

## CHAPTER I

### THE PROCESS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIA

#### 1.1 Introduction

Now-a-days we are everywhere struck up by a deep sense of general awareness of the importance of higher education for national welfare and an uneasy sense of the inadequacy of the present system. It is generally believed and expected that the university should provide the best type of teaching over the entire field of education. But unfortunately the present day universities are not functioning according to the expectations of the society. The existing position in higher education has been aptly described by the Education Commission Report (1964-66) in the following words.

'Over a large area of Education, the content and quality are inadequate for our present needs and future requirements, and compare unfavourably with the average standards in other educationally advanced countries... In many of the weaker colleges and universities, a majority of teachers teach mechanically and listlessly... The situation with regard to the students is no better. Many now come from comparatively or entirely uneducated homes and are ill-prepared at the secondary level to undertake, genuine university work : they have little experience of independent study; their

curiosity is unquickened and learning for them is mainly a matter of mechanical memorization. There is, as a rule, little discussion of intellectual matters with their teachers or fellow students; Their main duty is considered to be to attend uninteresting lectures usually given in a language which they understand inadequately.'

Of course, the University may not be in a position to give what the society wants, but at least it has to provide what the society needs. But they are, it seems, failing in their duty in providing either of them. Why are our universities failing in discharging their duties ? Have our university standards deteriorated and if so, what remedial measures should be taken to improve them ? So many factors are responsible and contributing to this institutional lag in the universities. But according to Niblett (1969), 'It is not too late to shape and reshape educational systems under the pressure of expanding social demands. Strong institutions have come up and the weak no worse.' A Gestalt view of the historical development of higher education is taken in order to study the problem in depth.

In order to study the historical development of higher education in India, the total period has been divided into 6 periods to study the problem in detail. Those periods are : (1) Ancient Period (2) Mediaeval Period (3) British / period upto 1835

(4) British

/Period: from Macaulay's Minute to Wood's despatch (1835-1854).

(5) British Period from 1854 to 1947, and (6) The period since Independence till Present day.

## 1.2 Ancient Period

Ancient India was famous for learning. The Parishads of Brahmins learned in the Vedas and Dharmasutras probably attracted a number of students from different parts of the world. Dr.F.W.Thomas (1891) frankly admitted the greatness and influence of Indian ancient education as, '

'Education is no exotica in India. There is no country where love of learning had so early an origin or has exercised so lasting and powerful influence.'

Well organised centres of learning were developed later of which Taksasila and Nalanda got world reputation. In fact Indian culture was at its Zenith during this period. Numerous foreign scholars and students came to this country to drink deep at the fountain of her culture. Other countries like China, Egypt and Babylonia rank with India as being the cradle of ancient civilization, but no other country has left behind such enduring marks of heritage as India. While writing the introduction to its report, the University Education Commission (1948) explained the system of education at Taksasila and Nalanda as;

'The curriculum at Takshasila appears to have included the Vedas and Vedangas as also the 18 arts which comprised medicine and surgery, Astronomy, Astrology, Agriculture, Accounts, Archery and Snake Charming. Students have to spend nearly 12 years at Nalanda studying Buddhism and Jainism. The teacher-pupil relation was very close with individual instruction and public discussion. Vallabhi, Kanchi, Nadia and Vikramasila were also famous centres of learning in those days.'

### 1.3 Mediaeval Period

Through out the mediaeval period also the Hindu centres of learning continued. The then existing situation of education is aptly described by Dr.B.P.Lulla (1971), 'The rise of corporate educational institutions having the character of universities can be found during the Buddhist period; like Nalanda and Vikramasila. Later temple colleges of Hindus and 'Madressa' of Muslims came into the scene of higher education during the Mediaeval period'. But the entrance of Muslim rulers encouraged the establishment of 'Madressa' (Colleges) at different places like Lahore, Delhi, Lucknow, Allahabad, Ajmer and Bidar. The curriculum of the 'Madressa' was on the European pattern. Some important institutions specialize in one or two branches of knowledge. The medium of instruction was mainly Arabic. The credit for organising education on a systematic basis goes to Akbar the great, the contemporary of Queen Elizabeth I.

The development of education in the mediaeval period came to an end after the death of Aurangzeb. After him education,

naturally received a set back, and was at its lowest ebb during this period.

#### 1.4 The British Period ( upto 1835 )

When the muslim rulers were dethroned by the British, most of these institutions were disappeared. The first Governor-General of British India Warren Hastings wanted to establish the Calcutta Madressa with an intention to provide education to the mohammedan youth for responsible and lucrative offices in the government. After sometimes, John Owen Chaplain of the Bengal Presidency requested the government for the establishment of a school for English teaching, but the government paid scant attention to his proposal. After few years a notable institution was founded in Benaras for the Hindus.

In 1793 Wilber Force, the leader of the evangelical party wanted to adopt useful education to the British Indians, but his proposal was opposed in the House. A few years later Charles Grant, one of the directors of the Company wanted to improve the English knowledge in India, but his efforts were in vain. Later Lord Minto in 1811, suggested to improve literature and science in existing colleges and to establish new colleges. After a couple of years, the government wanted

a sum of rupees not less than one lakh in each year shall be set apart for the development of literature and science to the inhabitants of the British territories in India.

But Lord Moria stated that public money would be ill-spent on the existing colleges. This statement provoked resentment in the minds of Indians and consequently Raja Ram Mohan Ray founded an institution in 1817 for Hindus to receive European language and Science, which was named as Hindu College.

Immediately in 1818 the Bishop of Calcutta opened an institution which was to serve the double purpose of training christian youth as preachers and imparting English language and science to the Hindus and Muslims.

Shortly after this in 1830 Mount Stuart Elphinstone<sup>n</sup> in a communication asked the Commission of Indian Affairs for the establishment of English schools. The University Education Commission (1948) in its report reproduced his words as, he wrote explicitly 'I conceive it is more important to impart a high degree of education to the upper classes than to diffuse a much lower sort of it among the common people. The most important branch of education is that designed ~~a~~ to prepare natives for public employment'. As a first step he established a school at Bombay in 1833 and another on the same lines at Poona, which led in the subsequent year for the establishment of Elphinstone<sup>n</sup> College at Bombay,

which was to be instrumental in training a class of persons by their intelligence and morality qualified for higher employment in the civil administration of India. Due to these developments the demand for English grew more in Bombay and Bengal. In order to satisfy the public demand, English classes were attached to the 'Madrasahs' and Sanskrit colleges. A great deal of tension and controversy began between the Arabic and Sanskrit and those who wanted to use English.

#### 1.5 The British Period: (From Macaulay to Wood (1835 to 1854))

The dispute was placed before the government in 1835. When the papers dealing with the controversy were placed before the Council, Lord Macaulay who was the then Law member wrote his famous Minute regarding the new educational policy. It is dated 2nd February, 1835, and is a document of great historical importance. He said in his famous Minute that the government was free to employ its funds in teaching what was better worth knowing than Sanskrit and Arabic, what the Indian desired to learn rather than those old languages. J.P.Naik (1974) wrote, 'As a utilitarian Macaulay wanted to impart Western Culture to India and desired to create a class of persons who would be 'Indian in blood and colour but English in tastes, in opinions, in morals, and in intellect.' According to S.N.Mukerji (1964),

'The Educational system of the present day is the result of Macaulay's Minute and Wood's despatch purely on the utilitarian bases, these two documents were approved for the administrative requirements of the British in India. The main aim of those two documents were to prepare a class of people who could understand the English language and would lend cooperation for their rule in India. To Macaulay classics had no value in an educational system. To him a single shelf of a good European library was worth the whole Native literature of India and Arabia.'

Lord William Bentinck and his council approved Macaulay's Minute on 7th March, 1835. They passed a resolution in which they emphasised that all government funds would be utilised for the development of English education alone. The government would not spend money on the printing of oriental works and the practices of supporting their students during this period of education was to be discontinued. This resolution was welcomed by Hindus who loved English teaching. A vehement criticism was levelled against the government order stating that the British rulers are trying to convert Hindus into Christianity with the lure of English education. In 1841 a high school was opened in Madras and after about 10 years it entitled 'The University' a collegiate department being organised in this institution. In 1843 it was generally accepted by the government that the education should be imparted through the English language only. In 1844 the government promulgated that preference will be given in public

employment to those who had been educated in European language and science. But in Bengal, due to public demand, the Bengal Council of Education proposed to establish a University of Calcutta in 1845. But that proposal was not materialised then.

During this period the famous Dispatch of Charles Wood came into existence. The University Education Commission (1948) wrote,

'The Dispatch has been rightly described as, 'The Magna Charta of English Education in India.' The Dispatch set forth a scheme of education for wider and more comprehensive than any one which had been suggested so far. It laid down that English language should be taught wherever there was a demand for it and both the English and Indian languages were to be regarded as the media for the diffusion of European knowledge.'

The most striking point of the Dispatch was the decision to establish universities. So Woods Dispatch of 19th July, 1854 was a landmark in the educational history of India as it had recommended for the first time for the establishment of universities of modern type in India. The government had also felt that the time has come for the establishment of universities in India. They agreed to start universities on the model of London University and which were to consist of a Vice-Chancellor and a Senate. The functions of the universities were purely administrative. They can confer

degrees upon such persons who could come from any affiliated college of the university after successful completion of the prescribed course and duration.

#### 1.6 The British Period ( 1854 to 1947 )

But the universities were not established immediately according to the suggestion of Wood's Dispatch. Towards the end of 1856, the government prepared the Bills and obtained the assent of the Governor-General on 24th January, 1857.

The establishment of the first University at Calcutta in 1857 was followed by those at Bombay and Madras on the same lines. The Governor-General was the Chancellor of Calcutta University and the Governors of Bombay and Madras were the Heads of the other two universities. Each of the three universities had at first the four faculties of Arts, Law, Medicine and Engineering. Later Faculty of Science was included.

There was a significant increase in the number of colleges after 1857. No new university was established after 1857 till 1882. But during these 25 years, there was a tremendous growth in the number of colleges. S.Nurulla (1951) give the strength of the colleges in that period. He said, 'In 1857 the total number of colleges in India was

27, of which 23 were general colleges and the remaining four were professional colleges.' The constant increase in the number of candidates for examinations and the inability of the existing colleges to accommodate them and the desperate conditions of the universities, all these factors, led to the proposal for the establishment of some new universities.

In the year 1865, The Lieutenant-Governor of Punjab submitted a requisition to the Viceroy for the establishment of a university at Punjab. But the government shelved the proposal. A fresh demand was made after 10 years, and this time the government favoured the idea. So the Act of 1882 gave birth to the Punjab University with the Lieutenant-Governor of Punjab as its Chancellor. In the year 1882 the government of India appointed an educational commission to conduct an enquiry into the manner in which the universities were working and how much effect had been given to the principles of Wood's Dispatch. The Committee submitted a comprehensive report discussing about the colleges, attendance, fees, discipline, and the career of the students in detail.

Another university, Allahabad University came into existence in the year 1887. This was a teaching and residential one. While recognising the great value of a university of this type, the Lieutenant-Governor considered

that at all events at first the university should confine its operations to the direction of the methods and aims of instruction, adapting them to the needs, circumstances and predilections of the country. By 1882 there were 75 colleges including professional colleges. After 1882 the expansion of higher education was accelerated during the next two decades due to the recommendations of the Education Commission 1882. The Commission gave opportunity to the private organisations to establish colleges. As a matter of fact, university education in India owes a great debt to the private societies like the Arya Samaj in Punjab and later to the National Council of Education in Bengal.

The period from 1882 to 1902 was an important one as far as the growth of colleges were concerned. According to a report in Progress of Education in India (1902), ' There were 179 affiliated colleges in this period as against 75 in 1882. The division of colleges was 138 in British India, 32 in Indian States and 9 in Ceylon.' Due to this rapid growth of colleges administrative responsibility had been increased heavily on these universities, which ultimately gave trouble to the Government. On 27th January, 1902 a Commission was appointed to enquire into the condition and prospects of the universities in British India. It was an

another important milestone in the development of higher education in India. On the recommendation of the University Commission of 1902, the University Act of 1904 came into existence after obtaining the approval of Lord Curzon's cabinet. According to this Act of 1904, the universities were permitted to take research work and teaching. Provision was also made for the residential facilities of the students. The size of the Senate was limited and the tenure of office was fixed for 5 years instead of life time. University teachers also found place on the Senate. The Act has thoroughly overhauled the university administration. According to the University Education Commission Report (1948), 'The strength of the affiliated colleges were 207 in the year 1922 and the student strength was over 50,000.

Due to the steep rise in the strength of the colleges the work of the universities became complicated. So in 1913 Lord Harding's government surveyed the situation and issued a resolution. It urged that new local, teaching and residential universities were to be created in each province, in order to alleviate the stress on the existing universities. It is also indicated that it was necessary to restrict the area over which the universities would have control. The developments planned in this resolution were delayed due to

the outbreak of the first world war in the subsequent year. But in the year 1916 and 1917, the government established Benaras and Patna universities respectively. S.N. Mukerji (1964) observed, 'In accordance to the above policy new universities were established at Mysore 1916, Hyderabad in 1918. ( Both were princely states ) and S.N.D.T. Women's University in 1916 at Bombay.' These universities were having unique character of their own. Benaras University was the first university and the Central University in the country. Patna University was the first provincial university of an affiliating type. The princely states of Hyderabad and Mysore introduced their regional languages as the medium of instruction. S.N.D.T. Women's University was the first higher educational institute for Indian women. The origin of this university was given in the University Hand Book (1975) that it was founded by Dr.D.K.Karve, a social reformer and a Champion of Women Education. He founded the university on the model of the women universities in Tokyo in the year 1916 at Bombay. After 5 years Sri Vithaldas Thackersey donated 15 lakhs of rupees and named the university as Shrimati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey Women University in the memory of his late mother. (But now it has been given statutory recognition in 1951 by the government under its Bombay Act of 1949).

In 1916 under the leadership of Sri Austosh Mukerji the Calcutta University started Post-graduate teaching and appointed professors, <sup>and</sup> lecturers for that purpose. The Government of India appointed in 1917 the Calcutta University Commission with Dr. Michael Sadler, the Vice Chancellor of the University of Leeds, as its Chairman. The Commission is, therefore, also properly known as the Sadler Commission. Although originally appointed for the reform of Calcutta University, the Commission made a thorough assessment of the entire university system in the country, Calcutta serving only as an example. So its report, published in 1919 is a document of all India importance. According to S.N. Mukerji (1964) the main recommendations of the Commission are as follows :

- Creation of new universities with teaching, residential and unitary basis.
- Establishment of the Board of Student Welfare.
- Provisions for teaching Indian languages.
- Provision to start technical courses.
- Facility to discuss with the university authorities about the problems of the university.
- Women education should be paid special attention, and a board was to be established for this purpose.
- The medium should be vernacular upto high school stage, later it should be English.

- The appointment of Physical Education Director.
- The administration of the Calcutta University should be by the Bengal government but not by the Centre.

According to B.D.Srivastava, (1963), ' Within a few years of Calcutta University Commission report several new universities came into existence - Aligarh in 1920; Lucknow in 1921; Delhi in 1922; Nagpur in 1923, Andhra in 1926; Agra in 1927; and Annamalai in 1929'. As a result of these recommendations nearly 14 universities were established at different places during 1920-47. The number of affiliated colleges and their student strength was also increased with the rapid growth of the universities between 1920-46. S.N.Mukerji (1964) gave a detailed data of this period. He wrote 'During 1921-22 there were 231 colleges with a strength of 59,581 as against 417 colleges with a strength of 99,493 in 1931-32. During the year 1946-47, there were 933 colleges providing education to 1,99,253 students.'

But after 1932 there was no significant development in higher education till 1947. But the more distinctive feature of this period was not actual achievements but the preparation of plans for reconstruction of education in future. In no other period in the history of India, education

was given so much time and attention to the preparation of plans for the comprehensive reconstruction of education in general and for the development of a National system of education in particular. The government wanted to have comprehensive plan of education in India after IIInd World War. All governments in India were now required to prepare plans of post war developments in education. The Central Advisory Board of Education was also called upon to prepare a plan. The Board submitted its plan to the government for consideration. It is commonly known as Sargent Report of 1944, the first official attempt to plan a national system of education for India, Syed Nurulla (1962) summed up the main aim of the report as 'The main objective of the plan was to create in India in a period of not less than 40 years, the same standard of educational attainments as had already been admitted in England.'

The report pointed out certain defects in the present system of Indian universities. The gravest of these is their failure to relate their activities sufficiently closely to the practical needs of the community. The output was not in a position to get employment. The report pointed out that probably there is a large proportion of failures in examination in India more than any universities in the world.

After the Sargent Report in 1945 the University Grants Committee was formed to deal with mainly the three 'Central Universities' - Aligarh, Benaras and Delhi. It consists of four members. In 1946 and 1947 its membership was increased and it was empowered to deal with all the universities in the country.

With this the era of British rule, particularly in the field of education in India came to an end. The British contribution for the development of education in India is praiseworthy. In short, their contributions during the pre-independent era are numerous. They are briefly as follows.

In 1835, Macaulay's Minute gave opportunity for the development of English education in the country more than any governmental resolutions. A systematic and constructive development of education, particularly at the university level was ~~started~~ started from the famous Wood's Dispatch in 1854, which has recommended for the establishment of universities in India. Lord Curzon's contribution to the development of higher education was a land mark in the history. The Education Commission of 1882 contributed very much for higher education development in the country by giving opportunity to the private bodies to establish colleges. The

University Education Commission of 1902, and the consequent Indian University Act of 1904 aimed at the strengthening and reconstruction of the system of universities in the country.

The Government of India Resolution 1913 helped for the establishment of universities in each province wherever necessary. The Calcutta University Commission in 1917 was another milestone in the history of university education in India. In appreciation of Sadler's Report, B.D.Srivastava (1963) said,

'The Calcutta University Commission Report is the most comprehensive and authoritative study of the Indian Educational System from the Secondary to the University stage. It is indeed, a veritable mine of information and suggestions for every student of Indian education. It helped the subsequent development of higher education considerably. The old universities were remodelled and the newer ones were incorporated on the basis of at least some of its suggestions'.

Other important landmarks in the field of higher education during the British rule in India were, the establishment of Inter-University Board in 1924, The Sargent Report of 1944, which provided a national plan for the development of higher education and the last was the establishment of the University Grants Committee in 1945, solely to deal with the central universities.

These are the main contributions of the British for the development of higher education in the country.

### 1.7 The Period from 1947 Till Today

A new era was ushered in the history of education in India with the dawn of Independence in 1947. In the free India education can not be confined to a section of the society. It will have to be spread among all, irrespective of caste, creed, sex and religion. Thus, this newly won freedom offers a challenge to our educationalists, who have now been compelled to plan for the education for every citizen in India. The then Prime Minister Shri Jawaharlal Nehru in his inaugural address to the All India Educational Conference held by the Education Minister in January 1948 said, 'Whenever conferences were called to form a plan for education in India, the tendency, as a rule was to maintain the existing system with slight modifications. This must not happen now. Great changes have taken place in the country and the education system must also be in keeping with them. The entire basis of education must be revolutionised.' Efforts were ahead since the dawn of Independence to reorganise higher education and improve it to meet the growing needs of the Nation. But the perceptibility of change is still <sup>in</sup> questionable stature. The position of

education after independence in India was described by K.C. Gulati (1977). ' The present educational system in India is mainly a legacy of the British, it continues to be traditional, and unrelated to the needs and aspiration of the people. It has no relevance either to our rich cultural heritage or to the present emerging national and developmental needs of the Indian society. There is a growing realisation, particularly since independence to transform and renovate our education to make it more relevant to our society.'

The <sup>Educationalists</sup> Educationalists are trying to accelerate the pace of development in higher education in order to make it to suit to the changed circumstances of the country since independence. There is a dire need for a well defined viable, and workable, educational policy in order to vitalize, improve and expand education in the country. The pre-independent development of education was in its horizontal nature, which enable the government to spread literacy among the people. But the democratic India wants a verticle development which would make the nation to keep pace with a world of bewildering change. To achieve the above objectives we have fixed our national goals. The preamble to our constitution will reveal our social

philosophy and national goals, which our education has to achieve.

The nation has determined to adopt the programmes of democracy as a way of life, establishment of socialistic pattern of society and industrialisation based upon modern science and technology in order to achieve the national objectives enshrined in the drafted constitution. Now it is for the educational system of the country to orientate itself in such a way that these goals could be achieved in the shortest time. The Education Commission in its report (1964-66) explained the aim of education as, 'In our opinion, therefore, no reform is more important or more urgent than to transform education, to endeavour to relate it to the life, needs and aspirations of the people and thereby make it a powerful instrument of social, economic and cultural transformation necessary for the realization of our national goals.' So it goes without saying that the importance of education in nation building process is vital. It is only the instrument to bring about desired changes in the society. Discussing the role of education in developing countries, Professor M.A. Gelfand (1968) has stated, 'An accelerated rate of economic growth is a common objective of developing countries, to achieve it they need to concentrate on producing and improving additional human

resources for use on all levels of governmental and non-governmental activities.' So the universities have to perform the social role of developing individuals capable of effectively participating in all facets of community life. Prime Minister Nehru, 'summed up the basic objectives of a university in 1947, in his convocation address to the University of Allahabad as, 'A university stands for humanism, for tolerance; for reason; for the adventure of ideas and for the search of truth. It stands for the onward march of human race towards even higher objectives. If the universities discharge their duties adequately then it is well with the nation and the people.' So the development of higher education, which confronted with the task of nation building is the responsibility of the nation. But the states are controlling the higher education.

In a large country like India, good government is only possible if wide powers are conferred by the constitution upon the state governments. With regard to education it may be essential to allocate it to the States. But the question of higher education has become a controversial issue of the present day. So it has become a problem to articulate education, particularly the higher education, which differs from state to state. in the country. M.Abu Baker (1976)

has explicitly explained the centre state relations in education. He said,

'The Government at the centre has to find a critical situation with more than a score of other governments, the governments in the states, in the management of education. Each of these states is armed with its own constitutional jurisdictions including almost exclusive jurisdiction over education; each one of them is also equipped with its own representatives and other institutions for decision making and decision enforcement.'

Consequently, the newly formed government of free India has to face so many hardships after 1947. Not enough attention was paid for the development of education between 1947 and 1951. The major developments during this period were very few. On 4th November 1948, the Government of India, appointed the University Education Commission under the chairmanship of Dr.S.Radhakrishnan. The main objectives of the Commission ~~was~~ stated in the introduction of the University Education Commission (1948) as, 'To report on the Indian University Education and suggest improvements and extensions that may be desirable to suit present and future requirements of the country.' The Commission submitted its report in 1949 with all details of University Education in India.

Ministry of Education and Scientific Research was created in the Centre and Maulana Abual Kalam Azad was the first Union Minister of Education of free India. In the year 1951

India started her first plan of five years developmental schemes.

#### 1.7.1 The First Five Year Plan (1951-56)

The Government of India appointed the Planning Commission on March 1950. The Commission started the five year plans, one year after its appointment. The objectives of the first year plan was explained by the Planning Commission (1952) as,

'The central objective of Planning in India at the present stage is to initiate a process of development, which will raise living standards and open to the people new opportunities for a richer and more varied life.'

With this main objective, the first five year plan was implemented in the country, significant results were obtained at the end of the plan. But as far as education was concerned, particularly, higher education, there were no significant results. While giving introduction to the section of Education in the Planning Commission report, (1952), it stated,

'Education is of basic importance in the planned development of a nation. The educational machinery will have to be geared for the specific tasks which the nation sets itself. Through the plan so as to make available in the various fields personnel of suitable quality at the required rate.'

For the development of higher education, the plan provided an expenditure of 114 crores as against the total educational expenditure of 169 crores. After Independence, higher education was developed rapidly. According to Syed Nurullah (1962), ' In 1946-47, there were 297 Arts and Science Colleges; 199 Intermediate Colleges, and 140 Colleges of Professional and Technical Education.' But the number of universities were only 19 at the time of Independence. Within a period of 3 years there was a tremendous growth in the field of Higher Education. According to the Reference Annual, India (1970),

'In 1950-51, that is on the eve of the first five year Plan, there were 27 universities, 208 Professional and Technical Colleges, and 498 Arts and Science Colleges.'

This steep rise in the strength of the colleges contributed very much for deteriorating the standards of Higher Education. K.G.Saiyidin (1962) gave his opinion in this connection very aptly. He said,

'Education in India has expanded very rapidly since the attainment of Independence. This pressure of numbers at all stages of education has generally speaking, reacted adversely on standards of instruction and tended to lower the quality of staff, equipment, buildings and other necessary amenities. It has led to the diversion of a large proportion of the limited funds available to quantitative expansion and to the comparative neglect to measures for the improvement of quality.'

As the universities multiply in number, their academic standards are not improving. In contrary they are becoming targets for public criticism as their standards are lagging behind. In this critical situation, when the state of affairs of higher education was in its pell-mell condition, the Planning Commission started plans for the development of higher education in 1951. They felt that, the immediate difficulty that has to be faced in the reform of university education is that of finance. Another important problem is, the serious over-crowding in most of the colleges. In order to restrict the admission to the colleges, the Commission felt that there is no alternative but to apply selective tests on a large scale. So that no body is allowed to receive university education who is not fit to profit by it. S.Nurulla (1962) pointed out,

'There are three striking factors contributed for the rapid expansion of higher educational institutions. They are : (1) Inordinate increase in Arts and Commerce Colleges. (2) Establishment of several sub-standard new colleges as the rate of expansion is not in tune with the resources, and (3) Admission of a large number of unsuitable students, who do not have the right intellectual capacity, preparation, and motivation.'

So the system of higher education has been and continues to be suffering from deadly poison of deteriorating standards. But this unpleasant and gloomy description of the situation

of higher education is not a note of despair. But our attempt is to understand our drawbacks so that we might plan better in future. Recognition of defects is the first step towards progress. In spite of these hurdles and bottlenecks, the first five year plan had achieved remarkable progress. The important achievement during this Plan period was the establishment of U.G.C. on the suggestions of the University Education Commission, 1948, C.D.Deshmukh was appointed as its first Chairman. It got statutory recognition by passing the U.G.C. Act of 1956. This was the third Commission after independence. Another important achievement of this period was the establishment of the Rural Higher Education Committee by the Government of India in 1954, Dr.K.L.Srimali as its convenor. The main purpose behind the appointment of this Committee was explained in its Report (1955) as 'Higher Education for rural area is intended to fill clearly evident void in India's present educational programme. For several reasons, the existing schools and universities, which are largely government supported, have been unable to serve effectively the 85% of India's population living in rural areas'. On the advice of the Rural Higher Education Committee, the Government of India established a National Council for Higher Education in Rural Areas in 1956. The council has selected 13 institutions for development into rural institutes

and these have started functioning. The main objective of these institutions is to impart higher education, which will relate to the needs of the rural people.

These are the major developments during the first plan period as far as higher education is concerned. At the end of this plan period there were 34 universities in the country. The Indian Institute of Technology was established by an Act of Parliament at Kharagpur in 1956.

#### 1.7.2 The Second Five Year Plan (1956-61)

No significant contribution was made in this period for the development of higher education. Technical and Secondary education was given priority. The objective of the second five year plan was explained in the International Year Book of Education (1966) as,

'There has been increased activity and expansion in all fields of education and culture in 1955-56. The year saw the end of the first five year plan of educational development and the coming into being of the second five year plan which was drafted with a view to providing a minimum standard of education for all the citizens in accordance with the needs of democracy. During the year under review, the Minister of Education worked out a number of projects not only to improve the quality and standard of education but also to expand educational facilities on a large scale.'

In this plan period, the Government incurred an expenditure of 45 crores for higher education. There were 46 universities

at the end of this plan period against 34 at the end of the first plan. Three institutes, two at, Bangalore and New Delhi in the year 1958 and the third at New Delhi in 1961, were established. These were deemed to be universities under U.G.C. Act during this period. Another I.I.T. was established by an Act of Parliament at Bombay at the end of this plan period. Though the main achievements of this plan period were diverted towards more for the Secondary and Technical Education rather than the Higher Education, there was a tremendous growth in the colleges as well as in the strength of the students. This rapid growth of colleges and the students population was clearly given in The Indian Year Book (1961) as,

'The expansion has probably been most rapid in Higher Education. The number of universities has increased from 19 in 1946-47 to 46 in 1960-61 and is expected to rise to 61 by 1965-66. In 1946-47 there were 297 Arts and Science Colleges, 199 Intermediate Colleges and 140 Professional and Technical Colleges. In 1960-61 there were 462 University Departments, 228 Constituent Colleges, 1316 affiliated Colleges and 83 recognised research institutes. There are 15 Boards of Secondary and Intermediate Education to which 988 Intermediate Colleges are affiliated. In addition there are 581 institutions of higher education which are not affiliated to any university. The increase in the number of students is equally impressive. Enrolment in Arts and Science Colleges has increased from 2,12,000 in 1946-47 and 8,40,000 in 1960-61 and is expected to rise to 12,20,000 by 1965-66.'

Noteworthy achievements were very few in this plan period. Most important one is that, the introduction of the Three Year Degree course in Higher Education. About the implementation of the course, The Indian Year Book of Education (1961) stated,

'A Committee was set up in October, 1956 under the Chairmanship of Dr.C.D.Deshmukh to work out the estimates of expenditure involved in introducing this important reform. It is recommended that the course should be introduced in as many universities as possible during the Second Plan Period.'

Another important achievement in the field of higher education was the establishment of the N.C.E.R.T. in 1960. There are 7 institutions of National level in Education. They are : Central Institute of Education, Delhi founded in 1948, Central Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance started in 1954 and later it was merged in the Central Institute of Education in 1960; The Central Bureau of Text Book Research, All India Council for Secondary Education in 1955; The Directorate of Secondary Education in 1959; National Institute of Basic Education in 1956; National Fundamental Education Centre in 1956 and the last one is the National Institute of Audio-Visual Education 1959. The working condition of these institutions revealed in a recent review that their research functions would perhaps be more effectively performed

if these institutions are integrated into a unified organisation with greater resources of personnel and expertise at its command. It has, therefore, been decided to merge all these institutions into a single institute called the National Institute of Education; and to place it under the autonomous organisation called the NCERT. The council has been duly recognised and registered on the Registration of Societies Act of 1960. The main objective of the Council is to undertake, aid, promote and coordinate research in all branches of education.

The strength of the students is increasing very rapidly every year. The existing institutions are not in a position to accommodate the students. So, the government wanted to run evening colleges and correspondence courses in order to alleviate the stress of the existing universities. The International Year Book of Education (1961) gave the position as, 'Six new universities have been established. ( At the end of the second plan period ). The enrolment in the universities is likely to increase from 9,00,000 in 1960-61 to 13,00,000 in 1965-66. It is proposed to institute correspondence courses and evening colleges at higher level.' These are the developments during the second plan period. Importance has been given for the development of primary and secondary education during this plan period. Due to the governmental efforts the

the percentage of literacy has been increased in the country.

In this connection M.K.Premi stated (1972),

'According to the 1961 Census of India there were only 24.0 percent literate persons in the country and among them a little less than two thirds (62.9 percent) has not been able to achieve even a primary standard of education. At the time of 1951 Census the literacy rate for the country was 16.6 percent.'

At the beginning of the first five year plan, the percentage of literates was 16.6. But at the end of the second five year plan, it rose to 24.0. That is, within a period of 10 years, the efforts of the government could help to rise the percentage of literates to 7.4. But on the whole the contribution of the second plan for the development of higher education was not satisfactory.

### 1.7.3 The Third Five Year Plan (1961-66)

The Chapter on Education in the third plan reiterates (1961), 'Education is the most important single factor in achieving rapid economic development and technological progress and in creating a social order founded on the values of freedom, social justice and equal opportunity.' At the same time it is also admitted that there are large deficiencies in the sphere of education which must be removed speedily if progress is to be sustained and enduring.' In order to develop education and to remove its deficiencies the

government spent 82 crores for higher education in this plan period. The result of increasing expenditure is a natural demand for greater attention to efficiency. Consequently the number of universities were increased, 18 universities were established at the end of this plan period against 12 at the end of second plan period. At the end of the first five year plan 6 universities were established. The growth of the universities was rapid and unprecedented. There were 64 universities at the end of this plan period, and 9 institutes deemed to be universities under the Act of U.G.C. Four Indian Institutes of Technology were established during this period, raising the total strength to five. There was no qualitative development of higher education in this period. Above all it laid a great stress on the development of primary and technical education. The rapid growth of the colleges was given in the U.G.C. annual report for the year (1970-71) as, 'The number of colleges has risen rapidly in response to the growing demand for higher education. The total number of colleges in 1961-62 was 1783. By the end of the third plan, the number has risen to 2572. In 1970-71 the number of colleges functioning in the country was 3604.' The student strength has also increased considerably. Rapid development has become a general feature of Indian higher educational system. But

if growth in size and number is any indication, higher education in India may be considered to have a remarkable development. But the question is about the qualitative development of higher education. So with a view to restrict the mushroom growth of the colleges, the Government promulgated a rule that every college should fix a maximum limit for admitting students. The limit will vary depending upon the facilities available but the limit must be fixed and adhered to, if the quality of education is to be raised. According to R.S. Shah (1974), 'Between 1950-51 and 1965-66, the enrolment in the universities in the country increased at an annual rate of 9.6 percent.' The demand for higher education has greatly increased over the past decade with the expanding base at the elementary and secondary education as the previous plans gave importance for their development with a view to give justification to the constitution provision. But the overall development of education was not satisfactory and it was not adequate in any respect. The condition of education in India after the three five year plans was described by S.P.Varma (1971) as follows :

'The Annual Plans and the 4th five year plan are drawn up especially in the light of a review of the position after 15 years of educational planning which has sadly indicated that in spite of a great deal of expenditure incurred on education, the achievements have not been adequate, there is no link between educational employment and production, quality of education has not improved, wastage continues more or less at the same rate as before; shortage and

surpluses of certain categories of personnel persist and what is more disturbing is the fact that somehow it has not been possible to correlate education with economic development.'

What has been observed by Varma is nothing but even these 15 years of planned development was not in a position to reach the minimum expectations of people. It has neither satisfied the needs of the people nor the wants of the educationalists. On the whole, it may be said that the total educational progress of the country has not been able to keep pace with the large hopes and aspirations of the people. Why this effort of 15 years failed to achieve the targets ? Where lies the fault ? G.Ramanathan (1965) explained the chief cause for the failure as, 'Educational Planning in India after the attainment of independence has suffered for want of a definite long-term plan with a specified order of priorities. As a result, at the end of 15 years our educational policy has got into a jam.'

#### 1.7.4 The Fourth Five Year Plan (1969-74)

The draft outline of the fourth plan (1969) explained the objectives that it wanted to achieve during the plan period were as follows :

'The fourth plan attempts to face three major tasks in the field of education. To remove the deficiencies in the existing educational system and link it more effectively with the increasing demands of social

and economic development; to remove internal stress and strains in the educational systems which have developed in consequence of rapid expansion during the first three plans and to extend the system in response to social urges and economic needs.'

The main emphasis of the fourth plan was on the consolidation and improvement of the quality of higher education. It is true that during the three previous plans there has been a substantial expansion in enrolment and in the number of institutions at all levels of education in the country. This expansion of number, however, has been accompanied by a certain measure of deterioration in quality. With a view to reduce and to remove the stress and to produce skilled manpower for the nation, the fourth plan allotted 183.52 crores of rupees for higher education. The draft outline of the fourth plan (1969) explained, ' Education as an investment in human resource, plays an important role among the factors which contribute to economic growth. It secures returns in the form of skilled manpower geared to the needs of development and also creates the right attitude and climate for development.'

Though, the government felt very much inconvenient about the expansion of higher education, due to public pressure they have to establish new colleges. But the expansion should be without sacrificing the standards. The growth of higher

education was unique and rapid particularly after independence. In 1947, India had 19 universities. Within a period of 27 years, that is, at the end of fourth plan period their number increased to 95, together with 9 institutes deemed as universities and 9 institutes of national importance declared as universities under the Act of Parliament. It is observed that new universities were established every year from 1948 to 1977, except for one or two years, within an average of more than 3 universities a year. During the first, second, third and fourth plans 6, 12, 18 and 19 universities were established respectively. According to the U.G.C. annual report (1975-76) it is clear that at the end of fourth plan, there were 4308 colleges with 22,34,385 students. The rate of student growth in enrolment for higher education was given by J.N.Kaul (1974) as, 'The average annual increase ( compound ) in enrolment was 11.01 percent during 1951-61 and 11.1 percent during 1961-71. At this rate we shall have more than 7 million students in our universities and colleges by 1978-79, that is by the end of the fifth<sup>five</sup> year plan.'

#### 1.7.5 The Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-79)

The rate of establishment of universities was reduced in the fifth plan period. There were hardly 10 new universities established in this plan period. The aim of

higher education in this plan period was explained in the fifth plan draft (1974-79) as follows :

'Education plays a crucial role in economic development and social modernisation. As a key factor in production, it supplies the requisite number and quality of persons needed for various tasks and by inculcating among the mass of the people appropriate attitudes, skills and personality traits, it creates the proper climate for development by creating a well informed and educated citizenary, it ensures the effective working of the basic institutions on which the economic and social well-being of the country depends.'

It is clearly observed from the above statement the attitude of the government towards education. The government has given importance for the qualitative development of higher education rather than its quantity. It is observed during its course of development that higher education has been growing rapidly without paying adequate attention to its quality. It has become a problem to the government as well as to the public about the standards of our higher educational institutions. While writing the Chapter on Higher Education in the Fifth Plan (1974-79), clearly the government expressed its concern about the present condition of higher education as,

'The main problems confronting university education are : Its rapid expansion without a corresponding increase in physical facilities, lack of coordination with the social life of the community, widespread lowering of standards, rapid expansion of the student body, unaccompanied by concomitant expansion in the size and quality of the teaching community and increasing incidence of unemployment among the university graduates.'

In order to curtail the expansion and to raise the efficiency, the government allotted nearly 337 crores of rupees in this plan period for higher education. There are no significant changes and developments in this plan period. This plan is closed in March, 1979. But, the focus of the government has been paid on the qualitative development of higher education. U.G.C. is doing immense work in this direction. At present there are 105 universities imparting education in the country. According to the U.G.C. Annual Report (1975-76), there were, 4508 colleges, 102 universities and 9 institutions deemed to be universities under the U.G.C. Act, giving education to 24,26,109 students.

After going through the historical development of higher education in India, it is clear that higher education of the present day is the product of so many conflicts and changes. On the whole the total development of higher education is a satisfactory one. But except certain limitations and inspite of the large unfilled gap between aspirations and achievements, it can be said that the period of 30 years promises to be one of the unprecedented expansion. To the extent of its expansion and development it is satisfactory, but with regarding to the academic standards it is not yet reached to the minimum expectations of the people. The main aim and responsibility of

the universities are not being fully realised. Theoretically university education as observed by Dongerkery Commission (1973) is, 'A powerful instrument of social, economic, and political changes, it can play a very important part in the development of the material and human resources of the country and this helps in the progress, especially through the modernisation of agriculture and rapid industrialisation. The universities ought to be important partners with the state in its welfare activities in building up an egalitarian society on democratic principles.'

But Indian Universities as they exist to-day despite many admirable qualities do not fully satisfy the needs of the people and conditions for a national system of education. Still the higher education is suffering ~~it~~ with the deadly poison of the deteriorated standards. The output ~~is~~ not ~~does~~ commensurate with the input in terms of resources and human efforts. Large number of failures are there, constituting wastage and stagnation at higher levels. But the responsibility of higher education is great and it is pivotal for the constructive building up of a nation on firm footing. It is confronted with the task of nation reconstruction. But the public opinion today, is whether our higher education is in a position to give justification to its ascribed status

and responsibilities ? Is it really related to our life and needs ? Is production an aim of higher education in India ? These queries carry no satisfactory answer. It <sup>queries</sup> is not too late to shape our educational system to suit our requirements. With a view to mould our education to our changing circumstances, the whole system of education needs thorough overhaul. The university education should be shaped in such a manner that they have to perform the social role of developing individuals capable of effectively participating in all facets of national life. How to change our present system was rightly suggested by J.N.Kapur (1975) as, 'Every topic in a syllabus must be justified by its relevance to modern knowledge and needs of society and in each discipline thorough overhauling of syllabi from this point of view is necessary. There should be a national movement asking for relevance and it should go into details. All enertia should be <sup>inertia</sup> swept aside.' In view of the present circumstances the government made it a point to make education relevant to the changing needs of the community. Progress of the present-day society is closely related with the development of education. The prosperity and well-being of a nation have been mostly determinated by the level of education. But, the higher learning institutions are in a pell-mell

in their administration and facing peril in their academic spheres. If peace is to return to our university campuses, education in the country should be made as socially relevant and useful as possible. Change in education is nothing but changing the total structure of the entire field of education. S.P.Varma (1971) has aptly pointed out that ,

'This necessitates profound changes in the educational philosophy, structure and techniques. The age old functions of education that is passing on to new generation the knowledge and techniques of the preceding ones and their system of values can no longer hold good.'

It is quite obvious that implementation of modern methods is essential if at all progress is required. The pace of national growth cannot be accelerated unless we absorb and implement changes in our educational systems. Knowledge is growing rapidly. To keep pace with this rapid knowledge explosion educational content and methods should be changed. Again to quote J.N.Kapur (1975),

'Knowledge is doubling in a period of about 10 years and thus it will become roughly ten times of what it is today by the end of the century. The educational systems have to meet the challenges of this knowledge explosion as well as of the explosion in number of students apparently seeking higher education. This knowledge explosion also requires revolutionary changes in our methods of teaching and learning.'

After independence particularly various committees and Commissions have gone into the deficiencies and weaknesses of this system and have recommended changes there in. Consequently, the higher education has witnessed a number of efforts to bring about changes in its structure, curriculum, and teaching methods. A number of new institutions, both at the national and state level have been created to effect changes in higher education. In spite of these massive efforts and multipronged approaches it has been felt that the institutions of higher learning are not changing appreciably. The perceptibility of change is still of a questionable stature. Why our institutions are not responding properly to the innovations ? Why are they lagging behind ? We have, though, not vast, adequate amount of knowledge gained through research for the development of higher education. Yet the institutions are not developing according to the expectations. So, it is clear that the institutional lag in education is not due to dearth of innovations, on the contrary they are constantly rocking the educational institutions. Innovations that originate from resource centres get diluted by the time they reach the institutions. This tremendous lag is accountable mostly for not implementing the innovations, which are universal but unequal in magnitude and character. The truth holds equally good, between the institutions as well as within the institution. This seems to be a common

problem with all the countries. In spite of much hue and cry about higher education, less efforts have been put to introduce innovations in it. If all the innovations had been implemented by India, the educational system of the country would have been different. The innovations that were floated in the field of higher education have been implemented by only a few. Some innovations got diluted and distorted and some did not even reach the institutions. Here comes series of questions. Why are these innovations not implemented properly ? Why do the innovations fail to reach the universities ? Is there any resistance to implement innovations ? If so, what are the troubles, that are being faced by the institutions while implementing an innovation ? Whether the innovations are in a position to create an element of confidence in the adopter system that this change is for the better ?

This crisis of institutional lag has inspired the present investigation to study the implementation of innovations in higher educational institutions with a view to identify the factors responsible to and contributing for the institutional lag, which is the product of not implementing innovations successfully.

The next chapter deals with the present investigation and its importance.

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