, mostly from Gulf, south Asian countries, and some from Africa. Number of students enrolled under cross border supply and other modes is not known. Courses offered by foreign universities mostly relate to hospitality services, management, medical and information technology. Largest number of universities that are advertising in India are from UK, Australia and Canada. The target group for foreign universities is the economically well to do Indians. Under GATS provisions, the non-organized private suppliers will get an impetus. Public education suppliers would be marginalized in the race.

This form of educational services, viz., consumption abroad, is the most common form and one that has always existed. More recently, another form has developed which consists of setting up facilities abroad by education providers, also known as commercial presence. Systematic data on this is not available but its popularity in recent years has increased in developing countries like India. With a view to enhance domestic capabilities in higher education in a way that would also involve reduced foreign exchange costs, developing countries have allowed foreign universities to operate local campuses in collaboration with private colleges. Alternatively the foreign universities have entered into "twinning arrangements" with domestic private colleges through franchises. On their part, the foreign universities have resorted to aggressive marketing of their educational programmes in developing countries.

Globalization of Higher Education – A Mixed Blessing

Globalization of education is looked upon as a mixed blessing. In the context of higher education, its inclusion in WTO is being accepted with mixed reactions in developing countries. There are misgivings of competing with behemoth western economies and of a cultural invasion. There is widespread concern in developing countries like India pertaining to ambiguities in interpreting the scope of coverage of services under GATS. A strong feeling prevails that GATS negotiations would serve the interests of the industrial lobby in developed countries, which would enable them to capture the markets of developing countries. This will especially be so on account of uneven bargaining power among developed and developing countries. On the positive side, it is felt that there are at the same time opportunities of intellectual interactions with the knowledge based economies of the developed countries.

Globalization also offers opportunities for India to export education and earn foreign exchange. With a vast network of higher education, professional as well as non-professional, India stands out among the large number of developing countries, and is in a position to attract foreign students, especially from Asia and Africa. Some of the misgivings and concerns of developing countries on globalization of education are examined below.

The developing countries being at the periphery, entry of foreign universities has the potential for creating problems for the academic institutions. Foreign institutions being better endowed in terms of infrastructure, financial resources, staff, reputation,

etc., would provide severe competition to Indian institutions. Many meritorious students and those with paying capacity would join foreign institutions. Being in a weaker position to compete with their established foreign counterparts they become increasingly marginalized. This factor exacerbates the existing inequalities between the dominant centre (developed country) and the less developed periphery (developing country). The growth of domestic universities is halted. National needs and aspirations take a back seat while the ground is set for penetration of foreign ideas and values. A cultural invasion inevitably happens.

There is another aspect of inequality that becomes more pronounced, viz. between students belonging to different economic strata. Foreign education which is far more expensive can be opted for by the wealthy only. As it promises jobs with higher earnings, a wider gulf is created between students coming from different economic backgrounds.

Higher education becomes increasingly commercialized, the criterion of profitability being the overriding concern, and the noble ideals and values which higher education symbolized earlier become almost obsolete in the globalised world. Higher education is being viewed more as a "private good" both by the society as well as the government. The latter is, in fact encouraging this trend as it is facing difficulties in funding higher education and in instructing institutions to generate funds. In India apart from raising fees or introducing self-financing courses, not much headway has been made in this regard.

Sometimes institutions providing market-specific programmes are not even universities. They are business enterprises not having their own faculty. They hire contractors to produce and deliver specific programmes. In Australia, private education agents working on commission basis are employed by most vocational colleges and higher education institutions operating in India to identify and recruit potential students. Even traditional non-profit universities in Australia and Britain are quite open about acquiring funds through marketing education in other countries to make up for budget cuts at home.

Another important aspect relates to quality control and academic independence. It is essential for every country to maintain control over its academic institutions. It is becoming increasingly difficult for individual institutions as well as countries to maintain academic freedom when they have practically no control over import of education through the various modes that have come to operate in this important area of activity. The for-profit institutions are operating in a largely unregulated environment, providing access at low prices to all those who seek it. Many of these are not even well known and established institutions in their own country. They are thriving because foreign degrees enjoy a special status in some segments of the job market in developing countries.

Educational institutions are involved in the process of nation building through creation and dissemination of knowledge and service to community. The presence of foreign institutions will convert education from a social service and public good into a private service and private commodity. If a full cost fee structure prevails, meritorious but poor students would be crowded out. The course content too would not be determined by national requirements but by the needs of the market.

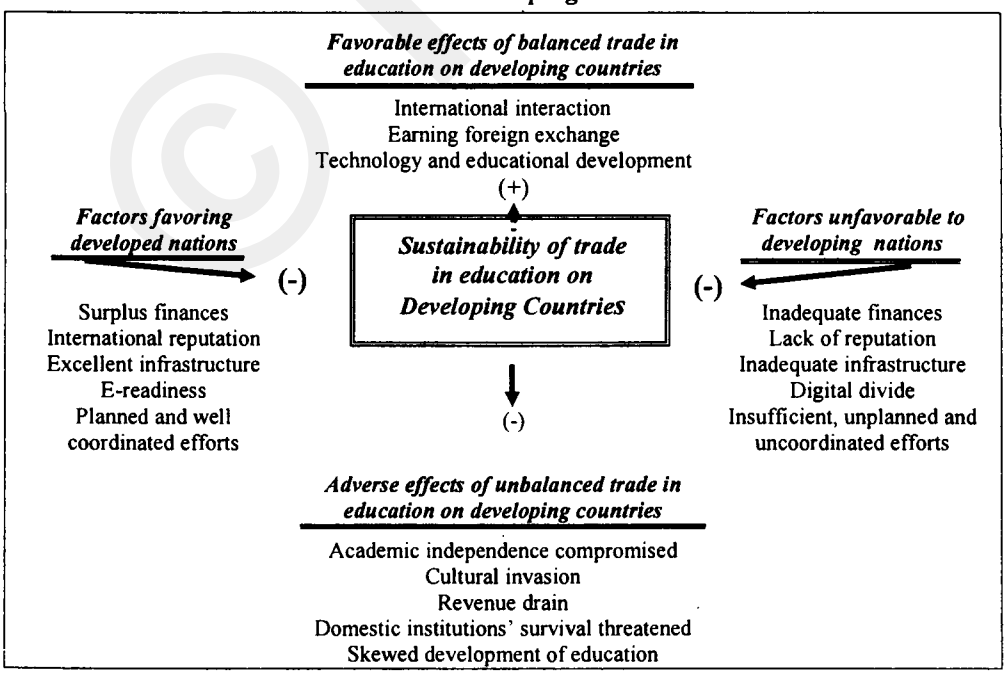
Some pertinent issued that need to be addressed to include the way countries or universities would maintain their academic independence in a world in which they have little control over import and export of higher education? How would accreditation be carried out? Can the transnational providers of education be subjected to accreditation and quality control by national agencies, such as the UGC, NAAC, AICTE, etc.? Wealthy project driven multinationals will force other educational institutions out of business. Once universities are part of WTO jurisdiction, it is inevitable that autonomy will be severely compromised and advanced education and research would be just another product subject to international treaties and business regulations. If individual universities are to flourish, they need an adequate degree of autonomy and academic freedom.

Above all, the personal touch is missing in some popular modes of educational programmes offered, such as on-line education, distance/correspondence education. The value of co-operation, tolerance, common brotherhood, nationalism and so on, which are inculcated in youth as a byproduct of education, have no meaning under this system of for-profit globalised learning. The teacher is only a seller of his product in the market and not a person who motivates his students and moulds their character by his personality, his concern and care.

Figure-1 below summarizes the effects of international trade in education on its sustainable development in developing countries. The developments that have taken place in this direction jeopardize the long term interests of developing countries. The positive effect on developing countries is very small as compared to negative effect.

Figure 1

Effect of Various Factors on Sustainability of Trade in Education in Developing Countries



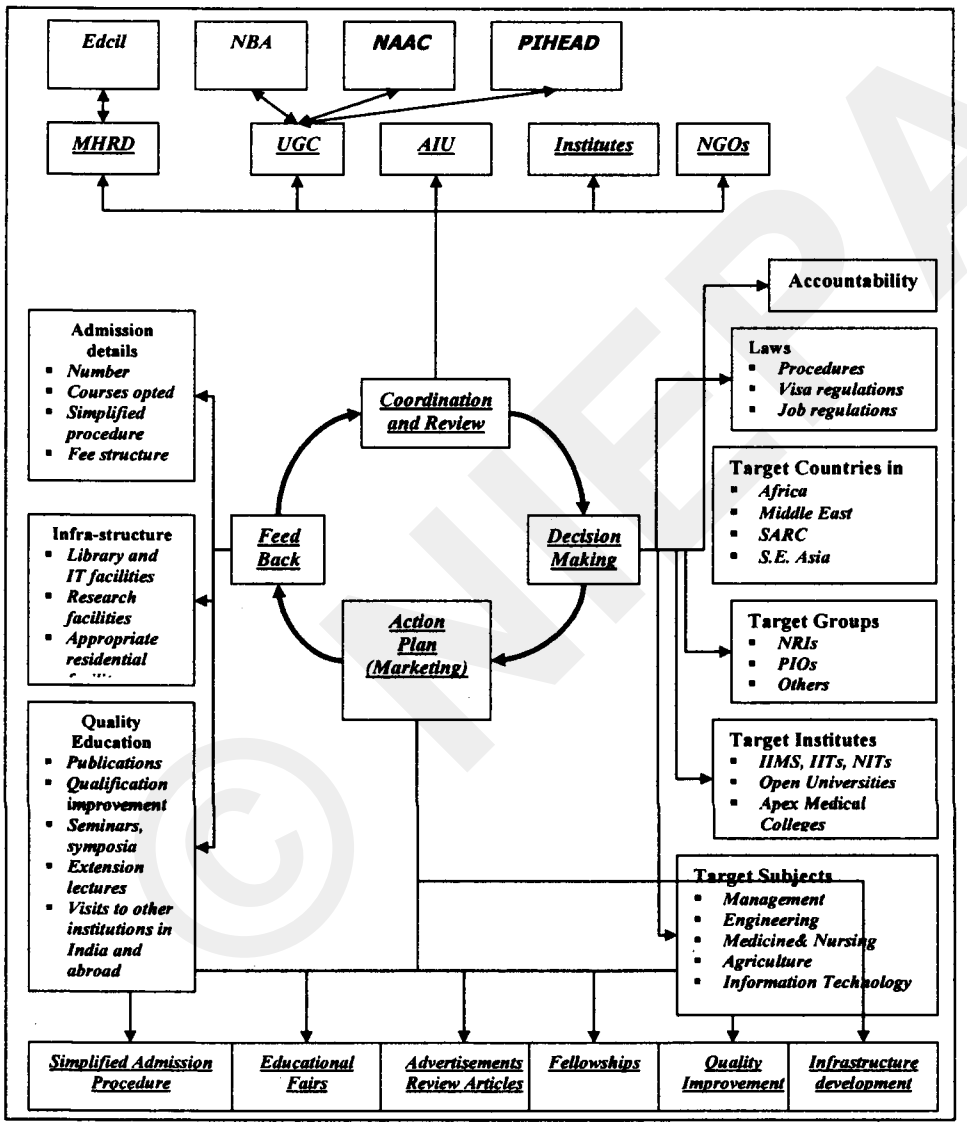
Prospects for India

For India to survive in the above scenario, a number of steps are required to be taken. These have been summarized in Figure 2 and discussed below. India needs to approach the issue of globalization of education from two fronts. The first outlines the need to safeguard the interest of its higher education system from the adverse effects of globalization of education, keeping intact its cultural identity and academic freedom, as well as protecting the students from falling prey to substandard institutions providing foreign education. It involves the entire system in which foreign institutions are allowed to operate. The second concerns promotion of Indian higher education outside national boundaries. It involves marketing of higher education to other developing countries.

This is an area in which India has an edge over its counterparts on account of its vast network of about 300 universities of higher learning and 15,000 (professional and non-professional) colleges in diverse fields of engineering, IT, biotechnology, agriculture, management, medicine, pharmacy, arts, science, commerce, humanities, social sciences and others. Many of these conform to international standards and enjoy a good reputation overseas. Thus India needs to avail of the opportunities provided in the globalized world under the aegis of the WTO. At present, however, only 0.1% of the total students enrolled in the domestic system are of foreign origin compared to 13.1% in Australia (OECD 2002). In fact, according to a study conducted by A.S. Narag, foreign students' advisor at Delhi University, the number of foreign students in India have diminished from 11,888 in 1995 to 8145 in 2003, while during the same period foreign students in China increased from 22,744 to 40,000 and in Japan from 53,511 to 100,000. Most of the foreign students coming to India are from neighbouring SAARC nations or from African countries. Between 1993-94 and 2002, the number of students from Kenya reduced drastically from 4268 to 548 only. In the case of Bangladesh, there were 1244 students in 1995-96, in 2002 there were only 545 students. Among the factors responsible for this decline are: (a) a lackadaisical approach of Indian universities and a singular lack of effort to sell their programmes; (b) increase in fee for foreign students; (c) poor co-ordination between universities and Indian missions abroad and failure to attract more foreign students to the country, and (d) arrival of international players, especially Australia, with its aggressive marketing, and, to some extent, New Zealand, in countries like Bangladesh.

India will have to make an all out and sincere effort to attract foreign students, for which the infrastructure is available. What is needed is a clear cut policy and serious and wholehearted initiatives in the desired directions.

Figure 2
Steps to be Taken by India in the Present Scenario of Globalization under WTO



India's potential as a global education destination has now come to be realized. A series of initiatives have been launched by the government to tap this potential and to attract more and more international students to Indian institutions, both private and public. Educational Consultants India Limited (Ed CIL) has been set up as a nodal agency under the Ministry of HRD for placement of foreign students in Indian institutions. It plans to attract at least 15000 foreign students from countries across Asia and Africa in the next academic year. The countries which are targeted are

Ethiopia, Kenya, Mauritius, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Bangladesh, Burma, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia, China, Iran, Bahrain, Jordan, Kuwait, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, UAE and Yemen.

In choosing foreign destination, students opting for international education have three important considerations – cost, proximity and overlap with their cultural values. In this context India offers a friendly environment, cultural diversity and good value for money to students from SAARC, Middle East and South East Asia. It is estimated that India has a potential to afford about 50,000 foreign students in the next couple of years. Presently only about 10,000 are studying in India. The government has launched an exclusive scheme to encourage international students, called District Administration of Students Abroad (DASA) reserving 15% of seats in premier technical institutions, such as the NITs (formerly Regional Engineering Colleges) and other centrally funded institutions for foreign nationals/peoples of Indian origins (PIO)/Non-Resident Indians (NRIs). Further, a Rs.1500 crore Technical Education Quality Improvement Programme (TEQIP) has been started to upgrade 150 well performing engineering colleges to world class standards. Besides this, a National Board of Accreditation (NBA) has been established to ensure world class education. An aggressive marketing and promotional programme has been chalked out by Ed.CIL, including advertising, public relations activities as well as recognition of Indian degrees in countries like Malaysia.

It is encouraging to know of the initiatives that have been taken by the government to attract foreign students to India. Considering India's vast potential in this area, a more proactive policy is required. The following measures may be included apart from whatever government may deem desirable:

- Wide publicity needs to be given to the educational facilities available in India in the reputed institutions of higher education – professional as well as non- professional.
- Admission procedures should be simple and quick and not prolonged and cumbersome as in some educational institutions.
- Clear cut guidelines related to visa requirements may be provided and the processing of visa applications simplified and expedited.
- Cheap and suitable accommodation should be available for foreign students keeping in view their special needs. Some universities do not provide accommodation to foreign students.
- A special cell may be set up in universities to deal with the special problems of foreign students. It could also be given the responsibility of examining the scope of attracting more foreign students.
- Agreements with foreign countries should be entered into regarding acceptance of degrees and/ certificates awarded by the university.
- A certain percentage of foreign students could be provided with fellowships/scholarships. It is not only through fees that international students provide foreign exchange. Other non-quantifiable benefits arise out of resultant international business connections.

It is essential to have comprehensive data on students' mobility in and out of the country for pursuit of education for any meaningful feedback. The data should include, among others, the number of students, courses sought for, fee structure,

curriculum, infrastructure facilities available, teachers' qualification and experience, etc. All major exporters of education meticulously maintain such figures and the details are available on internet for analysis. In contrast, in India there is no single office from where such data could be available. The government offices which can coordinate for such information could be UGC, Ministry of Human Resource Development, and the Ministry of External Affairs. The data should be regularly exchanged between these offices for appropriate monitoring, evaluation and decision making. EdCIL can be the central coordinating body for maintaining the statistical data on education.

With regard to foreign universities/institutions operating in India, to safeguard our interest the measures could include:

i) Making it incumbent on foreign higher education institutions operating in India to register themselves.
ii) Some type of accreditation may be introduced to prevent sub-standard institutions from setting up shop in India. A welcome move in this regard has recently been made with respect to technical education. The All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) has come up with the stance that no foreign tertiary institution offering technical education will be able to operate in India without its approval. These regulations are seen by professional educators as a much needed defence against non-accredited universities/institutions.
iii) India should continue its efforts on reciprocal recognition of degrees awarded by Indian universities as an essential step for sustainable development of domestic educational sector under WTO. Minimum norms of standard should be determined in pursuance of the UN doctrine of Sustainable Development.

India should negotiate in the WTO from a position of strength to be able to lay down conditions for regulating foreign education and safeguarding itself against uneven competition. In the end, issues concerning internationalization of higher education need to be examined from the perspective of merit, efficiency, equity, nation building and national security.

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Efficiency & Equity and Private Higher Education in Pakistan

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Abstract

In 1947 there was not a single private university in Pakistan. The number of private universities has increased only during the last two decades. Despite increase in their number no in-depth study has been conducted to explore the contribution of the private sector to higher education in Pakistan, especially in the context of efficiency and equity. The present article explores the contribution of the private sector with particular respect to efficiency and equity in higher education provision in Pakistan. A study of 10 private universities/degree awarding institutes within the twin cities of Rawalpindi and Islamabad was employed. The data were collected from administrators, the faculty and the students through separate structured questionnaires. The data were complemented by interviews with senior management of the sampled privately managed higher education institutions. The main research question is to what extent does the private sector contribute to efficiency and equity in higher education provision in Pakistan? On the basis of the study recommendations are made to improve the efficiency and equity of provision for higher education.

Introduction

In Pakistan at the time of its independence, August 1947, there was only one university, the University of Punjab, Lahore and almost 40 colleges. The government established new colleges and universities but was not in a position to provide adequate financial and physical resources to undertake the restructuring of the educational system and also its expansion to meet the demands of the students. In this context, the private sector came up to provide opportunities to students seeking higher education opportunities by opening privately managed higher education institutions in the country. The private education sector will be defined as all formal institutions that are not public, and may be found, owned, managed and financed by actors other than the state.

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We begin with some definitions of higher education, efficiency and equity. "Education is a process through which a nation develops its self consciousness by developing the self consciousness of the individuals who compose it". (Khalid, 1998; p.14). Another definition of education is that "it is a social institution which provides mental, physical, ideological and moral training to the individuals of the society, so as to enable them to have full consciousness of their mission, purpose in life and to equip them to achieve that purpose" (Ahmad, 1984; p.37).

Equity refers to how the outputs and costs of education are distributed between individuals and groups in society. It is often stated that in both developed and developing countries, the children of better off families are more likely than those from poorer families to enter university; higher education is usually, but not always, subsidized by the government; and on completing their education, graduates usually enter higher paid and higher status jobs than those without a degree. Many commentators argue that this situation in which access to higher education is differently distributed between social groups and where a large part of cost of higher education is met by the exchequer rather than by the students themselves is inequitable (Unpublished ADB Report 2005).

Efficiency refers to the use of resources in such a way as to maximize the educational output(s) possible from their use. In the context of education, efficiency is of two types. Internal efficiency which is concerned with efficiency within the education system; and external efficiency, which refers to the relationship between the education system and the general economy. According to Mace 'one argument often associated with the World Bank and those espousing a more market based system of education provision is that more involvement of communities and parents in the payment for education will encourage greater efficiency' (Unpublished ADB Report 2005).

From the above definitions it would appear that education is seen as a process of the intellectual development of individuals through which their potentialities are developed and the culture of the people is transmitted to the following generations. But education also contributes to the economic and political development of the individual and society at large. This is best achieved when the higher education is efficiently and equitably provided.

There are different points of view regarding the role of higher education. Some people are of the view that higher education is an important factor for the socio-economic development of a society. Education today has become the most potent instrument, not only for social and cultural changes but also for the economic development of society. Ali (1997) states that "rapid economic development of a nation lies in the provision of education and skilled manpower". Education generates not only new ideas and competency in individuals; it also accelerates the pace of technological transformation. To economists, higher education is preparing people for making better choices and providing them with skills and attributes to lead a better life and, in turn contribute to the socio-economic development of the country. (For example, see Blaug 1972 and Becker 1976).

The latter view is reflected in the Education Policy Draft (Government of Pakistan, 1998). It states that the type and quality of education imparted to the youth of today will provide future leadership in various fields that will successfully steer the country towards socio-economic development in the years to come. Therefore, higher education may be seen as a prime concern of the society, the government and the individual.

Participation of the private sector in the educational system and its development in Pakistan has a long history. From 1947 until 1971, the private sector contribution increased considerably through a variety of non-government organizations. However, the process of nationalization by the Peoples Government completely eliminated the private sector from education in 1972 to 1979. The position remained largely unchanged until 1998 when the National Educational Policy 1998-2010 (Government of Pakistan, 1998a) was announced. The system of a Grant-in-Aid introduced before independence continued till 1972 to attract the private sector to participate in the provision of educational facilities to the citizens who were demanding higher education. Expenditure on education in this century is now being considered as an expenditure on human capital, that is, investment rather than consumption. The National Educational Policy 1998-2010 also recognizes the fact that there is a strong feeling among the Pakistani people that the private sector should participate actively to supplement the resources of the government for the development of human resources.

There was only one university in the public sector in 1947 and this number had risen to 55 (47 universities and 8 degree awarding institutions) by the year 2004. The demand for higher education is increasing rapidly due to the expanding number of school graduates in the country. Modern higher education, especially in science and technology, is seen as essential for rapid socio-economic development, but it is very costly. "The scarcity of public finances does not allow the expansion of higher education in the country. In this regard concerted efforts are being made to attract the private sector through liberal policy to establish institutions of higher education in Pakistan". (National Educational Policy 1998-2010).

According to Isani and Virk, in Pakistan, "at present there are 51 universities and degree awarding institutes in the private sector that have received the charter from the HEC and providing education in the fields of Engineering, Medicine, Management, and other related technical and general fields." (Isani and Virk, 2005; p.293). These universities are providing higher education in the main cities of Pakistan such as, Karachi, Lahore, Quetta, Peshawar, and the twin cities of Rawalpindi and Islamabad. A large majority of people live in the rural areas of the country. This situation raises the question about the equity and efficiency of the private education provision in the country. So far, no in-depth study has been conducted to explore the contribution of the private sector to higher education in Pakistan. The present article explores the contribution of the private sector with respect to efficiency and equity in higher education provision in Pakistan. The main research question addressed in this paper is: *To what extent does the private sector contribute to efficiency and equity in higher education provision in Pakistan?*

Some sub-questions were also addressed to in order to assess the variability of privately managed universities/higher education institutes, included in the study, regarding the quality of inputs, physical facilities available to students, curricula being taught, system of examinations, rate of tuition fee, and monitoring systems etc. Information regarding provision of medical and transport facilities to the students registered with these institutions was also collected from the institutions included in the study for assessing whether or not these affected students' choice of institution to study in and the costs of education borne by them. The main sub-questions addressed in this paper are:

(i) Is there any significant difference among these institutions regarding the provision of academic facilities to students?
(ii) Is there any significant difference among these institutions regarding the provision of physical facilities to students?
(iii) What is the status of the academic jobs in terms of whether they are full-time or part- time?
(iv) What are the main sources of revenue of these institutions?
(v) Do these institutions provide transport facilities to the students? Whether or not the cost of the transport facilities available to students affects students' enrolment?

Methodology and Data

A case study approach was employed to address the research question. The research design is a case study of privately managed universities/degree awarding higher education institutions that revealed information about different aspects of private higher education in Pakistan. The case study was based on 10 private universities/degree awarding higher education institutions in the target area, comprising twin cities of Rawalpindi and Islamabad.

Primary and Secondary are used here: The primary data sources were personnel directly involved in such functions as policy making, administration, conducting examinations and the teaching/learning process of privately managed higher education institutions. The data were collected from respondents through structured questionnaires and a structured interview schedule.

The secondary data mainly came from the analysis of official reports and documents (published/unpublished) by the government of Pakistan. Other secondary sources used for this purpose were studies and reports, published and unpublished, by various international agencies, such as World Bank, UNESCO, etc. The studies conducted by eminent scholars in this field were also critically examined.

Three separate questionnaires, for administrators, faculty and students, were developed for data collection. A structured interview schedule for the senior management in the private higher education institutions was also used to complement the data collected through questionnaires.

The questionnaires were divided into three sections. The first section concerned the personal characteristics of respondents, such as age, gender, year of joining the

institutions, academic qualifications etc. The second section pertained to the perceptions of the respondents regarding the academic and physical facilities available to students registered with the private higher education institutions within the target area. Most of the questions of this section were addressed to all categories of respondents. Finally open ended questions were addressed with a view to give some indication of problems the respondents were faced with and how these problems could be overcome. We ensured the confidentiality of the information through the covering letters enclosed with the questionnaires. As a result, we were able to obtain a very high response rate from all categories of respondents.

The first section of the structured interview schedule concerned the personal information of senior management. The second section concerned the perception of senior management regarding the availability of the academic and physical facilities to students studying in the targeted higher education institutions. This section provided us an opportunity to identify similarities and differences, if any, of the senior management and other respondents. In the third section, open ended questions were addressed with a view to finding some indication of the problems they are faced with and the suggestion for remedial steps to overcome these problems.

Before administering these questionnaires, the questions were pre-tested on small groups of management, academic staff and the students of these higher education institutions. In the light of their comments and analysis, of the responses, instruments were refined and then distributed to the samples. Data were collected through the distribution of questionnaires in person to administrators, faculty members and students of privately managed higher education institutions within the target area. The data were complemented by interviewing personnel in the senior management positions. For this purpose a structured interview schedule was used. Efforts were made to collect the filled in questionnaires on the spot. However, in a few cases we had to wait for 3 to 4 days for the collection of filled in questionnaires after their distribution. Face to face contact has enabled us to achieve a very high response rates from respondents.

At the time of the survey, there were 10 universities/higher education institutions located in the study-area imparting education in the private sector. As stated earlier, we included only those who were directly involved in the main functions of the institutions, such as policy making, administration, examinations and teaching/learning activities of these institutions. These included persons working in senior positions of management, administration, and teaching. A sample from each of these categories was randomly drawn. For the purpose of cross-checking the data collected from the administrators and faculty, a sample of 200 students was also drawn from these institutions. To make all samples representative and unbiased, a stratified random sampling method was employed. Bryman (2004) defines the stratified random sampling 'in which units are randomly sampled from the population that has been divided into categories or strata' Four separate samples were drawn from the following:

The senior management included Vice-Chancellors, Rectors, Executive Vice-Presidents, Campus-in-charges, Deans, Managers Students Affairs and other related

senior members of the management. A sample of 10 senior managers, one from each targeted privately managed higher education institution, was drawn. The response rate of this sample was 100 percent. A structured interview schedule was used to interview them.

Registrars, who are the custodian of universities/degree awarding institutes, were selected from these 10 privately managed universities/higher education institutions. The questionnaires were of personally delivered to and collected from all registrars of the sampled higher education institutions. They filled in their questionnaires in consultation with the respective controllers of examinations and directors of admissions of concerned institutions. The response rate in this case was also 100 percent.

We randomly selected only 100 (out of 405) faculty members from the different departments of the targeted institutions. Out of these 75 faculty members returned the filled-in questionnaires. So the response rate of the faculty of the sampled institutions was 75 percent.

A sample of 200 students studying in various disciplines of the sampled universities/institutes was randomly selected. We delivered questionnaires to all the 200 students, all of whom returned the filled-in questionnaires. The response rate of students was these extremely good, at 100 percent.

Main Findings and Their Implications

The main task of the study was to explore the contribution of the private sector to higher education in Pakistan with particular reference to efficiency and equity. This was done through a comparison of the opinions, attitudes and experiences of the personnel directly working in private higher education institutions in different positions.

Establishment of the Sampled Higher Education Institutions

At the time of survey 10 higher education institutions were providing education in different disciplines in the target area. All these higher education institutions were included in the study. It is noticeable that all these private higher education institutions are established in the urban and commercial localities of the main cities and this may be seen as inequitable as it indicates that they are neglecting the major sections of the population which, living in the rural areas. According to the Economic Survey 2004-2005, the rural population in Pakistan is 67.5 percent of the total population. It implies that the private sector is imparting higher education to those who probably have already opportunities for getting education, but are not serving the disadvantaged rural people.

The most obvious issue that emerges from the rapid expansion of the private HE institutions is that how they will maintain good quality education. Will it be possible for the (Higher Education Commission) to ensure the quality of education before allowing them to open a new university in the country? In this context the HEC should be very careful in respect of giving a charter to new universities in the country.

Courses Offered by the Higher Education Institutions

A majority of the privately managed higher education institutions included in the research were offering programmes from B.A to Ph.D. levels in various disciplines. The findings of our study show that students enrolled in privately managed higher educations were mostly studying Management Sciences, Computer Science, Telecommunication and Software Engineering.

It may be that increase in the number of science, technology, and management science subjects and reduction in the number of humanities and arts graduates, may create a shortage of social scientists in the country in the near future. After a few years time, the labour market of the country may not be able to absorb the supply of graduates from these institutions in science and technology. As a result, problem of graduate unemployment may be experienced in the country.

System of Examinations and Structure of Academic Year

Seventy percent of the Higher Education institutions included in the study are following the semester system. The duration for a semester is six months, that is, two semesters in a year. However, 30 percent of these are following both the annual and the semester systems. The description of the findings indicates that the targeted HE institutions follow the semester system which is currently being followed by other national and international universities. By following the semester system and a similar curriculum, their output is parable to other national universities of the country as they follow the same system of examinations. In this context, an important point emerges that semester should start around at the same time in all privately managed universities. It may start later than the public sector universities in the country. In this way candidates, who could not seek admission in the public sector universities will be able to apply for admissions to the private sector universities in the same calendar year.

It is noteworthy that a significant percentage of the private HE institutions were following both semester and annual systems. According to the respondents, institutions can have either semester system or an annual system or both. A judicious combination of the two systems may be suitable for them for the evaluation of students' academic performance.

Monitoring of Institutions

The private universities/degree awarding institutions included in the study are mainly monitored by their respective boards of governors. Findings show that in some cases, the Higher Education Commission (HEC) is also monitoring the institutions. In this context, HEC the can play an important role. The HEC gives a charter to the private sector universities. Not only the HEC should ensure the quality of education to be provided by these institutions but it should be also responsible for monitoring thereafter. There should be a well-defined procedure for the monitoring of the HE institutions in the country. In this way the gap between the qualities of education may be minimized.

Academic Inputs

Academic inputs may be in different forms, such as, the academic qualifications of the faculty, instructional materials and availability of research facilities, internet and journals to students. The findings and the implications of these facilities are presented in the following paragraphs.

Findings of the study show that a majority (72 percent) of the faculty in these institutions were in full-time employment (Table 1). However, some of the faculty members were either on contractual or on part-time employment. A very significant majority of the faculty were lecturers and assistant professors. The findings revealed that faculty of the private sector universities/higher education institutes were well qualified. Out of these 34 percent have research degrees and 64 percent have Masters degrees. According to Isani and Virk (2005), 'the percentage of the faculty in the public sector with Ph. D. ranges from 10 percent in the Engineering University Peshawar, North West Frontier Province (NWFP) to 64 percent in the Quaid-e-Azam University Islamabad. The overall percentage of the faculty with Ph. D. is 29 percent in the public sector universities (Isani and Virk; 2005 p. 252). The overall percentage of the faculty with Ph. D. was 11 percent in the targeted HE institutions which is comparatively lower than the public sector universities (Table 2).

TABLE 1
Service Status of the Faculty

Service Status	*Frequency*	*Percentage*
Regular	52	72.0
Contractual	11	14.7
Visiting	10	13.3
Total	75	100.0

TABLE 2
Distribution of the Faculty by Academic Qualifications

Academic Qualifications	*Frequency*	*Percentage*
MA/M.Sc	48	64.0
M.Phil.	19	25.3
Ph.D.	8	10.7
Total	75	100.0

A large majority of the faculty was between the ages of 26 to 40 years, and had one to 10 years teaching experience.

Well qualified and experienced faculty is a prerequisite for effective teaching, advancement of knowledge and the promotion of research in the HE institutions. It is obvious from the findings of the study that the targeted HE institutions have a mix of young and experienced, male and female teachers, having Masters and / or research

degrees. A majority of the faculty is in full-time employment, but still they need the services of the faculty from outside.

Keeping the importance of role of a teacher in any educational institution in mind, it is suggested that to attract faculty with Ph. Ds. they should be offered an additional higher qualification allowance as an incentives. Faculty having research degrees should be offered higher salaries than the faculty without research degrees. In this way the private sector will attract the best of society's intellectuals for their institutions. To refine and upgrade their abilities they may also be provided with in-service training. The training may be within the country or abroad, depending upon the financial position of the institution. A well qualified and committed faculty can attract more students and increase their enrolments. As a result, the institutions will be able enjoy both a good reputation (staff quality) and attract students and income (from fees).

There was a considerable similarity of views about the availability of the internet facilities among administrators, the faculty and students. A significant percentage (about 15 percent) of students was uncertain about the availability of adequate internet facilities. Provision of internet facilities to the faculty and students is meant to equip them with the latest knowledge and technology. The availability of internet is not the only determinant of good quality of education but also of the level of its utilization. Internet has opened new avenues for sharing of knowledge with others the world over.

The maximum utilization of internet facility by the faculty and students will enable them to have access to knowledge in their fields of study. It is possible only when the faculty and students have ready access to this facility. To facilitate access and use, introductory short courses on internet for teachers and students may also be arranged for the effective utilization of internet.

A very significant majority of the senior management opined that an adequate number of latest journals was available in libraries to the faculty and students of their institutions. The faculty and administrators' responses were similar to that of the senior management. But in contrast, only 52 percent of students agreed that an adequate number of journals was available to them. It is noticeable that 30 percent of students were uncertain about the availability of these journals. The findings of the study show that journals are available in the libraries of the sampled higher education institutions but it does not show the level of utilization of journals by the faculty or students. Those who were uncertain, either they do not have an easy access to journals or the journals may not be covering their disciplines. On the basis of our evidence, it is suggested that journals should cover all the subjects which are being taught in these institutions. Students need to be encouraged and informed by their teachers about the availability the journals. The effective utilization of journals will help students to equip themselves with the latest knowledge in their related area of education.

Physical Facilities

Physical facilities play an important role in the teaching/learning process. Institutions having better physical facilities may attract both teachers and students. The main findings

concerning the availability of physical facilities in the sampled HE institutions are presented in the following paragraphs.

A large majority of the Higher Education institutions were operating in rented buildings within the commercial areas of the twin cities Rawalpindi and Islamabad and were owned by respective trusts. These are very populous and congested areas of the cities and buildings cannot be expanded to meet the future needs of the potential students of higher education in Pakistan. The number of secondary school graduates is increasing rapidly in Pakistan.

The government presently does not provide any financial assistance to the private sector for opening new universities in the private sector. In this context the government may offer some relaxation in property taxes borne by the private sector for opening new Higher Education institutions. They may be given an incentive of low cost land in the rural areas or in smaller cities of the country. They may also be exempted from taxes for a certain period of time. These relaxations in government taxes will enable the private sector to provide better physical facilities and enable them to attract better qualified faculty and students. A team of well qualified faculty will increase the efficiency of these institutions in terms of research and teaching output. In this way an increased percentage of the population may have access to these institutions. The other reason for reducing the level of property tax on higher education can be the level of indirect benefit, sometimes called externalities, that accrue to society at large from having a more educated population (see for example, Cohn, Blaug, and McMohan).

Findings of the study revealed that all universities in the private sector of the target area had adequate numbers of rooms for academic activities in the Higher Education institutions in the target area. But the adequacy of classrooms for all types of teaching learning activities is still open to question. The design and the number of classrooms is according to the needs of the subjects being taught in these institutions and will make these activities more effective if adequately provided. The appropriate classrooms may have positive effects on students' enrolment. As a result, these institutions have more income than other HE institutions in the country. Observations in the field work showed that classrooms were unsuitable for certain teaching activities. For example, classroom size was inadequate for the number of students and that students, and had to share desks. In some cases no desks were available to students. Both will adversely affect the quality of education provided.

All higher education institutions included in the study had the facility of library available to students registered with them. The response of all respondents about the availability of libraries in the target Higher Education institutions was very similar. Our concern here is whether the libraries are placed in appropriate buildings with all facilities available to the users. Whether the books available in the libraries are sufficient in numbers and are of good quality? Whether books available cover all subjects being taught in the institutions? A well equipped library plays an important role in the provision of good quality education to students. The provision of a quality library may have positive effects on the enrolment of students.

There was a similarity in the responses of the management and students about the availability of well equipped science laboratories in their institutions. The findings of the paper show that the majority of respondents were agreed on the availability of well equipped science laboratories, but 18 percent of respondents disagreed and 16 percent of them were uncertain. Those who disagreed or were uncertain may have not been the users of science laboratories of these institutions or they may have not been satisfied with the quality of the equipment available to them in the laboratories. The science equipment is costly and in some cases may not be available in Pakistan. The government may encourage the private sector to import the science equipment by exempting these items from duty and other related taxes.

Findings revealed great similarity of views among respondents that their institutions were fully equipped with computer laboratories. This is why they were able to offer programmes of computer sciences to the students registered with them. As pointed out in the National Education Policy (1998-2010), the present government has its main focus on promoting Science and Technology at higher level of education in the country. The private higher education institutions seem to follow the government policy. Computer is not only essential for studying the Computer Sciences, but it is also very useful for teachers, administrators and senior management. A computer can play an important role in the planning, implementing the decisions made by the management, and other main functions of the educational institutions. The computer laboratories may help other departments by providing them with a networking facility. This will make their functions more smooth and time saving.

Concerning the availability of hostel, about 40 percent were using this facility. Hostel facilities provide students with the social environment where they learn how to share and interact with others. A university having boarding and lodging facilities commands a large catchments area. Provision of hostel facilities in the educational institutions may result in the increase of the students' enrolment by providing residential facilities to the students coming from other cities or rural areas of the same city. A hostel with adequate residential facilities and friendly environment positively affects the overall academic outputs of the institutions.

The medical facilities were not available to the majority of students within the sampled universities. It is noteworthy that according to a majority of students the medical facility was available to only seven percent of students. The main reasons for the provision of medical facility to a very limited number of students may be the very high costs of medical equipment and the nonavailability of these from the local market. Import of the equipment is not only very costly but involves a complicated procedure to get permission from the government for their import. There would appear, prima facie, to be a case for improving the availability of medical facilities.

Findings of the study show that about 60 percent students were provided with transport facilities by their HE institution. Thus a significant percentage of students were not using the transport facility provided by their institutions. Probably one of the reasons could be that either these institutions have inadequate transport facilities available to

students or it may be more expensive than the public transport in the target area. The other reason could be the better financial position of students, and they using their own vehicles instead. As a result they will recruit more students and increase their income.

Sources of Revenue

The study reveals that tuition fees are the main source of revenue for the private higher education institutions within the twin cities Rawalpindi and Islamabad. There is a worldwide trend that costs of higher education should be shared by their beneficiaries, that is, students and their families (World Bank). Institutions in the private sector of the twin cities of Rawalpindi and Islamabad have followed the international trend of sharing the costs of education with students. The government is giving no assistance to the private sector universities in either their capital costs or in the form of relaxation in taxes imposed by the government. So they have to generate their own resources and the main source of their income is the tuition fees. But the generation of their own resources makes these institutions more expensive for students and as a result less accessible to poor students and inequitable. This may negatively affect the efficiency of the institutions, and to maximize their output per unit of input they need to attract good, but financially deprived students in sufficient numbers to reduce average cost per student. Moreover, the graduates of these institutions may contribute significantly to the economic development of the country if they are able to utilize the knowledge and skills they have developed at these institutions.

Tuition Fee Paid by Students

Findings of the study reveal that a very significant majority of students was paying tuition fee from Rs. 25,000 to Rs. 60,000 per semester in their respective Higher Education institutions within the target area. Findings also show that the sampled institutions charge tuition fees at different levels, ranging from Rs.10,000 to Rs. 70,000 per semester, from their students (Table 3). Some of the renowned private higher education institutions, such as the Lahore University Management Sciences, Lahore, and the Agha Khan University, Karachi, charge much more from their students than other institutions of the country in the same discipline. The tuition fees are one of the important issues of the private HE institutions. Isani and Virk (2005) term these institutions as 'unequal opportunity institutions' where poor students can have no access' (Isani 2005; p. 301). Findings of our study tend to support this claim. According to the Europa World Year Book 2005 'Pakistan's Gross National Income (GNI), measured at average 2001-03 prices, was US $ 71,909 m, equivalent to $ 470 per head'. (The Europa World Book 2005, 46th Edition p. 3345). In Pakistani currency this income is equivalent to Rs. 28,200. It means that access to higher education in the private HE institutions is likely to be beyond the financial means of the majority in the country who cannot afford expenses of higher education especially in the private sector universities. Only well off families can afford the costs of higher education in these institutions. This situation surely creates the problem of

inequity. Some financial support to talented and needy students in the form of scholarships, fee concession and loans is given by the institutions. In doing so they compensate the students who cannot afford the expenditures and may reduce the problem of inequity in this area.

TABLE 3
Per Semester Tuition Fee Paid by Students (Pak. Rupees)

Amount	*Frequency*	*Percentage*
10,000 - 15,000	2	1.2
15,001 - 20,000	9	5.3
20,001 - 25,000	11	6.5
25,001 - 30,000	23	13.5
30,001 - 35,000	13	7.6
35,001 - 40,000	33	19.4
40,001 - 45,000	10	5.9
45,001 - 50,000	21	12.4
50,001 - 55,000	19	11.2
55,001 - 60,000	27	15.9
65,001 - 70,000	2	1.2
Total	170	100.0

Financial Support

The targeted Higher Education institutions financially support their students in terms of scholarships, fee concession and loans. Concerning the financial support, the following were the main findings:

A significant majority of the faculty and students were of the opinion that scholarships were awarded to talented students by their respective institutions. During the survey the researcher was told that these institutions make available a reasonable amount for this purpose to attract talented students. This is supported by the findings of the study. Provision of scholarships to the talented students can attract the students to the private HE institutions and as a result may increase their enrolment.

A large majority of the faculty and students responded that needy students were given fee concessions by their institutions. Needy students are those who cannot afford the expenses of higher education and need fee concession. The other reason for fee concession may be high cost of living in the target area. By doing so, these institutions may attract the poor but able students and also to some extent overcome the problem of inequity, as these institutions are considered to be inequitable and institutions for only the privileged elite class.

Student Loans

An equal percentage of the faculty and students, that is 55 percent, opined that loans were available to needy students in these institutions. The remaining 45 percent either thought loans were not available or were uncertain. The loans are given to students in terms of money on the guarantee of a government or university officer of at least grade 17. These loans are repayable after the completion of their study. Provision of loans to students by these institutions may attract the poor and needy students. As a result this may have a positive effect on the needy students' enrolment and thus serve equity. Not only these institutions will get their money back from the students but also have enhanced their income by the increase in students' enrolment. It is noted that the respondents did not provide us with the details on the types of loans they are offering to their students.

Financial support to students will enable the brilliant and poor but able students to get admission to privately managed higher education institutions. This as a result will make these institutions more efficient and equitable for all potential students, especially who cannot afford expenditure on higher education.

Academic Outcomes

The academic outcomes were assessed in terms of recognition of the qualifications with respect to the labour market and public sector student's outputs.

Findings of the study support that the degrees awarded by the sample HE institutions were recognized by the Higher Education Commission (HEC), Government of Pakistan. Universities/higher education Institutions in the private sector are degree awarding institutions. The credibility of the degrees is assessed by their recognition by the labour market and the Higher Education Commission (HEC) within the country. The graduates of some private Higher Education institutions, such as Agha Khan University, Karachi and Lahore, University of Management Sciences, Lahore, are being readily absorbed in the labour market. They are considered as the most expensive universities in the country but despite this students prefer to get admission to these institutions because their outputs are highly valued in the labour market.

Results of the study revealed that a very significant majority of administrators and faculty agreed that the system of examinations adopted in these institutions was comparable with other national universities of Pakistan.

The assessment procedure adopted by the private HE institutions is comparable to the national and international universities. Students prefer to enrol with the HE institutions whose system of examinations is comparable to other national universities, so that they may be able to seek admission in other HE institution when required. The output can be compared if the system of examinations of the institutions is the same

A large majority of graduates of these universities, as per the respondents were easily absorbed in the labour market, in so far as the taught courses matched the need of local or national labour market. Universities and degree awarding institutions are known by the quality of outcomes they produce. One of the main determinants for the assessment of the

graduates is the labour market. Graduates of better education institutions are readily absorbed in the labour market. Findings show that the graduates of the targeted HE institutions are absorbed in the labour market. The findings are based on the perceptions of the respondents but no hard evidence was provided. According to them they have contacts with their graduates who have been absorbed in the labour market.

A very significant majority of administrators and faculty agreed that the subjects taught in their universities were labour market responsive. Students enrolled in privately managed higher educations were studying Management Sciences followed by Computer Science, Telecommunication and Software Engineering. Findings of the study also correspond to the government policy of developing science and technology at higher education levels in the country (Table 4).

TABLE 4

Distribution of Students by Enrolment in Courses Offered by their Institutions

Programmes	*Frequency*	*Percentage*
Telecommunication	28	13.9
Computer Science	39	19.3
Software Engineering	19	9.4
Information Technology	15	7.4
Management Sciences	49	24.3
Technology Management	30	14.9
Electrical Engineering	03	1.5
Medical	17	8.4
Total	200	100.0

The majority of students registered with the sampled HE institutions are offering science and technical education, because they consider these subjects are likely to help them to get employment.

Conclusions and Policy Implications

This paper has examined the contribution of the private sector to higher education in Pakistan with special reference to efficiency and equity. Following conclusions have been drawn:

About 87 percent of the students are paying tuition fee from Rs. 25,000 to Rs. 60,000 per semester in their respective HE institutions within the target area. The amount thus paid by the students is more than the per capita per annum average income (i.e. $ 470 per year or about 28000 Pak rupees). This means that access to private higher education is likely to be beyond the financial means of a majority of the people in the country who cannot afford expenses of higher education. The cost of private higher education makes the higher education provision inequitable and resultantly inefficient too if able students are denied access.

A large majority (67.5 percent) of population is living in rural areas but the private

sector institutions are located in the commercial urban localities where the cost of living is very high and beyond the access of average and poor people. It implies that only the students from the well off families of urban areas can have access to the private higher education institutions. The living cost in the big cities makes the private higher education inequitable. These institutions cannot attract talented poor students from rural areas in sufficient numbers, who cannot afford expenditure of education as such as it becomes difficult to reduce.

On the basis of the findings presented in this paper, there would appear to be a strong case for the state to shoulder some of the costs of the private sector education on both efficiency and equity grounds. It is argued in the economic of education literature (see Blaug, Becker, and Schultz for example) that in addition to the private benefits of education, there are significant wider benefits enjoyed by society at large. Thus, there appears to be a strong case on theoretical and empirical grounds for the government to provide some financial support to private sector of higher education provision in Pakistan. This could be made directly, through, for example, reducing the taxes they currently pay or indirectly, for example, by providing more financial aid to students attending private higher education institutions possibly through a loans or levying education tax.

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Journal of Educational Planning and Administration
Volume XXI, No. 1, January 2007, pp. 63-68

RESEARCH NOTE/COMMUNICATION

Values of Higher Education in a Multicultural Society*

K.N. Panikkar**

The UNESCO International Commission on Education for Twenty-first Century, headed by Jacques Delors, has identified 'learning to be' and 'learning to live together' as two among the four pillars of education. They represent some of the fundamental values which education tries to impart in any society. 'Learning to be' addresses the question of development of the inner capacity of the individual which would prepare him to meet the social and political responsibilities. 'Learning to live together', on the other hand, would involve the creation of a harmonious life, transcending sectarian loyalties and differences. There is no education without values, but in all societies values are a mixed bag. They are so because of differing ideological needs. Yet, there are certain universal values which all societies cherish and disseminate. Education is an effective agency of this process in modern times when a network of communication is in place. The values in education are therefore a combination of the universal and the particular, both subject to changes according to the differing patterns of human experience rooted in global and local exchanges. The values of higher education in India as it obtained at the time of its liberation from colonial rule in 1947 and developed thereafter were shaped by the influences of these two dimensions.

The reorganization and restructuring of the system of education inherited from the colonial rule inevitably followed the liberation struggle, even if these proceeded through a slow process of reforms. Given that educational reform had a central place in the initiatives for the creation of a new India, a system of education, qualitatively different from the colonial, had to be envisioned and implemented. The new system had to be different, not only in structure and content, but more so in values as it was entwined with almost all endeavours of the nascent state. It was realized that the nature of the society that emerged after independence would largely depend upon the values the system of education would bring into being. The decolonization in the field of education and the

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alternative envisioned were, therefore, quite central to the future of Indian society and polity.

Antecedents

The search for the creation of new values in education has a fairly long history, reaching back to the period of early colonial rule. The Indian intelligentsia during the colonial period had sought to evolve a system of education qualitatively different from the colonial and the traditional. The alternative did not entirely reject the traditional or the colonial. It was an effort to reconcile tradition with modernity in which tradition was identified as the dominant literate culture and its religion and modernity as the culture of the capitalist West filtered through colonialism. The beginning of the quest for such reconciliation can be traced to the intellectual engagements in the early part of the nineteenth century. The genesis of modern ideas of education in India is generally attributed to the colonial system, but in reality they emerged in opposition to them. The Indian intelligentsia tried to evolve an alternative which was neither colonial nor traditional, although they borrowed ideas from both. Given the colonial hegemony, however, the alternative was still born, remaining mainly at the level of ideas without much of an impact on practice. As a result the modern educated intelligentsia was nurtured on the social and political values that the colonial system tried to disseminate, which continued to be an influential factor even after independence.

The values the colonial system tried to propagate had several internal contradictions. Although education was rooted in the basic necessity of providing an ideological foundation for the colonial rule, it also proved to be an effective vehicle for the communication of the liberal ideas generated in the mother country. The political and social values of liberalism thus available through education became an encompassing passion with the intelligentsia. Their intellectual and cultural world was underscored by these values. Initially this led to an almost complete neglect of traditional values, but they soon realized the importance of returning to the sources. This led to a dialogue between the traditional and the modern which was most articulate in the realm of values they sought to create in education.

In almost all attempts to reform education after independence, the importance of incorporating value education was given due importance. The committees and commissions appointed immediately after independence to recommend changes in education devoted considerable attention to moral, ethical and spiritual values. The University Education Commission headed by Dr. Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan constituted in 1948-49, although opposed religious instruction in educational institutions, was in favour of providing spiritual training in them. Both the Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) and the Committee on Religious and Moral Instruction (1959) took almost a similar view. The latter made specific recommendations to promote inter-religious understanding as well as the lives and ideas of religious leaders. In all these attempts, the values were attributed mainly to religious sources.

The recommendations of the Education Commission of 1964-66, chaired by Dr. D.S. Kothari, were a distinct advance over the earlier efforts. It approached the question of value education in the context of the national and international realities as well as its religious and secular dimensions. It recommended the study of comparative religion and made a distinction between religious education and education about religion and forbade the former in educational institutions. It also advocated secularism, social justice and equality and the integration of scientific outlook. 'This is what we envisage as the direction of our future development. We believe that India should strive to bring science and the values of the spirit together and in harmony, and thereby pave the way for the eventual emergence of a society which would cater to the needs of the whole man and not only to a particular fragment of his personality'.

A further elaboration of this tendency can be discerned in the National Education Policy of 1992. It unambiguously put forward the notion of a value education anchored in social and secular values:

> *'The growing concern over the erosion of essential values and an increasing cynicism in society has brought to focus the need for readjustments in the curriculum in order to make education a forceful tool for the cultivation of social and moral values.*
>
> *In our culturally plural society, education should foster universal and eternal values, oriented towards the unity and integration of our people. Such value education should help eliminate obscurantism, religious fanaticism, violence, superstition and fatalism.*
>
> *Apart from this combative role, value education has a profound positive content, based on our heritage, national and universal goals and perceptions. It should lay primary emphasis on this aspect.'*

The National Policy of Education made a definite departure in the field of value education. It drew attention to secular values and underlined the importance to bring together traditional and modern values. Unfortunately, this tendency to orient value education on secular-democratic lines received a set back thereafter. During this period two tendencies acquired prominence. First, to promote religion centered education by defining value education mainly in religious terms, and secondly, to discard the critical approach to tradition-modernity relationship and to privilege traditional values over all others.

The implication of this historical experience which underlined the incorporation of secular values and their attempted reversal is of importance in the formulation of value education. These two tendencies represented two different conceptions of Indian society. The former implied a plural society struggling to become multi-cultural whereas the latter attempted to turn a plural society into a mono-cultural one. India being a multi-religious society with a variety of cultural practices, one of the aims of value education should be to promote the former and discourage the latter. If so, value education has to be primarily

secular without, however, discarding the humanist elements in religious traditions. Such an approach would lead to two sets of values. The first, universal moral values like truth, honesty, and compassion and the second, values like secularism, democracy and equality. These two sets of values are not mutually exclusive, as for instance, moral elements are inherent in secular values. The incorporation of the latter in higher education would help create socially sensitive and responsible citizens.

Secular Values

The three pillars of secularism, to borrow the terminology used in the UNESCO report, are religious universalism, humanism and rationality. In a multi-religious society, universalism is one of the ideological bases of secularism. It would help to create harmony among religions by emphasizing the commonly shared religious truth which could lead to mutual respect of religions. Without respecting the religious rights of different religious denominations, a multi-religious society can hardly have peaceful existence. One of the travails of Indian society since the colonial times has been religious strife which is, among other things, a result of the absence of mutual respect. The faith in religious universalism, which is central to secularism, alone, can bring about a harmonious relation between different religions. Therefore, the core belief of universalism that all religions are essentially the same and differences are only in their external manifestations, is a necessary value to cultivate in a multi-religious society.

In all considerations of values in education, the multi-cultural and multi-religious character of Indian society figured prominently. The resolution of the likely contradictions arising out of this situation was located in the dissemination of secularism as a value through education. This naturally brought into discussion the place of religion in education. The overwhelming consensus has been in favour of education about religions as distinct from religious education. The distinction is extremely important as the former would reinforce universalism and the latter would strengthen particularism. Therefore, education about religions would serve as a means for the inculcation of secular values. Mahatma Gandhi had suggested that 'A curriculum of religious instruction should include a study of the tenets of faiths other than one's own. For this purpose the students should be trained to cultivate the habit of understanding and appreciating the doctrines of various great religions of the world in a spirit of reverence and broad minded tolerance.'

Secularism as the core value in education has multiple significance. It would help to define the social, cultural and political life of the nation. Secular consciousness which education can promote could bring about equality in all these spheres. India is generally considered a multi-cultural society. If equality is central to multi-culturalism, India qualifies only as a plural society which tolerates the existence of different cultures. Cultural equality in practice is yet a far cry. What secularism would strive for is the transition from the plural to the multi-cultural. Such a transition could be adversely affected if cultural homogenization is attempted. The tendency to privilege an invented mono-culture of the past tends to undermine the possible realization of muti-culturalism. In this context, therefore, imbibing secularism as a value in education assumes great

importance. In recent times both cultural homogenization as well as privileging the invented monoculture of the past gained ascendancy in the realm of higher education.

A major debility of Indian education has been that it has not so far succeeded in ensuring social justice to traditionally marginalized sections of society. The scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, women and minorities have not been able to derive adequately the benefits of modern education. The reasons are very many for this neglect. But it could be argued that it is because the society, even if sensitive to the value of equality and social justice in principle, is not prepared to implement them in practice. It is as much a matter of social consciousness and intellectual conviction as an economic and political problem. In the field of higher education, it has led to the exclusion of a large section of the population to gain desirable opportunities. Overcoming the prejudice inherent in this exclusion is possible through the internalization of the value of equality and social justice. This is contingent upon a qualitative change in social attitudes for which the idea of social equality needs to be firmly inscribed as a value in education.

In all discussions on educational values, there is a tendency to differentiate the secular values from the moral and the ethical. The assumption is that the secular and moral values are distinct and unrelated. A strict division between the two is unreal, not only because they are inter-related in practice but also because most of the moral and ethical values are also embedded in the latter. One of the foundations of secularism, for instance, is humanism which incorporates almost all moral and ethical values derived from religious teachings. This is not to argue that values derived from religious teachings need not be part of education, but to suggest that religion is not the only possible source for the incorporation of moral values like compassion, love, mutual respect etc. It is possible to incorporate such values from secular sources also.

An important aspect of the secular and democratic values is the dignity of human beings. The movements for emancipation and liberation were essentially efforts to recover and ensure human dignity. The renaissance and the anti-colonial movements were attempts in that direction. The renaissance, rooted in humanism, rationalism and universalism, was an attempt to create a new sense of social and cultural values, free from superstitions and uncritical social practices. Applying the criteria of reason to social and cultural practices, renaissance tried to create a new sense of values which would guide the social behavior of human beings and to provide a new personality to them. The national movement on the other hand, not only tried to free the nation from the shackles of colonialism, but also tried to create subjectivity different from the colonial. Much of the values they had fore-grounded have been lost to the society. Whether these values are to be retrieved and if so how, is perhaps a major challenge that higher education is facing today.

The purpose of education could be variously interpreted, ranging from the mundane to the spiritual. That it helps to understand the meaning of life, to realize the creative potential of human beings and to locate oneself in society, is beyond dispute. Today when the Indian society is entering a new phase of global participation, a variety of tensions are likely to emerge. One among them is related to the place of traditional values in a fast

changing social, cultural and intellectual climate. That they cannot be discarded is generally acknowledged. It is equally true that there is no place for revival. The solution is creative integration of the values of both for which higher education, as a sphere of critical interrogation, could pave the way.

Journal of Educational Planning and Administration
Volume XXI, No. 1, January 2007, pp. 69-85

BOOK REVIEWS

Karalay, G.N. (2005): ***Integrated Approach to Rural Development – Policies, Programmes and Strategies.*** pp. xxxi + 328. Price Rs. 600.

Shylendra, H. S. and Uma RANI (2005): ***Diversification and Sustainable Rural Livelihood – A Study in the Semi-Arid Villages of Western India***. pp. 208, Price Rs. 300. Concept Publishing Company, New Delhi.

The two books deal with the socio-economic conditions of people in rural India. Karalay's book pleads for an integrated approach to rural development by paying attention to basic education, healthcare and development of agriculture and infrastructure. It calls for an efficient delivery system and making adequate financial allocation for the social sector. On the other hand, Shylendra and Uma Rani's monograph deals with the linkages between occupational diversification and the concerns for livelihood in semi-arid areas of rural Gujarat. The study examines the impact of intervention – check dam and lift irrigation on the livelihood in rural area and its impact on urban migration.

In Integrated Approach to Rural Development, Karalay reports that during 2002, India ranked 127 among 177 countries in terms of Human Development Index (a composite of education, longevity and income). The author argues that since 72.72 per cent of India's population lives in rural areas, the relatively less progress in the field of education, healthcare and rural development is mainly responsible for the low ranking of India in terms of Human Development Index (HDI). So in any programme of rural development, there is a need to pay more attention to education, healthcare, agricultural and infrastructure development in rural India. This can be achieved by allocation of sufficient funds for rural development schemes; efficient public delivery system; commitment of political class; accountability of bureaucracy for proper implementation of the schemes and active participation of the community for whose benefits these schemes are designed play most crucial role in achieving the desired goals. The progress falls short of the expectation of the people and much needs to be done.

Michael Todaro opines that rural development encompasses: improvement in the level of living, including employment, education, health and nutrition, housing and a variety of social services, decreasing inequality in the distribution of rural incomes and rural-urban balances in income and economic opportunities; and increasing capacity of the rural sector to sustain and accelerate the pace of these developments (p-2). With time, the rural society is undergoing social transformation. Due to educational attainment and occupational mobility, joint family system is gradually breaking. Average agriculturist today is standing almost at the lowest rung of the ladder in terms of prosperity and status in society. For small farmers, agriculture is not viable. Moreover, to improve economic

status, the traditional service providers like carpenters, goldsmiths, artisans, cobblers etc are gradually leaving their professions in the villages and migrating to nearby cities/towns where there are better opportunities.

India began its journey of providing universal and free basic education with the incorporation of Article 45 in the Constitution. It calls for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years. Its will is further reflected in passing the free and compulsory education to children Bill 2003, making education a fundamental right for children in the age group of 6-14 years. No doubt, there has been progress in education, but the overall literacy rate (1999-2000) in rural areas is only 60 percent and the female literacy is 47 percent. There is a need to expand education in rural areas both in quantitative and qualitative terms. The dropout rate at elementary education level has declined from 78.3 percent in 1960-61 to 54.6 per cent in 2001-02. There are issues like inadequate infrastructure and high teacher absenteeism. The proportion of out-of-school children is still very high. Only 35 percent (as on 1 April 2003) of the children in the primary classes have been covered so far with cooked mid-day meals in the schools. The Prime Minister's Special Action Plan gave emphasis to the total eradication of illiteracy, equal access and opportunity of education up to the school leaving age, improvement in the quality of education at all levels and expansion and improvement of infrastructural facilities. There is a need to introduce vocational schools so that children can take up self-income generating schemes and a course in general rural science. One of the major constraints is the availability of adequate financial resources. It is pointed out that payback of higher investment in education is bound to be manifold. It is desirable to make education system more relevant, so that children and parents find the schooling system a joyful experience in their own natural and social environment.

No doubt, there has been progress in the development of rural areas, but it is far from satisfactory. Villages still lack basic living facilities and proper infrastructure. It is interesting to point out that Bharat Nirman has been conceived to build infrastructure, especially in rural India. A New Deal as a part of Bharat Nirman envisages higher investment in agriculture, assured irrigation facility and providing food and nutritional security, while augmenting farm incomes and employment as a sequel to launching of the second green revolution. There is a need to spread awareness about the various schemes initiated by government for the benefit of the people. The functioning of the Panchayati Raj institutions has been affected due to non-availability of funds. There is a need for the decentralization of power to the PRIs and to ensure that the money sanctioned for the Panchayats will go to them and benefit the persons for whom the scheme is actually formulated.

Agriculture is India's lifeline, as 65-70 percent of its population depends upon agriculture for their livelihood. Farmers still largely depend on the vagaries of nature as there is not much progress in the enhancement of irrigation facilities. Adoption of farm technology can improve the yield from agriculture. This can be achieved through the availability of good quality seeds, cheap and easy credit facility together with extension services. It is a matter of concern that investment in agriculture as a percentage of total

plan outlay is steadily decreasing despite agriculture itself being not self-sustaining. For sustainable agriculture, S. Arumajetsam and S. Balji point out that the action plan may include: limited use of chemical fertilizers and pesticides, efficient use of water, preservation of bio-diversity and careful approach to biotechnology. Today's need is to combine production with sustainability. It calls for a new orientation for extension workers, agriculture departments, agriculture universities and research centres (*The Hindu Survey of India Industry*, 2005). Recently, M.S. Swaminathan has stressed the need to restore faith and pride in the farming and for retaining the rural youth in the villages by offering viable farm and non-farm livelihood options. The farmers feel that either a plateau has been reached in the farm production or agriculture had become a risky low-output venture in many places. The problem could best be addressed by developing the rural areas as real-time work centres offering farm and non-farm entrepreneurial opportunities. It is suggested that by retaining the farming and home science graduates in the villages, the nation can easily achieve the desired technological upgradation of farm techniques (*The Hindu,* June 8, 2006). Another serious problem concerns the extreme step of committing suicide by the farmers. This is attributed to poor crop yield or too much indebtedness and other economic and psychological reasons. As per Home Ministry's country wide, estimates of between 1995 and 2003, 9.26 lakh farmers are reported to have committed suicide. To tide over the problem, the farmers need immediate monetary assistance. It calls for a shift from monocropping to multi-cropping in the drought affected areas. For supplementing income, the proposal is to help farmers initiate livestock, dairying, poultry and horticulture ventures with enhanced subsidy. The extension services are to be strengthened and marketing opportunities should be enhanced. It is a matter of concern that agricultural output has declined considerably since the years 2000 and concerted efforts at all levels have to be made to reach a targeted growth of 4 percent.

Health services have been given an important place in the fundamental rights, but India is far from realizing the goal of providing basic healthcare to all. Healthcare should comprise both preventive and curative aspects. In rural areas, health services are provided through a network of integrated health and family welfare delivery system. The National Rural Healthcare Mission was launched on 12 April 2005, its main aim being to provide accessible, affordable, accountable, effective and reliable primary, healthcare facilities, especially to the poor and vulnerable sections of the population. At the district and village level, the institutional framework of the total sanitation campaign will be integrated with the District Health Mission and Village Health and Sanitation Committee. There is a problem of getting doctors and other supporting staff who may be willing to serve in the rural areas and retaining them. The lack of adequate financial resources and other strategic support to the health centres are major constraints for equipping the health centres, and expansion and maintenance of the health services.

The expenditure on the social sector by the Centre amounts to 10 to 11 percent of the total spending. The expenditure by the Centre and the States together amounts to 20 percent. The UNDP recommends a public expenditure ratio of 25 percent. It suggests an

allocation ratio of 40 percent for social services. The author suggests that India should in fact go past 40 percent mark given its poverty level. Similarly, the allocation to agriculture and allied activities should be 20 percent instead of 10 to 11 percent of the total budgetary allocation. The inadequate financial allocation to social and agricultural sector is the major constraint for achieving the desired progress of these sectors. For rural development, progress in the areas of education, healthcare and raising rural income level is most crucial. The efforts of all the people and the various organizations involved in the programme have to be integrated so that they produce strong synergy to accomplish the gigantic task.

H. S. Shylendra and Uma Rani's monograph attempts to understand the links among growing occupational diversification, changing conditions of local natural resources and, the issues concerning sustainability of rural livelihood system in semi arid areas in Gujarat state. The study forms part of a larger collective research project carried out at the Institute of Rural Management, Anand, in two phases during 1994-2000. The focus of the study is also on capturing the dimensions of rural-urban linkages influencing the nature of diversification and to know about the linking and working conditions of the migrant at places of their migration.

In the methodology and approach followed for understanding the phenomenon of diversification, the authors write that the livelihood framework adopted, depicts the livelihood system, be that of an individual, family or the community in the form of a Nine Square Mandala encompassing a nine-fold focus, ranging from the purely materialistic, outer realistic like physical resources, skills socio-economic space and institutions to the non-materialistic inner realities of life, like emotions, orientations and attitudes. Livelihood is viewed as a holistic concept which encompasses forces operating both on psychic and physical planes having a bearing on the survival, identity and continuity of the system. For studying migration, it is necessary not only to analyze the local food and employment situation of the migrants, but also the cultural and emotional factors attached with the movement of labour. Livelihood has also been seen in terms of opportunities and strategies available for livelihood improvement. The sustainability of a livelihood system is the ability of the system to cope with the stresses and shocks, and at the same time to maintain and enhance its productivity or performance on a long term basis. Occupational diversification has become a major survival strategy for overcoming poverty and vulnerability arising out of agricultural uncertainty and backwardsness, population pressure and resource degradation. From a development perspective, diversification is attributed to economic growth and prosperity.

The survey was conducted in three semi-arid villages of Mahudi, Mahunala and Bodiya in Gujarat state. The first two villages are inhabited by the Tribal Bhil population while Bodiya is a non-tribal multi-caste village. The data was generated through questionnaire, Participatory Rural Appraisal Tools (PRA), indepth case studies and informal group discussions. Both male and female members of the households were covered. Discussions were also held with the migrants at the place of their migration. In Mahudi village, an intervention made by SWDF, was of harnessing the village river by

way of building a check-dam. Some people from the village were covered by intervention while some were not covered by the intervention.

A majority of tribal house holds in Mahudi and Mahunala villages are faced with the constraints of declining local resource base to support their livelihood and there is lack of any suitable local alternative. So, distress seasonal migration to places of assured employment seems to have become a major support for livelihood survival. The avenues of livelihood for these people are between their own meager agricultural base and distance seasonal migration. Apart from ensuring food, and security, other social practices of the Bhils are playing a major role in determining the magnitude of diversification. Generally, households adopt distress migration as a compulsive strategy without much scope for any consolidation and advancement. Most of the migrants are involved in the construction industry (building and roads). They are living and working in adverse condition in their place of migration.

In 1997, SWDF helped in building a check-dam across the village rivers in Mahudi for harvesting water for agriculture purposes. It took imitative to organize Joint Forest Management (JFM) for regenerating the denuded forests in the village through people's participation. There was not much difference from the intervention and non-intervention area of the village regarding seasonal migration among the male members. However, there was a significant difference in the case of women. From the intervention area, only a small population of about 6-3 percent migrated, but from the non-intervention area, it was about 65 percent. With the availability of fodder and increased income in the intervention area, the households are able to acquire more livestock draft, as well as milch animals.

In Bodiya village, in the non-farm sector diamond polishing has emerged as a dominant form of diversification, thereby helping upper and middle strata of the society to supplement their livelihood from agriculture. But the poor have been compelled to diversify in distress and are mainly engaged in construction work. The authors point out that the benefits farm agriculture have been garnered by those in the upper rung of the socio-economic hierarchy. The landless and the marginal farmers have gained to a lesser extent. The rich have been able to further consolidate their position through diversification; the poor have been able to manage their survival.

There is a strong urban-rural linkage in the occupational diversification in the three villages. A kind of mutual dependence of the rural and urban livelihood can be seen in the process. The urban economy is looking for unskilled and cheap labour and the villages are ready to supply such labour force. The authors assert that though diversification has helped in supplementing the rural livelihood in semi-arid areas, a major negative aspect of the diversification is the unfavourable terms of employment prevalent for the rural labour force. The employment is casual and none of the protective measures have come to the rescue of the labour force. The living and working conditions of the migrant labourers are deplorable. But, still these activities are pursued in the absence of any feasible alternative available to households from these areas. The authors conclude that the regeneration of natural resources (land, water and forest) can have

positive impact in brining down distress migration. There is also need to improve their local socio-economic conditions and eventually their bargaining capacity. Interventions in the urban areas for improving the living and working conditions of migrant workers also become important. There is a need to protect the interests of these people through legislative and other measures.

In sum, the two books have highlighted the conditions of peasants and farmers and have taken stock of the various schemes initiated by the government from time to time to improve the lot of the persons who are living in distress. Recently, Ramesh Bali suggested that the need of a long term comprehensive plan to bring together cooperatives social welfare and development that can improve the situation. Debt relief is a prerequisite. But to get farmers diversity, we will need a lot of investments in agricultura infrastructure, post-harvest technology and marketing with special attention to supply chain management (Hindustan Times, July 9, 2006). The books will be of interest to students and teachers of agriculture, policy makers and scientific community who wish to help the country to move ahead with an eye to attain the Vision-2020.

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Janet, H. CHRISPEELS (2004): ***Learning to Lead Together – The Promise and Challenge of Sharing Leadership.*** SAGE Publications India Pvt. Ltd.; New Delhi; ISBN 0-7619-2886-3; Paperback, Pages: 389, Price $39.95.

The book, *Learning to Lead Together the Promises and Challenges of Sharing Leadership,* is a very timely publication on new models of administration. Education administration aligned with the pattern of industrial hierarchical model is no longer considered efficient due to fast expanding rate of knowledge and emerging requirements of quick changes. Moreover, there is shift in focus from 'education for all' to 'learning by all'. This shift to learning requires collective thinking and leading together.

The book is an outcome of various case studies collected as part of the longitudinal (six years) research study conducted by California School Leadership Academy Program. Few case studies are reflections of the senior administrators on the various issues of shared leadership.

The concept of Shared Leadership is presented in a real world context. It also includes voices of those who oppose it. The book documents pathways and pitfalls that may be encountered in the process of shared leadership.

The Shared Leadership is defined as combined vision and combined decision making where principals, teachers, support staff, and in some cases community members and students come together in leadership teams, governing bodies, or committees to jointly make decisions required to manage the school and improve learning environment.

Shared Leadership approach is contrary to the traditional top-to-bottom approach followed in schools. The case studies highlight enabling environmental factors and required interpersonal dynamics for practicing shared leadership to achieve the educational objective. The factors are: Open Discussion (chapter 8), Clear Thinking (chapters 5, 6,7,8,10), Involvement (chapters 2,3,4,9,11), Preparation and Professional Development (chapters 12, 13,14), Autonomy (chapters 2,7) and Policy Directives (chapters 3, 9).

Each case study is a description of success and failures due to the presence and absence of enabling factors. The book is a fine documentation of the concept of shared leadership. However, it lacks the strength of pure research. Each case study has different variables, its own procedure for collection of the data and its own analysis pattern, and description of issues and outcomes. The process, however, has not been documented; it will make it difficult for the prospective researchers to duplicate the study. Each chapter has list of references at the end, which are not quoted in the text. Many findings are reflections of the administrators; these do not emerge as a consequence of a practice or through the interpretation of the data. Chapters do not follow any standard format. Information on contributors is duplicated in the beginning of the book as well as in the beginning of quite a few chapters.

There are 18 contributors holding different positions as practitioners in the field of educational administration. The editor of the book has done a marvelous job of not only editing the various case studies but also weaving each one wonderfully into the chapters, namely 'Overview Section' and also in the last section on 'Conclusion'.

It is a valuable book, and is a very good account of sustained efforts made by the teams trying to practice shared leadership. It will encourage writers to base their works on research data rather than on contemplation. The case studies are so very close to life that any administrator can identify himself with them. It is a rich source of learning for prospective administrators, and good resource material for teachers and students of educational administration.

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KAUR, Jasprit Soni (2005): ***Governance of Panchayati Raj,*** Authorspress; Delhi; pp. 199, Price not mentioned.

In large countries like India the governance through the centralized approach is neither possible nor feasible and desirable. It is heartening to note that our country has a long history of governance at the grassroots level by the local authorities. However, after independence of the country serious attempts have been made to create local bodies for

ensuring what is known as local self-governance. Several Committees and Commissions have been appointed by the Government of India to create the local bodies at the district and sub-district levels. As a result three-tier system of local self-government has been created in many states of the country. It includes the elected bodies, namely Zila Panchayat / Zila Parishad at the district level, Panchayat Samiti at the block level and Gram Panchayat at the village level. The responsibility of governing the social sectors has been assigned to these local bodies. The 73rd and 74th amendments to the Constitution of India have reiterated the role of these local bodies to be activated (or created) in the rural and urban areas. This whole system of local self-government is known as Panchayati Raj.

The book under review studies the role of Pancahyati Raj institutions in political empowerment of tribals. It mainly focuses on the tribals of Rajasthan state where three districts have been chosen for the study and these are Udaipur, Dungarpur and Banswara. For the study, five Panchayat Samitis from these three districts have been selected. These five Panchayat Samitis are all from the Tribal Sub Plan area. It analyses the responses given by the elected members of these selected Panchayats on various issues related to education, health and employment. From these 5 Panchayat Samitis three Village Panchayats from each of these Samitis have been taken for the study. The study thus covers 15 Village Panchayats representing both progressive and backward ones. The study is based on the interview of 66 elected members that include one Zila Pramukh, 5 Pradhans, 15 Sarpanchs and 45 Ward Panchs.

While discussing emerging pattern of tribal leadership, the author writes that Panchayati Raj is the new vehicle of local self-government and of development in the district. Membership of Panchayati Raja Institutions (PRI) serve a dual purpose in developing the personality of individuals. On the other hand, through these institutions, they are able to relate themselves to the political system and at the same time develop a participatory citizenship syndrome. On becoming member of an institution, the citizens feel protected and close to the institutions of politics and government. They develop self-confidence that is pre-requisite of a modern citizen. PRIs teach individuals the basics of democratic system and how to perform a mediating role between the individual and the government.

Education plays an important role in the social development as it influences the society in creating a social order founded on the values of freedom, social justice and equal opportunity. The author found that most of the tribals believe that their children can progress only if they are educated and it would also be advantageous to their community. It is therefore opined by the author that the goal and the objectives of education at different stages and spheres are likely to be reoriented and that is why programmes of educational reconstruction would constitute the major plank of educational policy. We need to modify our education system to promote lateral thinking and innovation. The spread of education should be taken as a social mission. There should be an intensive effort towards exploring as to what will be the best possible way of doing it, which could

also help in the mission of sharing of information on gender equality, and campaigning against discrimination.

The book examines and evaluates the understanding of PR leaders about the concept of Panchayati Raj, its goal and the points of its success and failure. In this regard, it is found that there is need of instructing the members thoroughly about their duties and functions as many of them have poor level of literacy and poor enlightenment in various matters. The comprehensive training programmes can improve upon the confidence and capacity of rural leaders. Though there are training centers established for their training but a few trainings imparted to them do not seem to be sufficient to build their capability.

In the case of Panchayati Raj leaders, according to author, it can be observed that the commitment, dedication and involvement of elected leaders can play a vital role in educating the rural mass because the majority of people is illiterate and ignorant about their welfare. This is because no socio-economic change is possible without a suitable political structure to mobilize the local people and involve them in participatory work, especially in a country of magnitude and complexities like India.

It is suggested that in the Panchayati Raj system, the accountability must be strengthened. The Gram Sabha is envisaged to play a significant role in providing for people's participation in the Gram Panchayat activities. It is also intended to ensure transparency in decisions and actions of the Panchayat, thereby strengthening its public accountability.

The author suggests that the awareness building among the people needs to be given top priority because the success of elected members depends on the people's involvement in the planning process. It has been observed that very little has been achieved and much more remains to be done. The author is of the view that maximum wellbeing of the population can be achieved if individuals are allowed to plan their own activities according to their needs.

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ROGERS, Alan (2004): ***Non Formal Education – Flexible Schooling or Participatory Education?*** Hong Kong, China. The University of Hong Kong. ISBN 962-8093-30-4. (Paperback), pp. 316; Price: not mentioned.

Such a book on non-formal education that is under review, was long overdue. It is authored by a distinguished scholar in the field, Alan Rogers, who has both teaching experience and practical exposure of the area for about there decades. It is the first comprehensive systematic study of NFE on an international scale since the 1980s. The book delves into the emergence of NFE in 1970s, its further growth, decline in late 1980s and '90s and its re-emergence in the recent years along with newer concepts like lifelong

education. The book is divided into four parts. Part I sets the broad context of discussion and analysis by deliberating upon the varied perspectives of development in the educational context. In Part II the discussion moves on to analysis of the different strands of discourse on the specific theme of the book, viz. NFE. Part III covers the trajectory of meaning of NFE as reflected in its actual practice in the third world countries. Finally, an appreciable attempt is made in Part IV to reconceptualise NFE to cover the whole range of its varied practices today. Thus the analysis in the book encapsulates both the aspects of theory and practice of NFE.

The theoretical frame of the study is quite robust which is not commonly found in the studies on the subject. The author has quite ably positioned the debates regarding education/NFE in broader development paradigms, such as modernization, post-colonial theory, and post-modernist/participatory development theory which emphasize respectively on deficit (on the part of underdeveloped), disadvantage (oppression and exploitation of the underdeveloped), and diversity (local nature of problems). Varied diagnoses of problems in these perspectives suggest different solutions in case of development in general as well as concerning NFE. Modernization theory advocates meeting deficit by external agencies (external to people) through providing, for instance, technical universal skills to people (illiterates) and incorporating them into the dominant system which is reproduced again and again. Post-colonial paradigm suggests empowerment of the people which involves resistance to incorporation and promotion of social transformation as amply reflected in highly popular Freire's concept of conscientisation. But post-modernist perspective stands for respecting difference and diversity in provision at cultural level which involve local level participatory development.

The author makes a distinction, like some other scholars, between the discourse of NFE and its actual practice. The discourse analysis covers all major streams of thought in the debate on NFE. This includes a comparative analysis of the views of advocates, ideologues, empiricists, and pragmatists on NFE. It is clearly demonstrated how these streams differ from one another. For example, advocates view NFE as all educational and training programmes organized outside the formal education system. Ideologues see it as the antithesis of all formal education. Empiricists treat it as similar to but separate from formal schooling. In pragmatic strand it is regarded as taking place within the formal system implying minimal distinction from the formal in terms of approaches to teaching and learning (p131). So it is clear that there is no consensus in the discourse on NFE. The analysis of the practice of NFE focuses on the third world countries and ranges from very small and local projects run by NGOs and community-based organizations to large-scale standardized and certificated national programmes meant for adults or children.

The drying up of the flow of discourse is noted in late '80s and '90s due to a sense of disillusion with NFE as it could not fulfill the great hopes of the reformers and others had already an ambiguous attitude towards it. Ideological and political factors are also said to have contributed to the erosion of interest in NFE. For instance, some viewed NFE as a site of social contest and as a 'site of ideological struggle', involving 'the struggle for

harmony in civil society' (p. 137). Others saw it coopted as a tool of global capitalism, adapting workers within the confines of the global economy and trapping weaker countries in a second-rate educational programme. It may be noted that many private firms extend support to NFE programmes that 'teach future workers specifically what they need to know in order to perform in semi-skilled or skilled jobs' (Simmons 1980, cited at p. 137). It is stated that NFE has continued to be "an arena of contestation, some forms of NFE 'challenging capitalist hegemony' and other forms of NFE promoting 'learning and action seeking to reinforce the established order of power" (Youngman 2000, cited at p. 137). It is quite understandable that those who treat NFE as a tool for resisting the globalization of the economy and a way of waging class struggle, do not find sympathy in the currently dominant discourse in this field.

The author examines in detail the state of NFE today - the trajectory of its meaning. The term is found to be used in different ways by different peoples/agencies. Currently the most vocal ones in the discourse of NFE are mainly governments, donors and NGOs. The views of users and practitioners of these programmes are not much heard. NFE covers a wide range of educational activities today: a wide range of different small-scale educational activities with different curricula for adults but useful to attain national development goals; a government controlled/coordinated national system providing adults with literacy and/or vocational training or children with a simplified and flexible but yet uniform alternative basic education; a province of NGOs 'outside of the formal (state) education system'; an attempt to create ideal forms of schooling for children (different from the formal schools), etc. So, NFE programmes reflect a wide variety of meanings with no clear unifying principle underlying them. But the dominant trend today is that NFE has become more focused on children and there is increasing interest of government in this. Its concern with adults has become significantly diluted. The role of government in NFE is changing in line with the agenda of globalisation - from a direct provider to a facilitator of NFE through entering into partnership with NGOs for delivery. '... State is seeking to coopt civil society to its goals' (p228). State's partnering with NGOs/CSOs makes education localised rather than global. This has the dimension of decentralization and democratization of education. 'NFE has become a useful tool of the state at a local level' (p. 229). NFE for child education has been co-opted as a means to meet the state's Education for All commitments. NFE is no more viewed as a challenge. Increasing institutionalization of NFE is said to reflect its capture by formal education.

Having analysed the trajectory of NFE from a historical angle and its current practices/meanings, the author moves to re-conceptualizing it to clear the existing conceptual fog. Given the wide variation under NFE, he finds the dichotomy approach (formal vs nonformal) of no use. He avers, 'It would be impossible, indeed pointless, to give this concept a single, universal definition...' (Hamadache 1993, cited at p. 259). He adopts a new perspective called 'contexualisation' paradigm and views different streams of education as a continuum. He locates two poles/extremes in education. Formal education is regarded as one pole which is high on standardization and de-contexualisation because of being universal and requiring the students to adapt to it fully.

Another pole is participatory education, which is high on contexualisation/localizatior, lacks standardization and is learner-centred in terms of meeting their needs, aspirations and vision. In between these two poles, the author locates the third point on the continuum and calls it 'flexible schooling' which is characterized by standardized educational programmes adapted in limited ways to meet local needs. Given its wide range and reasonable distance from the formal system, he views NFE as ranging from flexible schooling to participatory education (fully contexualised) i.e. covering both. But he finally defines NFE as 'that education which is partially de-contexualised and partially contexualised (flexible schooling)' (p. 261). It is justifiably held that the contexualisation paradigm would offer a useful tool of analysis and also a useful tool of planning in education. Using this, one may examine and decide in what respect an education programme is or could be made contexualised or decontexualised. The author considers education as dynamic and each individual learning group occupying a dynamic position on the continuum, moving in either direction i.e. formal and participatory. He values both formal education and NFE. 'To be fully effective, all education will need to have both contexualised and decontexualised material and approaches' (p270). But he adds that 'Current NFE needs to move towards the participatory end of the continuum to become more individualized to the needs of different groups of learners in content, teaching learning materials, methodologies and assessment as well as in timing and locatior' (p. 263).

No doubt the book is a commendable work on NFE in recent years, both from conceptual angle and its embeddedness in practice. However, there are some limitations. The subtitle of the book seems to portray the dilemma of NFE as 'Flexible Schooling or Participatory Education?' But in the final analysis, NFE is located by the author on a continuum covering both flexible schooling and participatory education, not in an either/or format as in the sub-title. Further, the contexualisation paradigm locates the two poles of education in the continuum as formal and participatory. But the author also talks of formal and 'informal' education as two poles. It would have been better to avoid the term informal in the conceptual formulation for the sake of clarity, as terms informal and participatory are and can be used with different connotations. Moreover, the re-conceptualisation made in the book seems to be epistemologically empiricist (not in the sense the term empiricist is used in the book) in thrust as it is aimed at covering the wide variety of NFE programmes in practice. The radical thrust of NFE prevalent in certain conceptualization and programmes is equated with the other mainstream status-quist programmes because of a linear thinking inherent in the continuum framework. The re-conceptualisation can be said to be empirically robust but morally/ethically largely status-quoist. Despite these limitations, the book could be an essential read for teachers and students of comparative education courses in higher education, and also useful to researchers, policy makers and others having interest in the area.

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SEEKAR, G. (Reprint 2004): ***Students' Indiscipline: A Myth.*** Karpagan Charity Trust. Reprint; Asian Printers Coimbatore, pp. 146, price: not mentioned.

The author of the book under review is not aggressive towards escalated issues of students but he is bold enough to advocate and condemn the mazes of educational implications in terms of elevated unrest haunting and hovering like a menacing cloud over all educational institutions. The advice is judged by the results not by intention. Since the education is a progressive discovery of our own ignorance, no institution of higher learning is free from students' agitation and indiscipline. Education is both means and ends. The entire gloom and doom of educational system as experienced by the author depicts the progressive deterioration related to the indiscipline and brazen corruption for which only students are blamed and made responsible for dismal educational environment which ultimately destroy the social progress and human will. Parents, teachers, students and administrators along with the government should follow the footprints of value education in order to live creative life. We must lose our fear of being wrong and remember that good faith is the foundation stone of justice. The correction does much but encouragement does more. All sorts of agitations are characterized by negative approach and development of students. Error is the discipline through which we advance. Hence, the creation of good faith, norms, mutual understanding and courage are fruit bearing and sound much, but knowledge without integrity is dangerous and dreadful. The greatest discovery of next best generation is that human being can alter his life by altering his mental attitude. The author views life as a continuous learning experience and process. "He that never changes the opinion, never corrects mistakes and will never be wiser on the morrow than he is today." In the age of new millennium where pursuit of excellence is a way of life, not only this but the unexamined life is also not worth living. "It is not possible to fight beyond your strength even if you strive". The government is not in a position to lend priority to realize the educated talents and outstanding wisdom for the national building.

The author deserves congratulations for mustering courage as the ladder on which all virtues of the problems mount to sponsor either student-specific or student-related issues creating positive mutual understanding and being close to each other. The closeness between teacher and taught as well as other personnel is linked to the all dimensions and magnitudes of indisciplinary actions, reactions and interactions. The explored exemplification, and overview of the refuge uneasy situation, field work, documents, records, interviews contributed a lot to clarify and declare as a grave digger through forceful attempts to generate sustained rapt attention and interest so that acquainted complexities of educational segment may disclose with wisdom duly and properly. The students feel a guilt of all sorts of hurdles linger longer but the responsive anti-elements and policy for hapless students guided by mob mentality not by sentiment need humanitarian assistance. Unknown linkage across the demarcation line of norms and

ideologies moral and morale face onerous obligation for continuous ethnic and social space. The present education system and policy lacks clarified objectives and students are misguided and illusioned resulting frustration, despair, distress and union activities. The author collects and delivers concerned activities and exercise on the subject of care and hospitality in lucid style in liberal and logical presentation and balance the modern and progressive approach to strike the dilema caused by mental upheaval of interaction of students who face barriers in smooth running of day today reactionary attitudes in shaping social life. But the success is not fatal. Discipline is not only obedience but also self-control beyond freedom and social progress. Indiscipline is psychologically a defect in character. Increased acts of indiscipline includes disorder, discourtesy, mis-behaviour, riots, strikers damaging activity, disruption of the educational process, general elimination of peace and order and protests of all kinds such as demonstrations, gheraos for grievances. Indiscipline includes anxiety over life and alter related causes which cause students' unrest, disturbances, depression and insecurity.

As a matter of fact darkness can not wipe out darkness but light can do it. Sen (1971 opined that enormous and disproportionate growth of higher education could be cause for unrest.

There are three chapters in this book. Science without Humanity, Commerce without Morality and education without character are not only useless but also dangerous as the author followed and stepped further. Chapter 1 dealt with the issues of indiscipline among spoilt students as threat and misconducts. The author tried his best to curb educational disturbances. The agitative learning causes realized power of student unity which causes mass moral turpitude and collective defiance as well as inappropriate grievance classified into five types such as political, economic, moral, educational and protests for fun. The analytical approach is interlinked with castes, sex, religion, and reservation policy. They are responsive and responsible factors in creating arbitrary and malafide intention along with negative identification and self-control, dis-obedience conflict between individual freedom and social progress, inadequate infrastructure resulting odes and odds. There are certain and several factors alienated from decision making process of the institutions. The students are unable to find the correct solution. The unconstitutional alliance leads to the erosion of traditional authority. The college teachers require a wider perspective and must learn to achieve better levels of performance. They lack correct perception of the dynamics of adolescent behaviour of students. Teacher may be black sheeps but all are not blamed. The magnitude of the students' indiscipline analysed as the case study of particular incidents.

Chapter II includes responses, analysis and presentation having five parts. The analytical approach, discussion and the response of the students sound march. The first part is practical enough to comprise of responsiveness of students' interviews in the field work. Second parts are analysed combined with views, factors and group discussion. The third part is promising to connect empirically. The fourth part envisages the statement of discussion and specific research duly conveyed. Fifth part enlists the suggestions given by the respondents.

The author is practical enough to clarify the gloomy picture of the existing problems and remedial measures. Though the author is partially successful in the profile, research work, investigation and survey including 79 cases identified and listed influential scale value of 335. To cure any disease needs to find out the root to uproot and eradicate the problems of the present social set up in which parents and teachers are two distinct entities to realize their own role. But the trend and attitude failed to ease disrupt mind. The moderate and significant role of love and affection cannot be ignored at any cost. The negative atmosphere needs radical change, step, suggestions to establish calmed environment to restore internally.

Chapter III The author is active enough to discover the root cause of all hurdles to hinder the environment. The quality education, proper direct and effective teaching, rules and regulations, instructions and learning are part and parcel. "Great sprits have always encountered violent opposition from mediocre mind". Everyone realizes that true independence and freedoms can only exist in doing what is right. Honesty pays but it does not pay enough to suit some people. It is a fact that where is there dignity unless there is honesty. The author analysed the prominent dimensions of unending conflict of students face social challenge designed by events far from fair, just and rational. It needs peace, brotherhood, mutual understanding and respect. The author is strong, confident and benevolent champion of democratic peace lover and covers shattered events of uneasy life. He indicates to tailor legal advice, patience and courtesy as well as protected wall, job oriented education and reduced unemployment and poverty.

The author admits questionable conclusion based on a dubious interpretation in the field work. His presentation, treatment and statement of the indispensable subject is very much contextual for all concern to education because discipline is the bridge between goal and accomplishment. After all, the writer is rational and assumes the perfection as myth in reality.

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James J.F. FOREST and Philip G. ALTBACH (eds.): ***International Handbook of Higher Education.*** *Part One: Global Themes and Contemporary Challenges* and *Part Two: Regions and Countries.* (Springer International Handbooks of Education Vo. 18) Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer, 2006, pp.1067 + Index, (hard bound), Price: €399.00/US$499.00/£307.00, ISBN: 978-1-4020-4011-5

One of the fastest expanding sectors of the 20th century, more particularly of the later half of the 20th century and of the present decade of the 21st century is higher education. Student numbers in higher education, institutions of higher education, teachers and expenditures on higher education – all are experiencing a rapid, rather an unprecedented

growth. The growth is also characterised by an increased level of diversity, with more and more private institutions coming up in such large numbers that the relative size of the public higher education is fast approaching negligible levels in some of the developing countries and in some of the specific areas of study. The growth in general and growth in diversity in particular is also helped by the revolution in information and communications technology. We have not only private – for-profit and not-for-profit – institutions, but also different types of institutions offering higher education through distance mode, including on on-line and offshore. The strong wave of globalisation and internationalisation of higher education is yet another important feature of the recent growth in higher education that influences and in turn is influenced by revolution in communication technology. These developments in higher education along with developments in socioeconomic policies and changing political environment have naturally caused significant changes in the very nature and scope of higher education, its functions, activities and related dimensions – creation and dissemination of knowledge, the academic profession, teaching and research practices, student activism, governance, and almost every aspect of higher education. The *International Handbook on Higher Education*, edited by Forest and Altbach presents an excellent collection of articles covering many such and related facets of higher education in the contemporary world society.

The 1,114-page two-volume set, produced in the series of the Springer International Handbooks of Education, consists of 55 well-researched articles on a variety of themes on higher education in the world. As the Editors rightly claim, the *Handbook* is 'the product of thoughtful research and analysis.' The 55 articles have been arranged into two volumes – a thematic volume, and a volume of studies on regions and countries. The first one contains 19 papers, covering themes such as academic profession, quality assurance, curricula, doctoral research, finances, private for-profit institutions, governance, administration, management, student politics, technology, globalisation, internationalisation etc. There are also some stimulating articles on the history of universities, changing nature of universities from elitist to mass-based and from traditional to modern ones, teaching in higher education, etc.

The regional perspectives, covering the Arab world, Central and Eastern Europe, Sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America, Scandinavia, and South-East Asia, and the 27 country studies in Volume II, in all, provide very useful and insightful comparative perspectives on trends and challenges in higher education. In the section on regional perspectives, there is an interesting article on developing countries by David Bloom and Henry Rosovsky, and another on the Bologna process and European integration by Hans de Wit. There is not only an article on Sub-Saharan Africa by Damtew Teferra, but also there is another on Francophone Sub-Saharan Africa by Juma Shabani. The 27 countries included also cover North America, Latin America, Asia-Pacific, Africa and Europe. Though one can complain that a large number of countries are not covered, which is not possible in a volume of this size, it may have to be noted that the attempt has been not

only to present a flavour of the regional perspectives, but also to capture some sub-regional and diverse national perspectives.

Handbook of this kind cannot have a single focus, except that it is focused on higher education. But it is important to note that almost all the contributors strongly emphasise the importance of higher education, critically look at the current status of higher education as it got transformed over the years historically in various parts of the globe, examine the future scenarios of higher education, review the development strategies that are being adopted and consider the need to strengthen higher education to serve the society better, so that it fulfils its traditional functions as well as modern development goals.

The volume is indeed very rich with in-depth, scholarly and analytical contributions made by a many as 50 serious researchers to various aspects of higher education. The empirical insights the various contributors provide are valuable and educational planners and researchers would find the *Handbook* immensely useful.

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