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Essentials for Excellence in Higher Education[#]

Furqan Qamar^{*}

Move towards Excellence in Indian Higher Education

Much before the idea of world class universities and global rankings found credence in the country, India had been trying to promote excellence in higher education. In fact, one of the major focus of the development grants of the University Grants Commission (UGC) has been to ensure quality and promote excellence. Schemes like Special Assistance Programmes (SAP) identified and funded Departments of Special Assistance (DSA), Departmental Research Support (DRS) and Institutes of Advanced Studies (IASE) were essentially conceptualised to identify and strengthen academic departments with the potential to progress qualitatively and emerge as centres of excellence. To give a further fillip to the initiative, the UGC launched a new scheme during the 9th Five Year Plan (1997-2002) called Universities with Potential of Excellence (UPE).

Fundamental focus of the UPE scheme was to identify and support universities that had the potential to emerge as centres of excellence in their chosen areas of specialisation. Initially, 5 universities were identified under the scheme and another 5 universities were identified and supported during the 10th and the 11th five year plans each, thereby taking the total number of universities with potential of excellence to 15 (UGC website). These included 4 central universities (BHU, JNU, NEHU and University of Hyderabad) and 11 State Universities (Guru Nanak Dev University, Jadavpur University, Karnataka University, Madurai Kamaraj University, Osmania University, Pune University, University of Calcutta, University of Madras, University of Mumbai, University of Mysore and University of Rajasthan). Interestingly, the importance of the scheme was not recognised as much, but at least 3 of the 4 central and 5 of the 11 state universities funded under the scheme later started appearing in the world rankings. It, however, can not be cited as a conclusive proof of the success of the scheme because several such universities which were not supported under the scheme also started appearing in the global ranking.

With the passage of time, the idea of excellence got transformed into the aspiration of having world class universities in the country and the 11th Plan provided for a scheme of

[#] Edited version of Maulana Abul Kalam Azad Memorial Lecture delivered on 9th November 2017 at NIEPA, New Delhi.

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and made allocations for the establishment of 14 World Class Universities (WCUs) in the country. The Plan document emphasised that these universities would be comprehensive, be planned carefully and be implemented in a creative way by involving eminent people. It was further emphasised that the location decision should balance the desire for achieving greater geographical spread and the potential synergies arising from co-location with existing reputed institutions and laboratories (GOI, 2008). As per the scheme, each of such universities were to be established with a capital investment of Rs. 1000 crore and were to be given all the autonomy that they needed to become world class.

The idea of establishing WCUs was then criticised on the ground that universities become world class through their teaching, research, impact and academic environment and do not become world class simply because they are named or established so. For the purpose 11th five-year, allocated Rs 2800 crore for the establishment of 14 new world class universities. The idea has, however, undergone innumerable iteration before taking shape in the form of the Research and Innovation University Bill 2012. The scheme of WCU was further transformed into the idea called Innovation Universities (IUs). The thought behind the idea was that fourteen new central universities would be innovative in their approach, governance, funding and academics and that these universities given better funding and innovative practices they shall become world class. Accordingly, a draft concept note and a draft Bill was circulated by the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD). The draft concept note provided for the establishment of 14 new central universities as Innovation Universities --- all with public funding, with possibilities of Public Private Partnership (PPP). The idea, however, met with resistance and despite repeated efforts, neither the world class universities nor innovation universities could see the light of the day.

While the idea of the world class universities in India could not go beyond discussion stage, some of the global ranking agencies continued to flag that none of the universities from India were appearing amongst the top 100 or even top 200 universities of the world even though the country has one of the largest system of higher education and by 2012 the then President of India, in his capacity as the Visitor of the centrally funded higher and technical educational institutions started exhorting universities to do their best to get reckoned amongst the top-ranking universities of the world. This exhortation appeared in all the conferences of the vice chancellors of universities and directors of the institutes that the visitor chaired and also in almost every convocation address that he delivered.

The idea of the world class universities thus got transfigured to universities getting ranked amongst the top of the world by such ranking agencies as the Academic Ranking of the World Universities (ARWU), QS World Ranking and the Times Higher Education Ranking; and the onus of the responsibility were squarely put on the universities themselves. At the same time, what universities regard as essential or basic pre-requisites to attaining excellence remained largely unattended, if not deliberately ignored. This article is essentially about highlighting some of the essential prerequisites that universities require to attain excellence.

To give further fillip to the drive, the government has now launched a new scheme as the Institutions of Eminence (IoE), with the MHRD announcing a policy on world class institutions, on the basis of which UGC has notified regulations detailing eligibility conditions, application process, incentives and ensuing financial support for such institutions. So far under the scheme 10 public and 10 private universities have either been declared as IoE or have been issued Letter of Intent (LoI) and are in the processes of being

reviewed for the status. It is now hoped that these universities shall, one day, get counted amongst the top 100 universities of the world, presumably, by the Academic Ranking of the World Universities (ARWU), the Times Higher Education (THE) or Quacquarelli Seymonds (QS) World Rankings. These institutions are to get immunity from governmental regulations and be able to take their own decisions, beside liberal financial support up to Rs. 500 crore over a couple of years. The initiative formally recognises that regulations have been a barrier to excellence and the same is further reinforced by the notification of graded autonomy which seeks to grant greater autonomy to better performing universities in the NIRF ranking and NAAC accreditation.

Measuring Excellence in Higher Education

WHILE excellence in higher education has been the most cherished goal, a universally agreed indicator of excellence has never been easy to arrive at. For a long time, excellence was no more than a perception. It only required people who mattered, or simply a large section of the society, just to feel and express that an institution is excellent. Realising that the popular perception could be far removed from reality and could also be susceptible to manipulation, search began for an objective and quantifiable measure of quality and excellence. This led to the discovery and espousal of quality indicators, often based on proxy parameters. But each of these indicators measure only one or a few specific aspects of quality in higher education. Most importantly, such indicators are more likely to cause distortions in other equally important dimensions of excellence.

Since a single measure fails to capture the overall excellence, recent trends have been to use a combination of indicators, popularly called 'metric'. The metrics are popular with both the quality assurance as well as the ranking agencies --- national, regional as well as global. While different agencies use different parameters with varying weightage to report quality and excellence in higher education, they broadly cover performance of universities in terms of (a) research and their impact; (b) reputations and popular perception; (c) availability of essential input for effective teaching-learning processes; (d) industry interaction and employability; and (e) diversity, usually measured in terms of internationalisation (see Table 1).

TABLE 1

Indicators/Parameters Used by Global Ranking Agencies

<i>ARWU</i>	<i>QS</i>	<i>THE</i>
Alumni with Nobel/Field Medal (10)	Academic Reputation (40)	Teaching: The Learning Environment (30)
Staff with Nobel/Field Medals (20)	Employee Reputation (10)	Research: Volume, Income, Reputation (30)
Highly Cited Research (20)	Faculty Student Ratio (20)	Citation: Research Influence (30)
Papers published in Nature and Science (20)	Citation Per Faculty (20)	Industry Income (2.5)
Citation Index (20)	International Students (5)	International Outlook (7.5)
Academic Performance Per Faculty (10)	International Faculty (5)	
ARWU = Academic Ranking of the World Universities; QS = QS World Ranking; THE = Times Higher Education Ranking		

Even though these indicators do not fully capture excellence, they are any way the favourites of the ranking agencies. Significantly, most countries of the world have already bought the idea that to claim excellence, a good number of their higher educational institutions must be ranked amongst the top 100 of the world. India, as mentioned earlier, has been no exception. Universities are now under pressure to get ranked and be counted amongst the top, though they all realise that being counted amongst the Top 100 universities of the world takes a lot more than making efforts to participate and open their data to the global ranking agencies. As a result, a good number of our higher educational institutions have succeeded in making it to the list, albeit at a lower rank.

TABLE 2

Number of Indian Higher Educational Institutions Ranked at Various Positions in Different World Rankings

<i>Agency</i>	<i>Ranks</i>	<i>2016</i>	<i>2017</i>	<i>2018</i>	<i>2019</i>	<i>2020</i>
ARWU	Top 100					
	101 -200					
	201-300					
	301-400	1	1			
	401-500			1	1	
	501		6	15	15	
	All	1	7	16	16	
QS	Top 100					
	101 -200	2	2	3	3	3
	201-300	4	2	2	3	3
	301-400	1	3	1	1	1
	401-500	2	1	2	2	2
	501	5	6	12	15	15
	All	14	14	20	24	24
THE	Top 100					
	101 -200					
	201-300	1	1	1	1	
	301-400	1	1	1	1	3
	401-500	3	2		3	3
	501	12	27	40	44	50
	All	17	31	42	49	56

Source: Counted from the rankings of universities for different years as reported by each ranking agencies

Data show that though none of the Indian universities is ranked by ARWU amongst the Top 300 Universities of the world, the number of Indian universities appearing at various ranks in ARWU has shot up from 1 in 2016 to 16 in 2019. Disquietingly, however, while 1 Indian university was getting ranked amongst the top 300-400 universities of the world in the 2016 and 2017, its ranking has slipped to 401-500 category in ARWU of 2018 and 2019. As far as the position of Indian universities in the QS World ranking is concerned, not only the numbers have gone up from 14 in 2016 to 24 in 2020 but the number of universities ranked amongst the top 200 has also gone from 2 to 3. Similarly, the number of Indian universities finding a mention in the global ranking by the THE has steadily gone up from 17 in 2016 to 56 in 2020, though, none of the Indian universities are as yet reckoned amongst the top 200 of THE ranking. More critically, none of the Indian universities have yet been able to find a place amongst the top 100 universities of the world by any of the three most popular global ranking of universities (Table 2).

Probability of Being Reckoned amongst the Top 100 Universities

AS a good number of Indian universities are now finding a mention in the three most popular world ranking, though at a lower rank, one could argue that some of them are, in due course of time, likely to rise up the ladder and get reckoned amongst the top 100 universities of the world. But a glance at the scores needed to make to the top 100 reveals that the goal may not be easy to reach, at least in the short run. ARWU exerts such a tough standards that the university ranked at 100th position in 2019 had scored only 26 points out. Given the fact that even the Indian Institute of Science (IISc), which is ranked the highest in ARWU ranking in the 401-500 category, is not likely to score enough to get ranked amongst the top 100 by ARWU anytime soon. As regards QS world ranking, IIT Bombay (152nd), IIT Delhi (182nd) and IISc, Bangalore (184th) that have been ranked amongst the top 200 universities of QS world ranking scoring a little higher than 44 points shall have to improve their academic performance by 36 per cent in order to get counted amongst the top 100 universities. As regards the possibilities of the three higher educational institutions best ranked by THE in the category of 300-400 i.e. IISc, Bangalore, IIT Indore and IIT Ropar, they need to improve their scores by close to 33 per cent to reach 62.2 from their present score of around 46.9 to 62.2 (Table 3). Obviously, the road to the world class universities is far more tedious than it appears (Qamar, 2018).

TABLE 3

Minimum Score of the Universities that were Ranked at Various Positions

<i>Rankings</i>	<i>50th Rank</i>	<i>100th Rank</i>	<i>200th Rank</i>	<i>300th Rank</i>	<i>400th Rank</i>
ARWU (2019)	32.8	26.00			
QS (2020)	77.8	59.9	44.0	34.5	28.3
THE (2020)	72.1	62.2	53.8	46.9	42.4

Will the Scheme of IoE Help?

Realising that the universities and higher educational institutions have to be helped in terms of financial supports and institutional autonomy to rise up the ladder faster, the government came up with the idea of declaring 10 public and 10 private higher educational institutions as Institutions of Eminence (IoE) Deemed Universities Notified by MHRD in 2017, the scheme provides for an elaborate and complex mechanism for the identification and declaration of higher educational institutions as IoE under three categories --- Public, Private and Greenfield. Under the scheme, the private higher educational institutions, though shall get no financial support but would be granted freedom from various regulations. In contrast, however, the public institution may not only get greater degree of autonomy and freedom from regulations, they shall also get a sum of Rs. 1000 crore, though in case of state universities the funding shall have to be borne equally by the central as well as the respective state governments; As of now and after two iteration, the Empowered Committee constituted under the scheme has recommended 30 higher educational institutions to be declared as IoE of which 10 private and 10 public higher educational institutions have either already been declared as IoE or have been issued LOI and are under review to be declared as such. Announcement of the list of the IoE has a fare share of controversies, on at least three counts --- inclusion of the Greenfield universities, exclusion of some of the universities perceived to be at least as good as those declared as IoE and also because of the time lag in the announcement of the scheme and the declaration of the list (Niazi, 2019)

To examine the criticisms objectively and comprehensively, the author tried to obtain data on all higher educational institutions that found a place in any of the three most commonly used world rankings since 2010 and could collect the rank positions of the Indian higher education from the ARWU for 10 years from 2010-19, THE Ranking for 9 years from 2012-20 and the QS Ranking for 5 years from 2015-20. Thus the data could be collected on 24 observation points. Using the data, the author calculated the ranking frequency of each of the Indian higher educational institutions ever ranked. Thus an institution ranked by all the three agencies across all the years for which data were available would get a ranking frequency of 24 and, accordingly, higher the ranking frequency the better could the institution be assumed and would be more likely to be ranked in future as well.

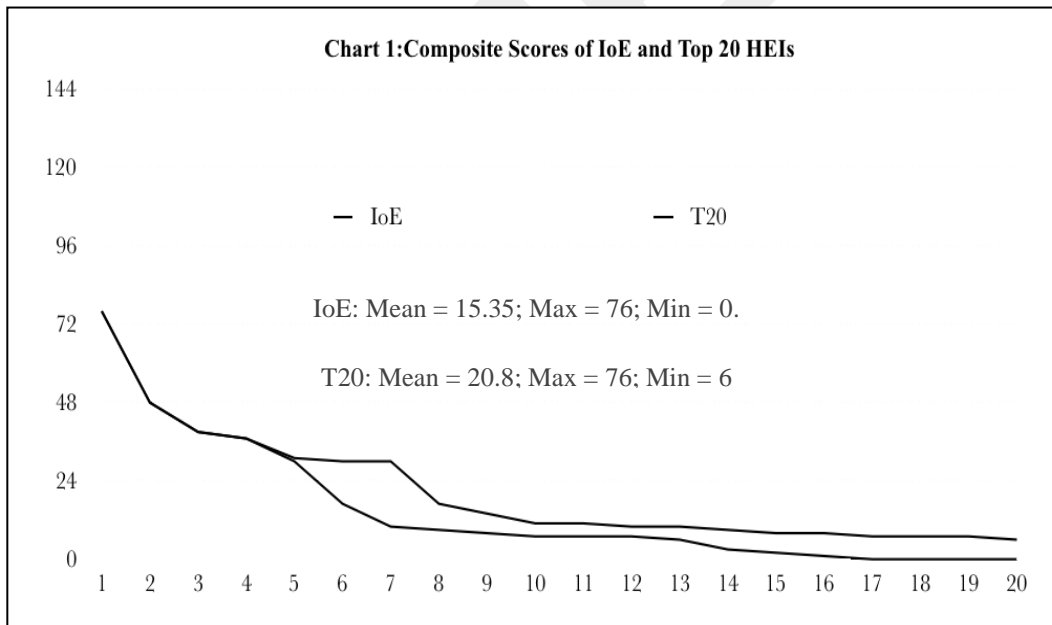
Since different institutions were placed at different rank positions in different years by the three agencies, it was felt that ranking frequency alone shall not be sufficient to comment on the likelihood of a university to better its rank in future. To address the issue, the institutions were assigned weights according to their ranks. Accordingly, weightage of 6, 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 were respectively given to institutions ranked amongst the Top 100, 101-200, 201-300, 301-400, 401-500 and 500+ and on the basis of which a composite score was computed for each of the institution ever appearing in any ranking over all the 24 observation points. Thus a university found ranked amongst the Top 100 over all the observation points would get a composite score of 144 whereas an institution ranked in the category of 500+ across all the observation points would get a composite score of 24.

The composite scores so computed would range from 24, for the lowest performing to 144 for the best performing institutions. The data on the composite score could be interpreted such that a university desirous of appearance amongst the top 100 of all the three world ranking must target a composite score of 144 and its present composite score would indicate the distance that it has to fathom to achieve the goal. The composite scores of

all the Institutions of Eminence (IoE) and of the best performing 20 Higher Educational Institutions, called Top 20 HEI, in the three world ranking are plotted in Chart 1.

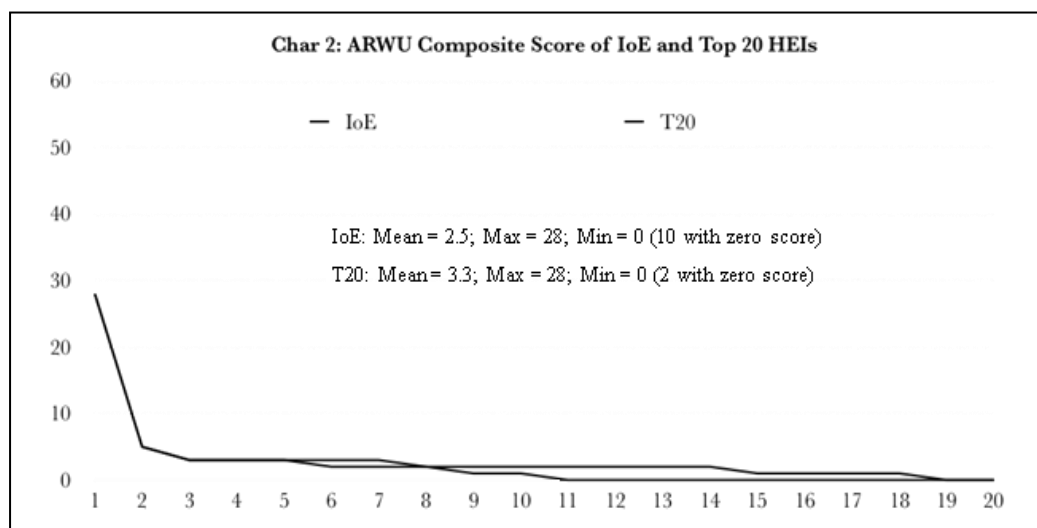
The Grid Lines, from Top to Bottom in the diagrams denote the target scores for being reckoned amongst the Top 100, 101-200, 201-300 and 301-400 ranks and gap between the target scores and the actual scores indicate the distance that the individual institutions have to fathom to reach their targeted goals in terms of the ranking. As is already explained that IoE selected 10 Public and 10 Private higher educational institutions and did not necessarily select the best ranked institutions under the category with the result that some of the best ranked institutions got omitted from being included primarily because of the compulsion of choosing equal numbers of the public and private institutions and also because in each of the category they did not select the best ranked institution.

The composite scores of IoE averaged at 15.35 ranging from a maximum of 76 to a minimum of 0 -- and there were at least 4 IoE, including 2 Greenfield, have composite score of zero meaning thereby that they were never ranked by any of the three world ranking agencies. In sharp contrast the best 20 institution, which comprised of 19 public and 1 private higher educational institutions have a significantly higher mean composite score of 20.8 ranging from a maximum of 76 to minimum of 6. Obviously, had the best ranked institutions been chosen for inclusion in IoE, the chances of their scoring better in the world rankings would have been significantly higher (Chart 1).



Since the composite score was calculated on the basis of the ranking frequency and the rank position of an institution each time it was ranked by any of the ranking agencies, the score could be interpreted as if universities are to get ranked by all the three agencies. However, since it would be sufficient for the psychological satisfaction of a university to be counted amongst the top ranking institutions in any of the rankings, it was felt desirable that

the composite scores for each of the three ranking agencies could be plotted individually and separately. With this in view, the data on composite scores --- actual and the targets --- have been plotted for each of the three rankings:



ARWU: A similar comparison of the composite scores of the Institutions of Eminence and the 20 best rank Indian higher educational institutions, shows a similar trend. The mean score of the 20 best ranked universities was computed at 3.3 ranging from a maximum of 28 to a minimum of 0 but with only 2 institutions with zero scores. In contrast, the average mean score of IoE worked out to be only 2.5 ranging between a maximum of 28 to a minimum of 0 with as many as 10 institutions with zero scores. Thus, a maximum of two IoEs have some likelihood to be ranked amongst the top 500 universities of the world with a maximum of one showing potential of getting ranked amongst the Top 300 in the short-run and amongst the Top 200 in a reasonable period of time. Had the scheme selected the 20 best ranked institutions by ARWU, the number and probability of such institutions could have been somewhat higher (Chart 2).

The Ranking: The contrast becomes all the more obvious as far as The ranking is concerned. The data reveal that the composite scores of IoE averaged 5.6 ranging between 23 and 0 with 5 institutions with zero score included in the list. In comparison, the Top 20 Indian institutions best ranked by THE scored an average of 8.35 ranging between a maximum of 23 and a minimum of 4. Data clearly show that there is a possibility that at least two IoEs could rise up the ladder to be reckoned amongst the top 300 ranks by THE ranking. Additionally, another three institution of higher education appear likely to be counted amongst the top 400 universities in the short-run. However, had the best ranked 20 institutions selected for IoE, the chances would have been significantly higher (Chart 3).

This painstaking analysis proves one very obvious fact that while India could learn from the experiences of other countries and emulate models, in this case of promoting selective excellence, but the same would not work simply because the policy planners, administrators and regulators have their own compulsion which does not necessarily help them the best decision. The history of rankings of each institution ever ranked by any of the three agencies have been there for everyone to analyse and take informed decision but the actual decision making (even though it was very elaborate and time consuming with a very senior bureaucrat heading the committee comprising two eminent academicians from abroad and a very senior management guru, to select the institutions for inclusion in the elite list of IoE) suffered in terms of selection on account of the contextual compulsions of balancing between the private and public and the need for accommodating Greenfield institution, just to mention a few. The effect of compromises arising out of such compulsions leads to giving the tag of eminence to institutions which had lower ranking frequencies and composite scores and thereby decreasing the chances of Indian institutions getting ranked amongst the top ranking universities of the world. At the same time, exclusion of better ranked institutions with higher ranking frequencies and composite scores would suffer from demotivation which might further pull down the probability of larger number of Indian higher educational institutions getting ranked better (Qamar, 2018a).

Will the Private Sector Come to the Rescue?

Following the national education policy 1986 and the programme of action 1992, there has been rapid rise in the number of different types of private players in higher education. Mitigating investment gaps, promoting healthy competition and thus promoting excellence in higher education have been the principal arguments advanced in favour of the private participation in higher education. Three decades later, the higher education scenario in the country is now dominated by the private players as they account for nearly 38 per cent of the universities and 69 per cent of the colleges and stand alone institutions (Table 4).

TABLE 4

Share of the Self-financed Private Higher Educational Institutions in India

<i>HEIs</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Unaided Private</i>	<i>Share of the Private</i>
Central Universities	46	0	0.00%
Institutions of National Importance	106	0	0.00%
Deemed Universities	123	80	65.04%
State Universities	627	262	41.79%
University Sector	902	342	37.92%
Colleges	39,050	24,620	63.05%
Stand Alone Institutions	10,011	9,200	91.90%
Colleges Sector	49,061	33,820	68.93%
Total	49,963	34,162	68.37%

Source: AISHE 2017; The number of Private Stand Alone Institutions have been estimated using thumb rules

TABLE 5

Performance of the Public and Private Higher Educational Institutions in the World Ranking

<i>Parameters</i>	<i>Public</i>	<i>Private</i>
Total Number of Universities/University-level Institutions	560	342
Number (Per centage) of Institutions Ranked by:		
ARWU (2019)	15 (2.68%)	1 (0.29%)
THE (2020)	43 (7.68%)	13 (3.80%)
QS (2020)	18 (3.21%)	6 (1.75%)
Composite Score		
Maximum	76	8
Minimum	1	0
Average	9.19	3.22

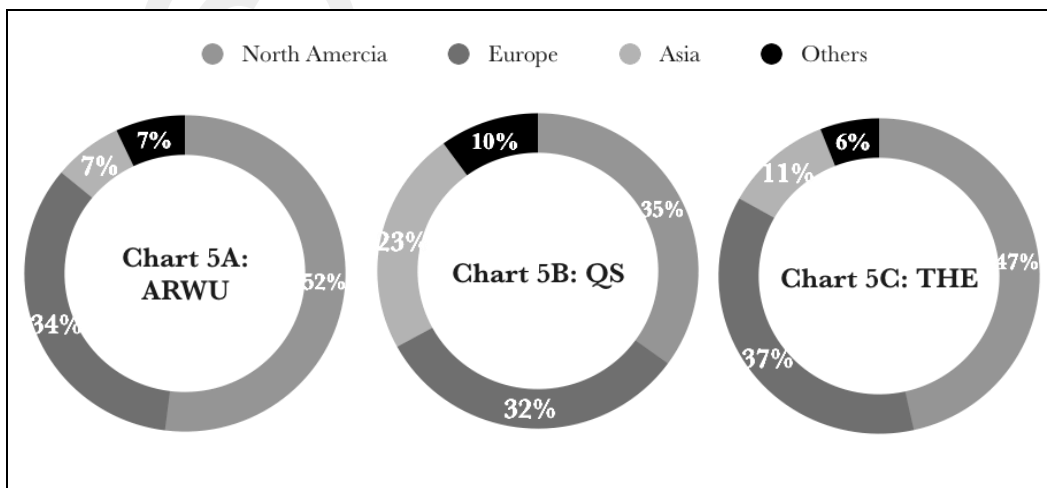
Source: Computed by the author on the basis of the ranking data as reported by the respective ranking agencies

Going by the latest available data on the ranking by the three most popular ranking agencies, not only a fewer private universities were found to be ranked at any position than the public universities but also the composite scores of the private universities was found to be much lower (Table 5).

It is clear that in 2019, while 15 public universities were ranked at any position by ARWU, but it included just one private university meaning thereby that only 0.29 per cent of the private universities as compared to 2.68 per cent of the public universities were ranked by ARWU. Similarly, only 3.80 per cent of the private universities could be ranked by THE, the proportion of the public universities was as high as 7.68 per cent. So has been the case with regard to the QS world ranking. The gap between the performance of the public and private universities becomes all the clearer when their Composite Scores are compared (the methodology and interpretation of the composite scores have been explained earlier in this paper). It is ubiquitous that while the mean composite score of the public universities computes at 9.19, the same for the private universities was computed as low as 3.22. Obviously, the private higher educational institutions are not likely to come up in the ranking high enough to become world class any soon.

The Larger Ecosystem

Universities do not exist and operate in a vacuums; they are situated in a larger ecosystem, though it is true that higher educational institutions play a vital role in evolving, developing and maintaining that ecosystem. But it is also truism that the larger ecosystem plays a critical role in providing the necessary and sufficient conditions for these institutions to attain excellence. It is this larger ecosystem that has ensured that most of the best universities of the world are located in the developed world. A quick analysis of the top universities as ranked by ARWU, THE and QS reveal that an overwhelming proportion of the world's best universities are located in North America and Europe and a much smaller number of such institutions are found in Asia, Oceania and South and Central America. So much so that Africa is totally missing as far as the best universities of the world are concerned (Chart 5 A, B & C).



A county-wise analysis further reveals that all the Top 100 universities of the world are located in rich and wealthy countries across all the continents, except Africa. A few top universities that exist in Asia too are located in countries that are far wealthier than India (Table 6).

TABLE 6
Location of the Top 100 Universities of World

Ranking by	North America	Europe	Asia	Other
ARWU 2017	52 Canada 4 USA 48	34 Belgium 2; Denmark 2; Finland 1; France 3; Germany 4; Netherland 4 Norway 1; Sweden 3; Switzerland 5; UK 9	7 China 2; Israel 1; Japan 3; Singapore 1	7 Australia 6; Russia 1;
QS 2018	35 Canada 4 USA 31	32 Belgium 1; Denmark 1 France 2; Germany 3 Ireland 1; Netherland 2 Sweden 2; Switzerland 4 UK 16	23 China 6; Hong Kong 5; Japan 5; Singapore 2; South Korea 4; Taiwan 1;	10 Argentina 1; Australia 7; New Zealand 1; Russia 1
THE 2018	47 Canada 4 USA 43	37 Belgium 1; Finland 1; France 1; Germany 10; Netherland 7; Sweden 2; Switzerland 3; UK 12	11 China 2; Hong Kong 3; Japan 2; Singapore 2; South Korea 2	6 Australia 6;

To examine as to why such an overwhelming proportion of the world class universities are located in certain geographies, data were collected on the characteristic features of those geographies and the same is presented in Table 5. The data clearly show that these countries are characterised by very high to high level of income as their per capita income was found to range of \$ 70,813 to \$ 36,855 and averaged at \$47,646. Secondly, the countries where most of the top 100 universities existed were found to be spending, on an average, as much as 5.4 per cent of their GDP on education (which ranged between 8.7 to 3.3) and have done so over a sustained period of time. High income coupled with higher proportion of GDP being spent on education and that too for much fewer students because of their demographics has obviously resulted in a very high per capita investment in education. As a consequence, emerges a third characteristic which is that these economies have attained a significantly higher level of the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) averaging at about 59 per cent with some economies reporting GER as high as 85.80. Beside income and spending on higher education, most of these economies are also found to be ranking much higher on critical social and

developmental parameters like Human Development Index (HDI), Ease of Doing Business and Corruption Perception Index (Table 7).

TABLE 7

The Larger Ecosystem of the Geographies where the Top 100 Universities of the World are Located vis-a-vis China and India

<i>Parameters</i>	<i>Highest</i>	<i>Lowest</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>China</i>	<i>India</i>
GDP per capita (2016) US \$	70,813	36,855	47,646	8,123	1,710
GDP per capita (2016) PPP Internal \$	87,855	37,901	59,942	15,535	6,572
Expenditure on Education as Per centage of GDP (2012)	8.7	3.3	5.4	NA	3.3
GER in Higher Education (2015)	85.80	55.5	58.88	43.39	26.87
HDI Rank (2016)	1	22	11	90	131
Ease of doing Business Rank (2017)	2	52	19.5	78	100
Corruption Perception Index Rank (2016)	1	28	13.5	79	79

In contrast, the average per capita income of China and India was found to be \$8,123 and \$1,710 respectively during the corresponding period. Even in purchasing power parity terms, the average per capita income of China and India at \$15,535 and \$6,572 compared very poorly with the geographies where most of the world class universities which stood out to be \$59,942. So is the case with regard to the participation rate in higher education and also other social and development indices. China has, however, been able to surge ahead and has a few world class universities. It is obvious that a conducive and facilitative ecosystem is a must for attaining excellence. Since Independence, we have made good strides but have still to go a long way to reach the tipping point, though it is not intended to suggest that at this level of our economic development and educational attainments we must not at all aspire to have a few world class universities, it remains a fact that the larger ecosystem and the environment are a major factor to reckon. The data further counter the argument that all the necessary and sufficient conditions for attaining excellence stand provided for and that the universities have failed to exploit them effectively to realise their full potential.

Abundance of Intellectual Resources

Since excellence is about achieving the benchmark set by the most excellent institution, data were collected on the intellectual resources that the best of the universities of the world have and also that the best of the Indian higher educational institutions have. Additionally, data on the select parameters were also collected for the universities and colleges in the country. The best universities of the world are larger in size as their average enrolment was found to be close to 17,962 with the average faculty size of 1,754 and thereby returning an average Student Teacher Ratio (STR) of 12. In contrast, Indian higher educational institutions are much smaller size as the average enrolment in the best higher educational institutions was worked out to be 10,765 with a faculty size of 632 returning an STR of 16. Thus, the best of our institution compare poorly with the best of the world in terms of adequacy of intellectual resources. The gap between our best and the rest of higher educational institutions are all the more disquieting (Table 8).

TABLE 8
Intellectual resources

<i>Parameters</i>	<i>Best of the World</i>	<i>Best of India</i>	<i>Average of Universities</i>	<i>Average of Colleges</i>
Students	17,962	10,765	5000+	600+
Faculty	1754	632	250+	<50
STR	12	16	21	24
Nobel	73	??		

Faculty and intellectual resources play a dominant role in determining excellence of higher educational institutions. Despite all technological advancements and espoused advantages of leveraging information communication entertainment technologies in teaching and research, the faculty continue to remain a critical factor. A critical mass of highly qualified and dedicated faculty appears to be a foremost necessary condition for attaining excellence. Any compromise either in terms of adequacy or quality is likely to have a detrimental effect on the health of higher education. The economies which today have an overwhelming proportion of the world class universities had realised this much before and have been creating all the conducive conditions to enable universities and other higher educational institutions to create, recruit and retain a highly qualified talented teachers. In contrast, universities and colleges in India have been resorting to measures like ban on creating new faculty positions, leaving the sanctioned faculty positions vacant or filling up the faculty position on contractual, part-time, guest-faculty basis. Most often, such measures have been resorted due to paucity of funds and financial support. Even in terms of policy prescription, the Student Teacher Ratio (STR) requirements have been adversely reduced. All India Council of Technical Education (AICTE), now prescribes an STR of 20 as compared

to 15 a few years ago. The draft national education policy now seeks to fix the STR at 30 as compared to the prevalent policy of 10 for PG and 15 for UG programmes.

Opulence of Financial Resources

Financial resources play a critical role in promoting excellence simply because excellence is an expensive proposition. Availability of adequate financial resources and freedom to utilise them for the educational purpose is a necessary prerequisite because it enable universities to create and maintain physical facilities and infrastructure, higher and retain faculty in required numbers and provide for the abundant research support in terms of laboratory, library, travels, intellectual resources etc. Since developing world class universities is about global benchmarking, data on financial resources of the best universities of the world were collected and their averages were presented alongside the realities in India and the same is presented in Table 9.

TABLE 9
Per Student Expenditure

	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Average</i>
Best of the World (US \$)	2,83,161	41,400	1,68,080
Best of India (US \$)	17,437	1,816	7,314
Best of India (PPP \$)	66,321	6,906	27,817
India Spends (US \$)	6.16%	4.39%	4.35%
India Spends (PPP \$)	23.42%	16.68%	16.55%

The data reveal that the top-ranking universities of the world spend an average of \$1,68,080 per student per annum with some universities spending as much as \$2,83,161 per student per annum though a few of the world class universities were also found spending as low as \$41,400. The data on per student spending by the best of the best higher educational institutions compare very poorly as they spend on an average no more than \$7,314 per student per year. The highest that an institution spends is \$17,437 per student per year whereas a few of them spend as low as \$1,816 per student per year. Clearly, the best performing universities in India do not even spend 5 per cent of what the best universities of the world do. Even if we convert the spending in terms of purchasing power parity, the best of our higher educational institutions spend no more than 17 per cent of what the best of the world do. Obviously, our institutions are bound to get ranked at low position. It may, however, be mentioned that being expensive does not mean recovering all the cost from the recipient of higher education. In fact the cost recovery from students in the best of the universities of the world ranges between 20 - 30 per cent. This further makes out a strong case for public investment and alternative sources of funding for higher education in the country.

Freedom to Operate and Experiment - the Regulatory Framework

Universities are born autonomous everywhere in the world and India has been no exception; they are empowered by law to take their academic, administrative and financial decisions through their decision making bodies like the academic councils, finance committees and executive councils. Sadly, however, many of these powers have, over time, been circumscribed, if not usurped totally, by a plethora of notifications, regulations and guidelines issued by governments and regulatory bodies such that universities are now autonomous only with the permissions of their masters. This has invariably been done on the pretext of public accountability and promotion of excellence. However, there are compelling evidences to prove that the quality of higher education is essentially inversely proportional to the intensity of regulations, at least in India (Qamar, 2016). It would therefore be interesting to examine the performance of 'universities', which are subject to much tighter regulations imposed by multiple regulatory bodies vis-a-vis the 'institutions of national importance' which are subject to minimal regulation and are generally self-governed. With this in view, the performance of these two types of institutions in the three popular world ranking agencies were tabulated and the same is presented in Table 10. The data reveal that the institutions of national importance have fared far better than the universities and thus endorsing the earlier findings based on a different methodology (Qamar, 2017).

TABLE 10

Performance of the Universities and Institutions of National Importance in the World Ranking

<i>Parameters</i>	<i>Universities</i>	<i>INIs</i>
Total Number	797	106
Number (Per centage) of Institutions found Ranked by:		
ARWU (2019)	8 (1.0%)	8 (7.55%)
THE (2020)	37 (4.64)	18 (16.98%)
QS (2020)	17 (2.13%)	7 (6.60%)
Composite Score		
Maximum	76	48
Minimum	1	1
Average	6.09	13.05

Source: Computed by the author on the basis of the ranking data as reported by the respective ranking agencies

It may be seen from the data that a significantly higher proportion of the institutions of national importance got ranked by all the three ranking agencies as compared to the universities. In 2019, ARWU ranked 8 INIs which as a proportion of the total number of INIs

in the country worked out to be 7.55 per cent whereas the proportion of the universities ranked by ARWU was as low as 1.0 per cent. Similarly, while 16.98 per cent of INIs were ranked by THE in 2020, the proportion in case of the universities was only 4.64 per cent. So has been the case with the QS 2020 wherein 6.6 per cent of INIs were ranked as compared to only 2.13 per cent of the universities. The data also show that not only a greater proportion of the INIs were ranked by various agencies, they were also ranked better than the universities because the average composite score for INIs was found to be 13.05 as compared to 6.09 for the universities. Obviously, autonomy plays a critical role in determining excellence.

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Status of Educational Attainments among Female Population in Haryana, India

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Abstract

Social indicators like religion, caste and creed become stronger indices when these are coupled with literacy and education to distinguish between inter- and intra-social groups. A social group with a higher level of educational attainment is considered more active, productive and dynamic than those having a lower level of education. Higher education is regarded as an important factor for bringing about socio-economic changes. Studies show that there exists a significant gap between male and female with regard to the level of education in the developing countries in which female literacy is found very low. The present case study of Haryana, a State adjacent to Delhi, confirms the above statement.

As per the census of India 1981, female literacy in the State was 22 per cent against 48 per cent for male population. The share of female literacy increased to 33 per cent in 1991, 55 per cent in 2001 and 67 per cent in 2011 --- still lagging behind by 20 per cent against the male population. It is also to be noted that the Mewat district of Haryana registered only 38 per cent female literacy against 73 per cent among male. A general view about low literacy among female population in Haryana is that it is due to cultural taboos. The society is divided into many Khaps – small cultural groups, which control the social and cultural activities of the society. The Khaps do not allow much freedom to women to acquire modern education and participate in the development programmes.

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The paper highlights the status of educational attainment among the women population in Haryana. In spite of the economic prosperity in the State, the level of higher education among the female population is far behind the expectations and behind the national average. Hence an objective of the paper is to investigate the reasons behind such a low level of educational attainments among the female population in Haryana.

The study is based on secondary data derived from the censuses of India, ranging from 1971 to 2011. Education index has been found out for each district separately to understand the district-wise differences in educational level among the female population and to highlight the main reasons behind low level of education among them. The study may hopefully help in the spread of higher education among the Haryanavi women and help the planners to achieve their goal in educational planning in the State.

Introduction

Educational attainments may simply be defined as the acquisition of various levels of formal education such as primary, secondary and higher education, medical, technical and vocational education and training, etc. In countries like ours, in which literacy and education are divided by drawing a hairline distinction between them, persons with primary education, who form a larger segment of population, may in fact be considered just literate because most of them can only read but are unable to express their feelings in writing. The government too has defined literacy loosely in order to cover a larger size of population, in the seven plus age group, who can read and write with understanding. Because of change in the definition of literacy in the previous censuses, the percentage share of literate persons in the country has apparently increased to a satisfactory level. However, the primary educated people of India may not be comparable to their counterparts in any of the advanced countries.

The government of India is striving to improve the country's educational status in order to enhance the standard of living, overcome the problems of poverty and unemployment, achieve social equality and equal income distribution, etc. (See the Kothari Commission Report, 1964-66). Education is believed to facilitate the well being of the citizens and the overall socio-economic and other kinds of development of the country. It is considered not only as an instrument for enhancing efficiency but also as an effective tool of widening and augmenting democratic participation and upgrading the overall quality of social life (Goel, 2008).

In spite of all efforts, levels of gender inequality in education tend to be higher in developing countries which directly or indirectly hinders the process of economic development and growth (Klasen, 2002; Knowles, 2002). On the other hand, gender equality, be it in education or any other area of social life, sustains economic growth, promotes harmony and ensures the basic dignity of human life. The Human Development Report 1994 highlighted the fact that for all the developing countries taken together, the female literacy rate is 29 per cent lower than the male literacy rate, which may be because of the rural-urban disparity, economic inequalities, degree of concentration of educational institutions, and the low status ascribed to female, etc. Because of these reasons, girls in our country are

greatly discouraged and are not allowed to go for higher or technical education. As a result, the presence of women in these sectors is still insignificant or very low.

Data from the Indian censuses during the last few decades have revealed a large difference in literacy between the male and female populations. A close examination of the census data reveals that the difference between male and female literacy was higher during the earlier decades, especially during the 1960s and 1970s, while the gap was reduced gradually during the later part of the twentieth century. Studies highlight that the male-female differentiation in literacy has been narrowing down largely due to opening of schools in the countryside and also due to the increasing socio-economic development of rural masses. (U-DISE report 2014).

With regards to the attainment of higher and technical education, it is said that both accessibility to education as well as socio-economic background of individuals are to be held responsible. It has to do with the family/society's vision to allow children to go either for religious education, technical education or higher education. Low socio-economic status of parents affects their attitude towards their children's education. India is one of the countries in which a large difference exists between the education of boys and girls.

Like many other States in India, Haryana too suffers from several social evils as well as discrimination between the boys and the girls in the matter of education, even though it is a prosperous State. Girls face many restrictions while boys are given more freedom. Female participation in public domain, such as in regard to material control, participation in politics, exercise of authority or power in domestic affairs is very much limited in Haryana. This is perhaps due to illiteracy, rigid adherence to conservative cultural values, lack of awareness, poverty, etc. Contrary to the above, it has been documented that adequate education and training provide systematic knowledge, develop skills, abilities, character and mental power, and that all these become the tools of empowerment for both men and women. As such, quality education is likely to enhance the female's economic independence by securing for them paid employment. In its 2001 Report, the World Bank said that "Educating female results in improved productivity, rising income and economic development with a better quality of life --- notably in healthier and better nourished population."

Objectives

The main objective of the study is to find out the educational status of women in the districts of Haryana. At the same time, the paper has also tried to highlight the educational differentials between the male and female populations in the State. With these two objectives, the present study was carried out by using secondary data for five decadal censuses, i.e. 1971, 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011. Attempt has been made to classify the educational status into four groups for the purpose of a clearer understanding. These categories are: up to middle; senior secondary; graduation and above; technical and professional. The paper also tries to understand the role of Khaps with regard to educational attainments among the women in the State of Haryana.

Database and Methodology

The paper is based on secondary data derived from the censuses of India for the periods mentioned above. The percentage of literacy and educational attainment for each category was calculated for each district. Finally, an educational index was worked out by applying a suitable technique which has been discussed in a separate section of the paper. The values of educational attainments have been classified into three groups --- i.e. high, medium and low -- to show the spatial pattern over the state.

Literacy in Haryana

A general discussion of the 1971 data revealed that 25.71 per cent of the population was literate in Haryana, with 17.77 per cent of the female and 38.9 per cent of the male having been literate in that year. The overall literacy rate subsequently increased to 76.64 per cent in 2011, with male and female literacy rates being 85.38 per cent and 66.77 per cent respectively.

Thus, while we see that Haryana had a very low female literacy rate in 1971 as compared to male literacy, a significant progress has been made with regard to female literacy in sync with the economic growth in the State. This can be seen from Table 1 which reveals that female literacy rate in Haryana has made a quantum jump from 1971 to an impressive 66.77 per cent in 2011 --- an almost six times increase. While the male literacy rate too has registered an improvement from 38.90 per cent to 85.38 per cent during the same period, it was only a little more than doubled.

TABLE 1
District-wise Literacy Rate of Women in Haryana: 1971 - 2011

<i>State/ District</i>	<i>1971</i>		<i>1981</i>		<i>1991</i>		<i>2001</i>		<i>2011</i>	
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Haryana	38.9	17.77	48.20	22.27	56.08	32.72	78.5	55.73	85.4	66.77
Ambala		30.76	53.03	34.97	62.67	47.23	82.3	67.39	88.5	76.64
Bhiwani		DNA	48.13	16.30	57.26	28.29	80.3	53.00	87.4	64.80
Faridabad		DNA	52.14	22.93	59.55	33.24	85.1	56.31	89.9	75.17
Fatehabad		DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	68.2	46.53	78.1	59.29
Gurgaon		17.26	48.61	20.02	53.09	27.12	88.0	47.78	90.3	77.64
Hissar		14.02	41.46	16.71	49.83	26.02	76.6	51.08	82.8	62.31
Jhajjar		DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	83.3	59.65	89.4	70.96
Jind		9.17	38.08	12.24	49.47	24.27	73.8	48.51	82.5	61.58
Kaithal		DNA	DNA	DNA	44.40	23.01	69.2	47.31	79.3	60.69
Karnal		17.81	47.27	24.49	54.39	35.24	76.3	57.97	83.7	68.29
Kurukshetra		DNA	41.75	21.56	56.89	38.69	78.1	60.61	83.5	69.18
Mahendragarh		11.19	55.52	20.44	61.88	29.61	84.7	54.08	91.3	65.25
Mewat		DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	61.2	DNA	73.0	37.58
Palwal		DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	75.1	DNA	82.6	56.40
Panchkula		DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	80.9	65.65	88.6	77.48
Panipat		DNA	DNA	DNA	53.90	32.85	75.1	57.97	40.8	68.23
Rewari		DNA	DNA	DNA	66.52	37.70	88.4	60.83	92.9	70.54
Rohtak		20.13	56.44	26.82	62.56	37.32	83.2	62.59	88.4	71.19
Sirsa		DNA	39.52	18.88	46.70	27.79	70.1	49.93	78.6	61.16
Sonipat		DNA	54.28	25.34	62.87	38.90	83.1	60.68	89.4	70.88
Yamunanagar		DNA	DNA	DNA	57.56	41.26	78.8	63.39	85.1	71.99

DNA: Data Not Available

Source: Census Reports 1971, 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011

It is also noteworthy that the increase in the female literacy rate during the decade 1971-81 was about 10 per cent points. At the same time, the growth rate continued to increase by more than 10 per cent points in every subsequent decade and climbed to 55.73 per cent in 2001 and 66.77 per cent in 2011.

However, comparing the female literacy rate in Haryana with those in other States, the picture looks quite dismal. Despite its immense improvement over the last four decades, Haryana remains among the lower category States as far as the female literacy rate is concerned. At an all-India level, Haryana stands at the 16th place in respect of overall literacy, 20th in male literacy and a lowly 23rd in female literacy. While its literacy rate is lower than the national average, it is significant to note that it is much worse than its immediate neighbours, viz. Punjab, Himachal Pradesh and the Union Territory of Chandigarh.

District-wise Female Literacy Rates

Of the seven districts in the State in 1971, the highest female literacy rate (30.76 per cent) was recorded in the district of Ambala which was considerably higher than the State average (17.77 per cent), whereas the lowest female literacy rate was found in district of Jind (9.17 per cent). The female literacy rate in the remaining five districts then varied from 11.19 per cent to 20.13 per cent. In 1981, district Ambala once again had the highest percentage (42.80 per cent) of literate women whereas the lowest percentage of female literacy was again recorded in the district of Jind (15.23 per cent). The literacy rate of women in other districts varied from 20 to 33 per cent.

A considerable increase of 12.68 per cent in the literacy rate of women was registered during 1991. Ambala again registered the highest female literacy rate (56.62 per cent) while Kaithal district registered the lowest rate (28.37 per cent). In the remaining 14 districts, women literacy rate ranged from 50.07 per cent to 30.12 per cent in Jind district.

According to the census of 2001, the female literacy in Haryana had increased to 55.73 per cent by that time. Within a span of 10 years, an increase of 15.26 per cent was recorded. Out of 19 districts, seven had above 60 per cent female literacy. Ambala district was again placed on the top with regard to female literacy (67.39 per cent) while the literacy rate was less than 59.65 per cent in the remaining districts.

During the decade of 2001-2011, literacy rate of women in Haryana increased from 55.73 per cent to 66.77 per cent, a rise of 11.04 points. At the district level there has been a remarkable increase in the literacy rate as nine districts of the State had registered the rates above 70 per cent. This time district Gurgaon (77.64 per cent) took the lead, followed by district Panchkula (77.48 per cent) and district Ambala (76.64 per cent). The remaining districts registered less than 75 per cent female literacy. The lowest female literacy rate was registered in the newly created district of Mewat --- only 37.58 per cent.

Educational Attainment of Women in Haryana

Education is an important medium of acquiring knowledge and information. The level of education, especially higher level of education, provides dynamism to society and helps in social upliftment. Hence, access to education has been recognised as a fundamental right of both male and female. The role of female education is multipronged. It has the potential of

empowering female in several different ways: by equipping them with the awareness and knowledge required to make beneficial life choices, by increasing their ability to access resources and services, by enabling them to become informed consumers and citizens, by inculcating a feeling of self-worth and by increasing their ability to accept challenges among other things.

The educational attainments have been grouped into four categories: (a) up to Middle, (b) up to Senior Secondary, (c) Graduation and above, (d) Technical & Professional Education. Up to the Middle level includes Primary and Middle education, while up to the Senior Secondary level includes Matriculation / Secondary / Higher Secondary / Intermediate / Pre-University. Graduation and above includes graduation, post-graduation and research (PhD). Technical and professional education includes Engineering, Medical, Management, etc. The educational levels of women in Haryana have been shown in Table 2 below.

It is to be noted that about 10 per cent female were found educated up to the Middle level in 1971, which has been increased to about 26 per cent during 2001. The level of technical education remained very low while the levels of senior secondary education and graduation were found to have increased by around 10 per cent points only.

The educational attainment of women at different levels for each district has been presented in the following paragraphs.

Middle School Education

The trend of women's educational attainment up to the Middle level was the highest in district Ambala during all the three decades, while the lowest percentages were found in the districts of Jind (during 1971-81), Kaithal (during 1991) and Fatehabad (during 2001) respectively. It is to be noted that in no case the percentage of female educational level crossed the limit of 31 per cent for this category.

TABLE 2
District-wise Women's Educational Attainment in Haryana

State/ District	1971			1981			1991			2001						
	Primary & Middle	Matriculation & Higher secondary	Grad- uation & above	Technical / Pro- fessional	Primary & Middle	Matriculation & Higher secondary	Graduation & above	Technical / Pro- fessional	Primary & Middle	Matriculation & Higher secondary	Graduation & above	Technical / Pro- fessional				
Haryana	9.77	1.41	0.42	0.21	12.51	3.6	1.04	0.4	18.77	6.68	1.93	0.44	25.56	11.54	3.41	0.73
Ambala	16.82	3.24	1.07	0.37	20.11	6.57	2.13	0.73	26.86	11.07	4.67	0.81	31.91	16.16	6	0.41
Bhiwani	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	9.01	1.63	0.45	0.26	15.91	4.53	0.64	0.29	25.39	9.78	1.47	0.37
Faridabad	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	11.47	5.18	2.01	0.31	17.4	8.65	3.61	0.4	22.59	12.27	5.87	0.26
Fatehabad	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	21.8	7.45	1.45	0.38
Gurgaon	9.71	1.4	0.42	0.21	11.11	3.13	0.99	0.32	15.85	6.09	2.24	0.42	19.73	9.78	4.73	0.41
Hissar	7.27	0.83	0.24	0.15	9.45	2.63	0.71	0.29	14.36	4.82	1.25	0.35	22.95	9.73	2.54	0.58
Jhajjar	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	28.59	14.27	2	0.33
Jind	4.58	0.43	0.11	0.08	6.85	1.49	0.38	0.19	14.1	4.02	0.78	0.29	22.67	8.37	1.34	0.22
Kaithal	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	13.47	3.62	0.75	0.24	22.93	7.63	1.52	0.41
Karnal	10	1.54	0.48	0.19	14.1	4.42	1.35	0.42	20.48	6.76	2.59	0.54	27.58	11.6	3.52	0.41
Kurukshetra	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	13.13	2.89	0.73	0.31	24.25	6.72	2.09	0.44	29.61	12.54	3.56	0.41
Mahend- ravarh	5.95	0.37	0.08	0.07	11.65	1.72	0.37	0.22	17.88	3.66	0.43	0.23	28.57	8.62	1.07	0.25
Mewar	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA
Palwal	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA
Panchkula	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	24.71	15.86	11.36	0.95
Panipat	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	18.75	6.97	1.98	0.43	25.99	12.9	3.74	0.37
Rewari	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	23.14	6.1	1.08	0.26	31.03	12.49	2.18	0.38
Rohatak	11.42	1.55	0.38	0.33	14.35	4.52	1.21	0.63	20.97	8.79	1.73	0.6	26.68	15.89	4.73	0.85
Sirsa	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	10.71	2.58	0.53	0.29	15.65	4.8	1.11	0.39	23.46	8.65	2.04	0.33
Sonipat	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	13.87	4.57	0.99	0.6	21.29	10.44	2.43	0.63	26.92	14.97	3.03	0.65
Yamuna- nagar	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	DNA	25.4	7.87	2.43	0.55	31.17	13.9	4.12	0.41

Source: Census Reports 1971, 1981, 1991 and 2001

Senior Secondary Education

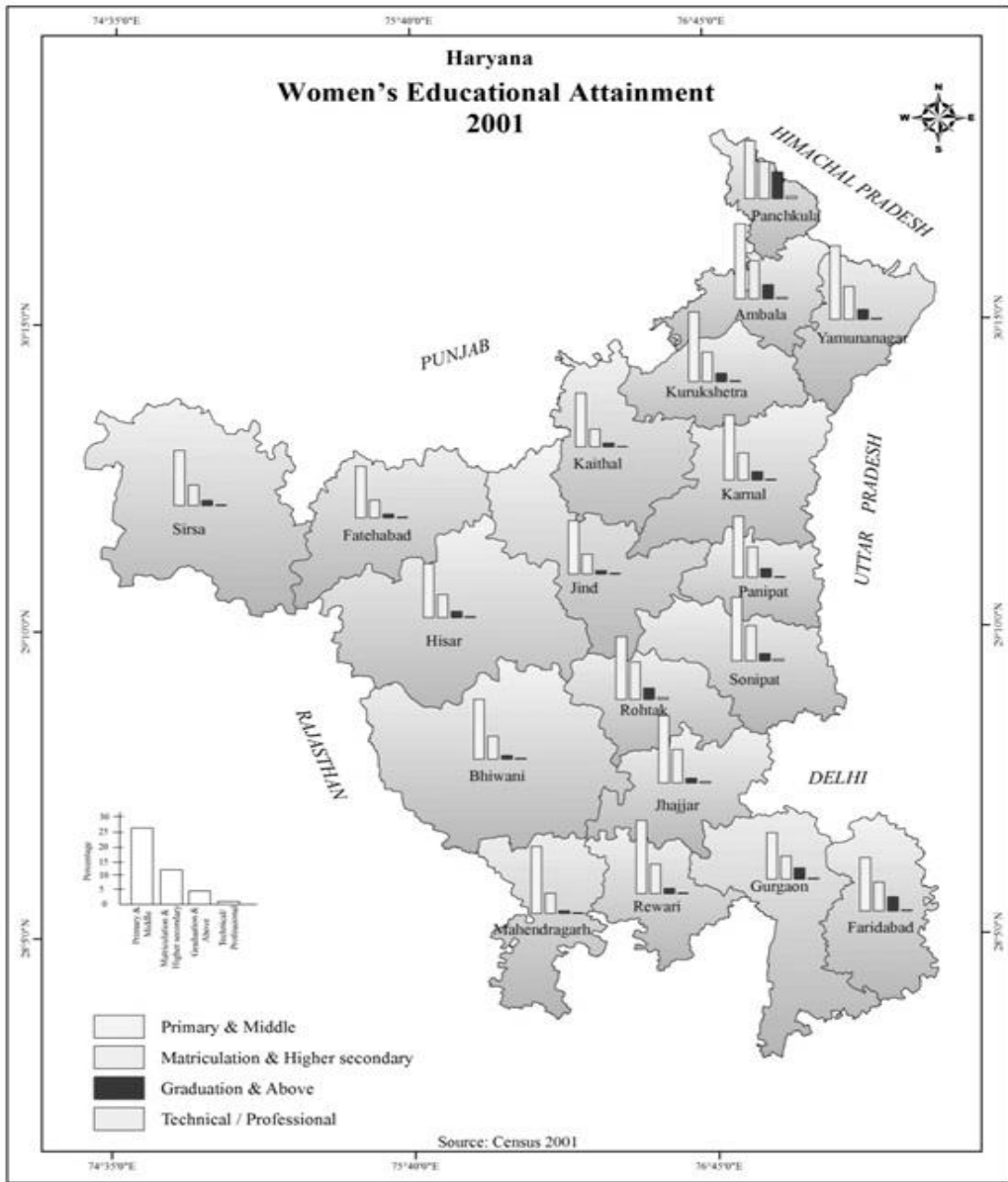
Women's attainment at this level of education in Haryana varied from 1.41 per cent in 1971 to 11.54 per cent in 2001. The district-wise trend shows that district Ambala recorded the highest percentage in all the four decades, followed by Jind, Kaithal and Fatehabad during 1971-2001, while Mahendragarh was found the lowest.

Graduation and Above

At the level of graduation and above, educational attainment of the women population in the State was just 0.42 per cent in 1971. The table reveals that the highest percentage under this category was found in district Ambala during all the four decades while the lowest percentage was found in district Mahendragarh in the same four decades. In the remaining districts, it ranged from 0.11 per cent to 5.87 per cent.

Technical and Professional Education

Women's attainments at the level of technical and professional education in Haryana during 1971, 1981, 1991 and 2001 were found disappointing. The table reveals that during 1971, the total percentage of women in the State who had some kind of technical and professional educational qualification was only 0.21 per cent. In all the districts of the State, the level of technical and professional education remained less than one per cent during all the four decades. Districts Panchkula, Rohtak and Ambala acquired a higher positions under this category. (See Fig. 1.)



Index of Educational Status of Women

As has already been pointed out, female literacy rates in our country have been lagging far behind the male literacy rates because of a variety of historical, social and economic factors. Due to the prevalence of prejudices and social milieu

against women's education, they are not allowed much mobility and granted relatively low status in the society. Economically, the appalling poverty and low degree of occupational participation among women are the factors behind the wide disparity in the male-female literacy rates. However, the growing social awakening and male literacy have stimulated female literacy directly or indirectly. The efforts through the National Policy for Empowerment of Women has also created a conducive environment for all round development of women which may enable them to realise their full potential. Haryana has shown a trend of increasing literacy among its female population but the State seems still lagging behind in educational attainments as compared to the surrounding States. To assess the various levels of educational attainments among the women of Haryana, an index of educational attainment for each district has been operationalised by using the following formula.

The education index for each district has been calculated as $\frac{x_i}{\bar{x}}, i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$

$$\text{where } \bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n}$$

n is number of districts, and

$$x_i = a + 2b + 3c + 4d$$

where

- a represents the percentage of women up to Middle level of education,
- b represents the percentage of women up to Senior Secondary level of education,
- c represents the percentage of women in Graduation and above level of education,
- d represents the percentage of women in Technical and Professional level of education.

Table 3 presents the district-wise index of women's education in Haryana during the decadal censuses of 1971, 1981, 1991 and 2001. In 1971, the index of educational status of women in the State varied from the highest (1.99) in district Ambala to the lowest (0.43) in district Jind. The districts of Rohtak (1.21), Karnal (1.09), Gurgaon (1.04), Hissar (0.73) and Mahendragarh (0.51) had been at 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th places respectively in the index of educational status of women in Haryana.

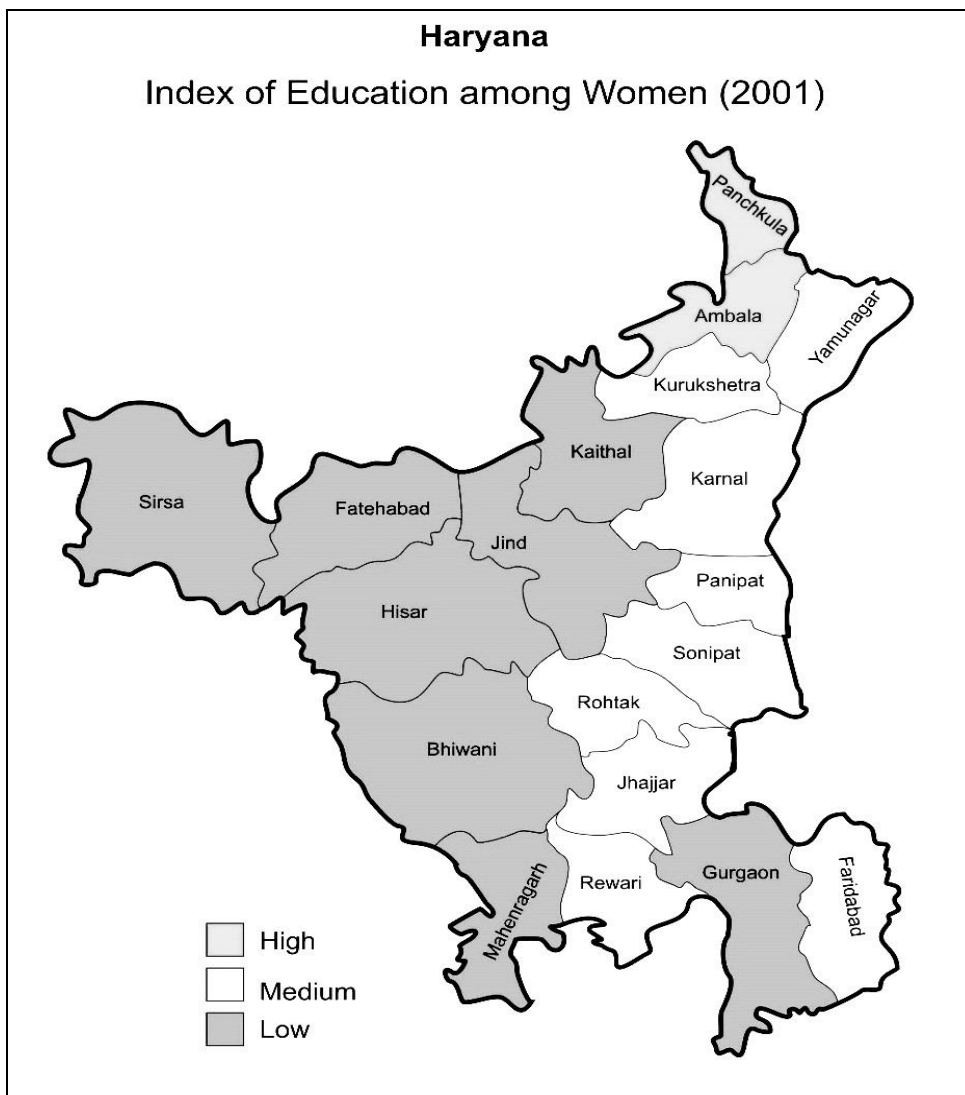
TABLE 3

District-wise Index of Education among Women in Haryana: 1971- 2001

<i>District</i>	<i>1971</i>	<i>1981</i>	<i>1991</i>	<i>2001</i>
Ambala	1.99	1.81	1.68	1.38
Bhiwani	DNA	0.62	0.71	0.83
Faridabad	DNA	1.24	1.19	1.07
Fatehabad	DNA	DNA	DNA	0.68
Gurgaon	1.04	0.92	0.92	0.89
Hissar	0.73	0.77	0.74	0.84
Jhajjar	DNA	DNA	DNA	1.06
Jind	0.43	0.5	0.65	0.72
Kaithal	DNA	DNA	0.61	0.71
Karnal	1.09	1.22	1.11	1.02
Kurukshetra	DNA	0.95	1.16	1.08
Mahendragarh	0.51	0.73	0.69	0.81
Panchkula	DNA	DNA	DNA	1.53
Panipat	DNA	DNA	1.02	1.04
Rewari	DNA	DNA	1	1.04
Rohtak	1.21	1.26	1.17	1.23
Sirsa	DNA	0.79	0.76	0.78
Sonipat	DNA	1.21	1.32	1.11
Yamunanagar	DNA	DNA	1.28	1.18

Source: These values have been calculated by using the given formulae.

In 1981, the highest index of women's education in the State was found in district Ambala (1.81) and the lowest in district Jind (0.50). In the districts of Faridabad, Rohtak, Karnal and Sonipat, the education index varied between 1.26 and 1.21 which were comparatively higher than the other districts in the State. It was interesting to note that the districts of Kurukshetra and Gurgaon with higher economic levels fell below the districts of Sirsa, Mahendragarh, Hissar and Bhiwani districts in which the education index varied between 0.62 and 0.95 (Fig. 2). In the districts of Ambala and Gurgaon, the index of women's education decreased while it slightly went up in the districts of Hissar, Mahendragarh, Jind, Karnal and Rohtak.



In 1991, the highest education index was again recorded in district Ambala (1.68) and the lowest education index of women was found in district Kaithal (0.61). In the districts of Sonipat, Faridabad, Yamunanagar, Karnal, Kurukshetra, Panipat, Rohtak and Rewari the education index of women ranged between 1.00 and 1.32. In the districts of Gurgaon, Hisar, Sirsa, Mahendragarh, Jind, Kaithal, Bhiwani the education index of female varied from 0.61 to 0.92. The education index of women declined in the districts of Ambala, Faridabad, Hisar, Karnal, Mahendragarh, Rohtak and Sirsa marginally. In the districts of Bhiwani, Jind, Kurukshetra and Sonipat, the education index of women improved slightly.

During the decade ending 2001, district Panchkula (1.53) registered the highest education index of women in the State, followed by district Ambala (1.38) at the second place. In the districts of Yamunanagar, Sonipat, Rohtak, Rewari, Panipat, Kurukshetra, Karnal, Jhajjar and Faridabad the female education index varied from 1.02 to 1.23 while in the districts of Sirsa, Bhiwani, Gurgaon, Fatehabad, Mahendragarh, Kaithal and Jind the education index of women remained below 1.00.

It is also to be noted that in the districts of Yamunanagar, Sonipat, Karnal, Kurukshetra, Faridabad, Gurgaon and Ambala, the female education index declined in comparison to the last decade whereas in the districts of Bhiwani, Hissar, Mahendragarh, Panipat, Rewari, Jind, Rohtak and Kaithal some gain in the education index was registered in this period.

It is to be noted that in spite of the forceful intervention by the government and several NGOs and above all, the United Nation's enormous pressure with regard to the upliftment of women in matter of education, both the country and many States including Haryana could not come up to the expected results. As has already been mentioned, that a number of reasons are responsible for the slow progress of higher education in the country in general and Haryana in particular. Among other things, Khap diktat is considered a major factor for poor show with regard to the educational status in the State.

Role of the Khaps

Khap is the name of a male dominated community organisation which has been in existence since the sixth century BCE. It has no government recognition, but can exert significant social influence within the community. The Khap panchayat is a traditional institution engaged in a process of dispute resolution within village communities. Traditionally, every village has its own panchayat. Usually, some mighty and powerful persons without any election but with the acceptance of a majority of the people of the concerned village are declared to be the Khap members. The role of these panchayats is to settle the disputes between individuals and villages. Although the Khap panchayats have no constitutional status and no constitutional rights, they enjoy full legitimacy and authority among the segments of their caste and consider themselves as the custodian of honour. The Khaps act as the self-proclaimed courts (Rajpurohit and Prakash, 2015). They follow their own unwritten laws and impose self-created norms on the society in the name of preserving the morals and traditional values of the society (Yadav, 2009).

One of the main roles of the Khaps is to maintain peace and harmony between various villages by settling disputes and passing resolutions related to social welfare and by reinforcing the traditional value system. The Khap panchayat imposes its order through social boycotts and by imposing fines or forcing the victims to commit suicide (Chowdhary, 2004). The ire of the Khap panchayats is, without exception, always targeted at the women of their community. The Khap panchayats wield more power than the statutory panchayats in the State of Haryana and in Western Uttar Pradesh. Its orders against women are always very harsh and punitive in nature (Yadav, 2009; Singh, 2010). In some Haryana villages, young girls are routinely threatened, abused or killed --- all under the Khap verdict. In an adverse situation the families had to feed pesticide pills to the teenage girls and then dispose of their bodies in order to avoid the Khap verdicts. Honour killing of young couples is quite common in case of defiance of the Khap rules. Sangwan (2010) believes that this is a land in which the rule of men prevails rather than the rule of law. As such, there arise no question of

honouring the rights of women anywhere in the territories ruled by the Khap panchayats. Even the government could not do much to control the powers of these illegal institutions. In most of the Khap region, it is observed that the sex ratio is skewed and highest rates of female foeticide have been reported (Mukherjee, S, 2013; Ahlawat, 2015).

Randhir Singh, member of the Sarv Khap Panchayat of Meham Chaubisi once stated on record that “our predecessors have laid down rules, the lines along which life ought to be lived. Women, if they overstep and if they are driven by their desire, may end up being murdered.” He further stated that co-education is ruining the lives of girls. It is due to education that the society is witnessing the transgression of *maryada* by women which is ultimately leading to chaos. Another member of Sarv Khap, O P Dhankar, even went a step ahead and said that women are bound by certain norms of society which no one can overstep (Gurtoo, 2016). In October 2012, members of the Khap panchayats of Rohtak, Sonapat and Rewari suggested a lowering of the age of marriage from 18 years to 14 years in view of some cases of gang rapes. On the one hand, male are allowed some relaxation while, on the other hand, women are never allowed to bend the rule. Some schools are also forced to have separate timings for boys and girls. Fearing that their daughters would go astray, many parents marry them off at an early age, which ultimately affects the status of their educational attainments. In 2013, the Khap panchayat in a Hissar village banned mobile phones for youngsters and ordered girls not to wear jeans and t-shirts or carry a mobile phones (Mukherjee, B, 2013). In Jind district, dance by girls at social functions was banned by the panchayat which said it was a “crime against women” (Sarin, 2013). In 2004, the Tevatia clan of Haryana issued a decree stating that families with fewer than two sons could not approach a village council for the settlement of property disputes. The implication was that families with daughters did not deserve equal consideration (Roy, 2011). The main criticism of the Khap Panchayats is that they do not respect the rights of women. The Khaps seek to impose the outdated concepts of women’s dignity and their submissiveness to men as per the norms of a patriarchal society (Sangwan, 2010).

Conclusion

The study highlights the decadal variations in the female literacy, educational status and the index of educational attainments of women in Haryana. The above indicators are important to determine the overall status of women with regard to women empowerment, while emphasising their role in the family, society and work place. They have been living under conditions of social and economic inequality despite the fact that they constitute half of the work force in the rural areas and participate actively in household and other socio-economic spheres in urban areas. Still women are not able to achieve equal status and not perceived as equal partners in social and economic activities --- both at the national and state level in India.

The study found that women’s literacy was very low in Haryana during the early twentieth century but a significant change was recorded during the recent decades. A jump -- - six-fold increase --- was registered as against the male literacy which went up two-fold only.

The people of the state are aware of the importance of education of girls but they are not in favour of sending their girls for higher education as most of them are expected to help in the household chores and look after the siblings. The custom of getting the girls married at

an early age still prevails due to social pressure, especially in a milieu of honour killings, dowry and illiteracy. Most of the girls do not complete their education and drop out from the schools after primary education. As such, their attainment of higher education in the State is quite low. Ambala and Faridabad districts took the lead in higher education while Ambala and Panchkula recorded the highest share in technical education.

It is unfortunate that the State has got very low indices of women's education. Half of the total districts of Haryana have got less than one point of the index value. Ambala and Panchkula scored fairly good points as compared to other districts.

It also needs to be mentioned that in spite of its economic prosperity, the State of Haryana as registered very low sex ratios over the decades. Although a little increase in sex ratio was observed in 2011, the State recorded only 877 female per 1000 male. It clearly indicates a biased and hostile attitude against female child in the State. The Khap panchayats are highly patriarchal in nature and can mobilise a large number of people on the basis of family, gotra / community and village ties in order to exert political pressure on the government to get their demands fulfilled. For example, the Jat quota agitation during February 2015 exposed the weak-kneed nature of the government as the law and order machinery in the State simply collapsed during the agitation. It shows the dictate of the Khaps in the state. Cases like the Murthal incident and various other episodes of violence against women, especially against those belonging to the lower sections, have been telltale testimonies of the failure of Haryana administration (Gurtoo 2016).

Suggestions

It is an imperative of today that the educational status of women in Haryana should be made to improve so that women are guaranteed equal rights with their male counterparts. The government should take strong decisions, implement the laws strictly in favour of women's cause and safeguard of their interest. The strict administrative action against culprits will bring attitudinal change in the society. It will also change the patriarchal mindset of the people and recognise women as equal partners, which will promote their status in the society.

It may be said in conclusion that without an improvement in the educational status of women in Haryana, the concepts of gender equality, freedom and their participation in social, political and economic activities will remain just pipedreams. There is an urgent need to tame the Khap panchayats while providing all the required protection and opportunities and to women in order to safeguard their legitimate rights women and ensure their full participation in the nation building process in the country.

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Internal Quality Assurance Strategies in Colleges of Education in Ghana: An Institutional Theory Perspective

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Abstract

The nature of influence and implications of institutional isomorphism on quality assurance (QA) strategies of the Colleges of Education in Ghana have not received any research attention. Meanwhile, understanding the implications of isomorphism on their QA strategies empower them to employ the fit for purpose QA strategies. The purpose of this study was to provide illustrative insights into institutional isomorphism on quality assurance strategies of Colleges of Education in Ghana in order for the colleges to build fit for purpose institutional capacity for quality assurance. The study used multiple-case studies through in-depth key informant interviews and document analysis. It emerged that all the QA strategies employed by the participant colleges were influenced by coercive and mimetic isomorphism which appear to be limiting their internal QA capacity for meriting full autonomy as fully-fledged tertiary institutions. The study concludes that even though the coercive and mimetic influences on the QA strategies appear to have saved the colleges involved in this study from the expense of resources and human capital for developing their own QA strategies. Such influences have also produced low internal capacity for QA. The main limitation of this study is that it is based on illustrative case studies and does not allow generalisation to cover the entire system of Colleges of Education in Ghana. The study recommends a further study to test study to test the pervasiveness of coercive and mimetic pressures on quality assurance strategies of Colleges of Education system in Ghana.

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Introduction

Quality assurance has become the focus of attention and a central element of higher education globally. Contemporary higher education institutions are required to have robust and resilient internal quality assurance strategies in order to be publicly recognised and accepted as providing quality higher education institutions. Today's massified higher education systems are under tremendous pressure to institutional quality assurance (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumberg, 2009). The usual response to this demand on new higher education institutions has been a reliance on institutional isomorphism, especially those from the developing countries where the concept is emerging. They are compelled by environmental forces to adopt existing quality assurance practices in order to gain legitimacy and credibility. According to Leiber, Stensaker and & Harvey (2015), the aspect of context and how it influences IQA is widely under-researched from an empirical point of view. Meanwhile, general quality assurance frameworks usually do not provide context-relevant solutions for specialised higher education institutions such as teacher education institutions.

Internal quality assurance strategies of Colleges of Education (teacher education institutions) in Ghana are characterised by institutional isomorphism pressures because non-conformity to established standards may threaten their legitimacy and existence as tertiary teacher education institutions (Newman, 2018). However, how institutional isomorphism pressures are able to provide context-relevant quality assurance strategies for the Colleges of Education to fulfil their mandate has received less research attention. Meanwhile, strong isomorphic pressures towards conformity can lead institutions to adopting structures that are sometimes against the interests of efficiency and rationality (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Therefore, this study sought to examine the influence of institutional isomorphism on internal quality assurance strategies of Colleges of Education in Ghana through multiple-case studies. The goal of the study was to examine the nature of influence and implications of isomorphic pressures on internal quality assurance strategies of Colleges of Education in Ghana. The study aims to unearth the practical realities of institutional isomorphism with its associated benefits and challenges in the Colleges of Education in Ghana.

Ghanaian Colleges of Education in Context

Over the past forty years, initial teacher preparation for basic education (from pre-school to grade 9) in Ghana is offered by dedicated institutions (present Colleges of Education) has undergone a number of modifications. These modifications are a result of policy changes, which aimed at producing well-trained teachers to meet the basic education needs of the country at various times. In the early 2000s, following a comprehensive review of the educational system in Ghana, the Government published a White Paper and declared that "all Teacher Training Colleges will be upgraded into diploma-awarding institutions and be affiliated to the education oriented universities" (Government of Ghana, 2004). In this regard, 38 Public Teacher Training Colleges operating at a level equivalent to level 4 of the International System of Classification of Education (ISCED 4) were re-designated as Colleges of Education (CoEs) to offer tertiary education in 2008. The number has since increased to forty-six (46). They are made up of (1) One male only; six (6) female only and

thirty nine (39), and mixed CoEs. The general mandate of the CoEs is to train teachers for the primary schools and junior high schools. Prior to their elevation and re-designation as tertiary institutions, the then Teacher Training Institutions (TTIs) were under the Ghana Education Service (GES). This is the agency responsible for pre-tertiary education. The Teacher Education Division, one of the divisions of the Ghana Education Service, directly supervised the TTIs. Thus funding, appointment of staff and determination of requirements to enrol in the institutions were the responsibilities of GES. However, the assessment and certification of the products of TTIs has been the responsibility of the University of Cape Coast. This makes University of Cape Coast a mentor university for Colleges of Education in Ghana. The University, over the years, has collaborated with the Teacher Education Division of GES to develop and constantly evaluate the curriculum of CoEs to enable them to produce competent professional teachers for Basic Schools in Ghana (Opare, 2008). Meanwhile, Newman (2013) stated that since the re-designation of TTIs as COEs in 2008, the institutions have faced challenges regarding supervision, infrastructure, governance and autonomy. This has raised concerns about quality in the operations of the Colleges of Education.

The Quality Assurance Context of the Colleges of Education

Internal quality assurance until 2012, when the CoEs received upgradation to the tertiary status, was not a topical issue in the colleges. As indicated earlier, the CoEs were only under the monitoring and supervision regime applicable to pre-tertiary teacher education institutions in the country. They did not have any regulatory requirement to establish their own internal quality assurance mechanisms for their operations. Their elevation to tertiary status brought them under the supervisory regime of the National Accreditation Board (NAB) of Ghana. The NAB was established by the Government of Ghana in 1993 with the enactment of the NAB LAW 1993 (PNDCL 317) which has since been replaced with the National Accreditation Board Act, 2007, Act 744. NAB has the mandate to safeguard standards and enhance the quality of tertiary education as a quality Assurance Agency. The birth of the NAB as regulatory agency of the Ministry of Education therefore was to ensure that the country's tertiary education system continues to be responsive to the fast-changing world and to make its graduates progressively competitive in the world of work (NAB, 2007). NAB's role rests on decisions in getting the tertiary institutions to do the right things towards enhanced quality in the Ghanaian higher education. NAB attaches great importance to institutional audit and the role of the internal quality assurance in higher education institutions. It is therefore a requirement for all higher education institutions in Ghana to have internal quality assurance units or directorates. As a result, the Colleges of Education in Ghana have the responsibility to put in place resilient internal quality assurance systems to enhance quality in their operations and outcomes. The responsibility for enacting quality is theirs even though they are affiliated to a university for mentorship. They must have their own quality assurance strategies that are context-relevant as tertiary institutions with specialised mandate that may be different from their mentor University.

Theoretical Orientation of the Study

Institutional Theory perspective guided this study because the study was undertaken to answer the question of "how context-relevant is institutional isomorphism in quality

assurance strategies of Colleges of Education in Ghana?” This theory focusses on particular aspects of social structures that are inherent in organisations including higher education institutions. According to the theory, conformity to the rules, norms and values of the institutional environment is compulsory for the sake of legitimacy (Covaleski, Dirsmith, and Larry, 2003). DiMaggio & Powell (1983) consolidated inputs on Institutional Theory from several of its proponents and found that institutions in making a transition between one condition and another consist of three possible mechanisms of isomorphism.

Firstly, there is Coercive Isomorphism in which the organisation is led to adopt new structures through compulsion such as from the mandate of a law. This suggests that higher education institutions of any kind in Ghana have to comply with quality assurance regulations of the National Accreditation Board of Ghana to be considered legitimate by the state and the society. The National Accreditation Board requires all Colleges of Education to establish quality assurance unit within the institutions to address quality assurance issues. Bell and Taylor (2005) highlight that quality assurance regulations work as strong forces to mould organisations. Although the Colleges of Education are still under mentorship by universities and regulatory bodies, internal quality assurance is a basic requirement to gain legitimacy as tertiary education institutions.

Secondly, there is Mimetic Isomorphism in which the organisation follows the lead of another organisation with the purpose of reducing uncertainty (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Mimetic Isomorphism evolves when there is uncertainty in the system that enhances the process of imitation. Quality Assurance in higher education is a concept that has been in existence for quite some time; however, changes do occur as time changes to suit current trends. As a result, Colleges of Education in their quest to establish strong quality assurance unit, could copy quality assurance structures and tools from other higher education institutions with strong quality assurance structures provided such quality assurance structures fit the context of the Colleges of Education.

The third mechanism is the Normative Isomorphism, which is the pressure to use professional norms for organisation progress and development. Professionalism is interpreted as “the collective struggle of members of an occupation to define the conditions and methods of their work, to control and to establish a cognitive base and legitimation for their occupational autonomy” (Tsevi, 2015). The organisation adopts the new condition based on the recommendations of experts within the organisation. The Colleges of Education as a result of their attainment into the tertiary level are required to attain some level of professionalism. In fact, the minimum requirement for teachers in the colleges is master’s degree in a specialised field. The Normative Isomorphism, however, suggests that Colleges of Education in Ghana are influenced by the professional associations within them to apply specific standards and ethics to develop their own quality assurance strategies that are robust, resilient and context-specific relevant to train quality teachers for pre-tertiary education in Ghana.

These three pillars of Institutional Theory have been used to examine the context-relevant nature of internal quality assurance strategies of colleges of education in Ghana.

Methods Used in the Study

A Multiple qualitative case study approach was employed for this study. To help understand complex real-life situational dynamics requires either experiences or specific

cases that can provide lessons (Eisner, 1998). Although, it is unusual for the outcome of a case study to generalise in the way that natural science data can, this is possible (Denzin, 2009). It has been claimed that knowledge transfer occurs through outcomes of case studies (Eisner, 1998). The reason for choosing this design was that the study was about deep insights into the context-relevant nature of internal quality assurance strategies of the different groupings (female only, male only and mixed sex) of colleges in the midst of institutional isomorphism. This made multiple-case study a natural design option for the study. Yin (1984) emphasised that multiple cases strengthen the results by replicating the patterns thereby increasing the robustness of the findings. Literal replication (where the cases are designed to corroborate each other) and theoretical replication (where the cases are designed to cover different theoretical conditions).

Participants from three (3) different Colleges of Education contexts were purposively chosen and were interviewed in-depth at their offices. The selected Colleges of Education were made up of one female only College of Education, one male only College of Education and one mixed sex College of Education. A total number of four (4) participants in each case college involving the College Principal, Vice-Principal, Quality Assurance Officer, and Assessment officer were selected. These officers are the initiators and lead implementers of quality assurance strategies in the Colleges of Education and therefore considered to be information rich for a study of this nature. In all, nine (9) key informants were used for the study. Before the commencement of each interview, permission was sought from the participant, the rules of the interviews were explained to them so they were not left in doubt as to what to expect during and after the interviews (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011). Participants were given a consent form to fill to indicate their willingness to participate in the study. All the interviews lasted for an hour and twenty minutes and were audio taped. Participants were assured of confidentiality and anonymity by using pseudonyms to represent them. Additional data was also derived from documents. Quality Assurance Policy documents and the Harmonised Statutes for the Colleges of Education in Ghana were analysed and relevant data extracted. Data from interviews were transcribed and were analysed together with relevant institutional documents thematically. Transcriptions were sent back to participants to confirm before analyses. The themes that emerged included: coercive quality assurance strategies, mimetic quality assurance strategies, normative quality assurance strategies, usefulness of isomorphic quality assurance strategies, challenges of isomorphic quality assurance strategies, and context-relevant nature of quality assurance strategies of the colleges. These themes have been presented and discussed in the next sections.

Findings and Discussions

The goal of the study was to examine the influences of institutional isomorphism on internal quality assurance strategies of Colleges of Education in Ghana to determine the implications of institutional isomorphism on quality assurance strategies for the promotion of continuous improvement in quality. This section presents and discusses the key issues that emerged that appear to fall under two main isomorphic influences, namely coercive and mimetic. The implications for promoting a culture of continuous improvement in quality are also discussed.

Coercive Influences on Quality Assurance Strategies

Findings indicate that the participant Colleges of Education have several internal QA strategies that are characterised by coercive isomorphic pressures. These QA strategies include the establishment of QA unit; qualified staff recruitment QA strategy; qualified student recruitment QA strategy; and monitoring and supervision QA strategy. Participants' responses and the documents reviewed revealed that these QA strategies were mainly based on coercive isomorphic influences. The claim that these QA strategies are based on coercive isomorphism is discussed in this section.

Establishment of a QA Unit

It was clear from participant responses that their Colleges have established internal QA Units as a QA strategy to promote standards in the institutions. However, this was not an institutional idea but a mandatory requirement by the NAB. A respondent from the male only college had this to say:

As a basic requirement for all Colleges of Education, we have tried our best to establish quality assurance unit that is headed by a Quality Assurance Officer who works with a defined committee (Interviewee: Assessment Officer).

When probed for where the idea for establishing QA Unit came from, the respondent said:

The establishment of quality assurance unit is a primary and mandatory requirement for all tertiary institution therefore, we must establish it by force (Interviewee: Quality Assurance Officer).

The remaining respondents (Principals, Vice Principals) from the various Colleges made similar claim.

A review of NAB policy guidelines on tertiary educational institution internal quality assurance (NAB, 2018) shows that setting up an Internal Quality Assurance Unit (IQAU) is a requirement for every tertiary education institution in Ghana. To that effect, NAB has developed guidelines for this purpose and Colleges are required to adopt the guidelines as a necessity. The mandatory nature of this policy makes it coercive from an institutional theory point of view but it is essential for every tertiary institution. As it has been argued, achieving quality in higher education is the primary responsibility of higher education institutions and their staff and setting up a quality assurance unit in higher education institutions has become a ubiquitous quality assurance strategy in higher education systems globally (Anane & Addaney, 2016). Almost every higher education institution has a quality assurance unit. Therefore, it is plausible to argue that the participant Colleges would have established QA units on their own even if it was not regulatory requirement.

Qualified Staff Recruitment QA Strategy

It emerged from the study that all the participant colleges use the same QA strategy to recruit qualified staff. They indicated that assuring quality in the recruitment of staff is based on a framework provided by the National Council for Tertiary Education and the colleges

must comply with the framework because failure to do so may render them illegitimate for their tertiary status. One participant had this to say:

It is required of us that all teaching staff must hold a minimum of research Master's degree as well as ensuring that their Bachelor's and Master's degrees are in the same subject area. Besides, all qualifications are vetted and verified from issuing bodies and foreign ones are sent to NAB for evaluation before appointment letters are issued to qualified staff. In addition, all applicants for teaching appointment must also appear before either the Academic Board for face-face interview to establish the suitability of the applicant. All these processes are mandatory for all Colleges of Education (Interviewee: Principal).

All the participants indicated the same QA strategy to hire qualified and competent teaching staff. However, some participants were not enthused about the rigid nature of the strategy, particularly, the insistence on Bachelor's and Master's degrees being in the same subject area. A respondent put it this way,

The processes involved in the recruitment strategy is quite rigid and cumbersome but we can't do anything about it. I must say we are trying our best to meet standards required of us, but the rule on 'skirt and blouse' makes things difficult for us (Interviewee: Vice Principal).

The situation shows coercive pressure brought to bear on the colleges. Nonetheless, the issue of staff quality is inextricably linked to recruitment processes, and rigour in the processes is essential. For in recruiting teachers, for example, institutions aim to attract individuals who are well prepared, effective and who will remain in the teaching profession long enough to make a difference. Quality teaching and learning in tertiary education institutions largely depends on the availability of highly qualified faculty members. Mullins (2010) highlighted that effective recruitment practices and policies enable an organisation to get the required labour force to work with. However, some participants' argument against the insistence on not recruiting teaching staff with first and second degrees in different subject areas ('skirt and blouse' degrees in local parlance) deserve consideration. This is because there is dearth of empirical evidence to argue that teachers with first and second degrees in the same subject area perform better than those without, even though it appears logical.

Qualified Students' Recruitment QA Strategy

Just like QA strategy on staff recruitment, it emerged that all the participant Colleges use the same QA strategy for the recruitment of qualified students because it is imposed by the NAB. From the responses given, participants indicated that in recruiting students, they go by the standard given to them by NAB. The following quotes illustrate this claim:

For our admission process we don't do it on our own, however, we play an active role in the admission process. NAB sets the admission requirements and we must follow strictly because non-compliance will lead to severe consequences. NAB requires us to admit applicants who possessed credit in English language, Mathematics, Integrated Science/Social Studies and three relevant electives in Senior Secondary School

Certificate Examination (SSSCE) or West Africa Secondary School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) (Interviewee: Vice Principal).

We follow the admission requirements and processes given to us by NAB strictly so that we don't fall foul of the rule. NAB requires us to admit applicants who possessed credit in English language, Mathematics, Integrated Science/Social Studies and three relevant electives in Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination (SSSCE) or West Africa Secondary School Certificate Examination (WASSCE). We are also made to conduct oral examinations in addition to verification of SSSCE or WASSCE results before we offer admission. Sometimes we want to ignore the oral examinations but it's mandatory for us so we are incapacitated (Interviewee: Principal).

With student's admissions it is mandatory for us to follow standards from the NAB. Sometimes, being strict on the minimum requirement of credit pass does guarantee quality students but we can't do anything about it (Interviewee: Assessment Officer).

The above quotes demonstrate that a coercive QA strategy for student recruitment is at play in the participant colleges. Even though this QA strategy imposed by NAB appears useful for safeguarding standards in the colleges, the participants feel some level of autonomy given to the colleges to ensure a certain level of flexibility is necessary. In this regard, Colleges of Education will be able to employ innovative ways to admit students and still maintain standards and even enhance quality.

Monitoring and Supervision as a QA Strategy

The study participants indicated that monitoring and supervision is used as quality assurance strategy in teaching, and learning activities. Respondents stated specifically that heads of department, quality assurance officers, vice principals go round to monitor the lesson delivery of teachers, attendance of teachers and staff to make the necessary changes in teaching and learning approaches. It emerged that the mentor institutions imposed the approach for monitoring and supervision on the colleges.

A respondent in a female-only college indicated that,

Our mandate given us by the government is to train professionals and so to belong to a professional environment we are expected to comply with the rules given to us. As a result, NAB requires and expects us to make sure we monitor activities of staff. However, our mentor institutions give the current monitoring and supervision framework we use to us and we are obliged to comply (Interviewee: Quality Assurance Officer).

A respondent in a male-only college added,

We give our best. The Vice Principal with his team always make sure from time to time they monitor activities and attendance and lessons of tutors to ensure they are actually doing the right thing, if a tutor is consistently not performing, he/she receives queries. However, our mentor institution imposed the monitoring framework we use and we cannot make changes which is not good (Another Quality Assurance Officer).

Respondents in the mixed college made similar claims

The claims by the respondents suggest their acknowledgement of the need to monitor and supervise the work of staff, particularly teaching staff, which affirms the claim by Arthur (2011) that effective supervision plays a very crucial role in ensuring quality education by improving students' academic performance. Nonetheless, the respondents were not enthusiastic about the coercive nature of the monitoring and supervision framework. It is plausible that they perceive the framework as not fit for purpose at all times and the colleges should be at liberty to change the framework as when it is necessary.

It is abundantly evident that many of the quality assurance strategies of the Colleges of Education in this study are characterised by coercive pressures of institutional isomorphism. This is not surprising because colleges are non-profit institutions and as such susceptible to coercive forces due to high dependency on stakeholders, particularly government, for their operational resources (Edwards, Mason & Washington, 2009).

The next section presents and discusses the mimetic forces on quality assurance strategies of the colleges.

Mimetic Influences on Quality Assurance Strategies

Besides the coercive pressures, mimetic influences characterise some of the internal QA strategies the Colleges involved in this study. The QA strategies with mimetic influences are facilities QA strategy; staff appraisal QA strategy; staff professional development QA strategy; and induction and orientation QA strategy.

Facilities for QA Strategy

Most of the study participants indicated that their colleges try as much as possible to maintain their facilities as a way to enhance quality in the institutions but the strategies for assuring the quality of facilities are copied from their mentoring institutions to gain recognition and acceptance.

A respondent had this to say:

Actually, we are trying our best to resemble the well-recognised tertiary institutions in the country so we copy the strategy of assuring the quality of our facilities from our mentoring institutions. An example has to do with assigning the maintenance officer to make sure facilities in the college are checked regularly for maintenance works using the checklist copied from our mentor institution. (Interviewee: Assessment Officer)

Another respondent added:

Regular assessment of our facilities is key to us. However, we copied the facilities checklist from our mentoring institution. Our Principal is also smart such that when he travels and finds templates from tertiary education institutions with good reputation, he tries to copy their style for us (Interviewee Vice Principal).

The rest of the respondents made similar claims regarding assuring the quality of facilities in their colleges.

The responses quoted here indicate that the study's participants desire to assure the quality of their facility through regular maintenance and replacement. However, their colleges only copy the strategies for doing so from their mentors and other renowned tertiary education institution. Mimicking strategies for assuring the quality of facilities in prestigious institutions appears logical given that facilities are regarded as a major selling point of every tertiary institution in terms of quality (Ansah, Swanzy and Nudzor, 2017). There is an implicit assumption here that if the copy the strategies of the renowned institutions, their facilities could gain acceptance of stakeholders.

Staff Appraisal as a QA Strategy

It emerged that the colleges in this study employ staff appraisal as a QA strategy intended to improve the quality of staff of the institutions. However, the appraisal mechanisms are deliberately copied from their mentors and other high profile tertiary institutions.

A participant who was asked about the source of staff appraisal techniques used in the college, retorted:

Producing quality and competent teachers requires that we constantly appraise our staff hence we mimic from the high profile tertiary education institutions in the country like Kwame Nkrumah University of Science Technology and University of Cape Coast. Usually we use the same appraisal questionnaires of these institutions (Interviewee: Assessment Officer).

Another respondent also claimed:

Formal appraisal is part of our everyday teaching and learning but in doing so, we copy the appraisal forms from our mentor institution to ensure that we are using recognised appraisal instruments. We are now tertiary so we press on to meet set standards (Interviewee: Vice Principal).

An effective performance appraisal system improves productivity and quality (Mani, 2002). Appraisal is a requirement for all tertiary education institutions. Human capacity in terms of knowledge and experience is required to develop appropriate instruments and maintain effective appraisal system as a quality assurance strategy to improve productivity and quality performance of staff. All the colleges are required to have a good appraisal system but it is clear from the responses that the Colleges do not seem to have the human capacity and the experience to develop their own appraisal instruments. Even if they do, they are copying to avoid the uncertainties of developing reputable instruments as well as associated expenditure.

Staff Professional Development for QA Strategy

Assuring the quality of staff professional development is crucial for tertiary education institutions because it guarantees quality staff at all times. In this study, participants claim their colleges have strategies to assure the quality of staff professional development but were quick to add that the strategies are copied from their mentor institutions and other successful tertiary institutions. A respondent had this to say:

Even though staff development is a basic requirement for all of us in the tertiary environment we copy the processes involved in ensuring that our staff development is of quality from our mentoring institutions. Seriously we do not do this on our own so that our status as tertiary is questioned. Our mentor institution is reputed to have robust quality assurance strategy for staff professional development so we copy same (Interviewee: Quality Assurance Officer).

Another respondent added:

Professional development is a key tool in quality assurance that we do not joke with. It is for this reason that we make sure that our staff are given needed training after appraisal. Admittedly, the strategy we use to assure the quality of our staff professional development is adopted from our mentor institution. (Interviewee: Principal)

Similar claims are made by the rest of the participants in this study

The responses indicate the importance the Colleges attach to the quality of staff professional development, to the extent that they would rather copy a robust strategy for assuring the quality of staff professional development than devising their own strategies that not tried and tested. The Colleges' commitment to the quality of staff professional development is in line with the National Accreditation Board policy guidelines on staff development (NAB, 2007) which states that the quality of academic staff of tertiary education institutions is closely linked with the staff development plans of the institutions. The National Accreditation Board (NAB) does not grant institutional accreditation or programme accreditation without evidence of staff development plans of the applicant institution. Further, NAB will not process any application from a public tertiary education institution for programme accreditation, for instance, if approval has not first been obtained from the NCTE which set staff staffing norms for all tertiary education institutions in Ghana. It is also consistent with Ramsden (2003) who reiterates that the emerging trend is that teaching academics are challenged to expand their range of skills and strategies) which will enable their institutions to meet national and international competitiveness as well as increasing student satisfaction with learning experiences. So professional development drives change for quality in students' learning experiences.

Staff Induction and Orientation for QA Strategy

Participants from all the colleges involved in this study indicated that they have mechanisms to assure the quality of induction and orientation programmes they offer to newly recruited staff and students. However, they intimated that the mechanisms for assuring the quality of induction and orientation programmes are copied from their mentoring institutions. A respondent made this claim:

To belong to the tertiary environment new staff members in our College are given orientation to equip them since they find themselves in a new environment. In doing so, we use a strategy copied from one of our mentor institutions to ensure that our orientation is of best quality (Interviewee: Principal).

A respondent from another college also reiterated:

As for orientation even though we keep copying from our mentors and other universities because we are new in the tertiary education environment (Interviewee Vice Principal).

Responses from other participants were different. These responses were crosschecked with the quality assurance policies of the colleges and discovered that orientation of newly recruited staff and students was not captured.

Again, the responses show that the colleges perceive the quality of induction and orientation that deserve much attention. This affirms the claim of Caravella (2011) that it is expected that to belong to a professional institution, one would have to be introduced to institutional culture and values systems through induction and orientation. It is rather interesting that the Colleges copy the strategies for assuring the quality of their induction and orientation because institutional cultures may differ. In cases where institutional cultures differ significantly, it is plausible to argue that the copied strategies may not be fit for the purpose at hand. In any case, mimetic influences are usually for reputational advantages and cost reduction.

So far in this section, the Colleges of Education are portrayed as new entrants into tertiary education sector and therefore, it is logical to argue that lack of prestige and reputation causes them to identify themselves with the traditional tertiary education institutions than to seek differentiation which brings a lot of uncertainties (Phelps and Dickson, 2009). Mimicking the traditional universities quality assurance strategies may provide viable solutions with little expense on human capital (DeMaggio and Powell, 1983).

Implications for Building Quality Culture and Continuous Improvement in Quality

The emerging issues clearly demonstrates a highly dominants coercive and mimetic isomorphic QA strategies in the participant colleges. The discussions so far indicate that in some situations, the coercive and mimetic influences are useful for the colleges because they are relatively new in the higher education sector with little experience in higher education QA practices. The coercive pressures help them to gain legitimacy, recognition and resources from the government and the society at large because coercive pressures compel them to maintain at least minimum standards in quality assurance practices. The mimetic forces also enable the colleges to deal uncertainties around behaving differently in their quality assurance practices. The colleges do not have much experience in tertiary education and particularly tertiary education quality assurance. It seems safe to look up to the traditional universities with a lot of experience and copy what they practice regarding quality assurance strategies. Copying from high profile institutions also saves the colleges from the expense of human capital in quality assurance. It is evident that the coercive and mimetic influences on the quality assurance strategies of the Colleges provide a lot of benefits. Nonetheless, the non-flexibility nature of coercive QA strategies could lead to a culture of compliance, which may not lead to authentic behaviour. It could also lead to employing quality assurance strategies that are not fit purpose given the unique nature of Colleges of Education in Ghana.

Conclusion

Institutional Theory describes how both deliberate and accidental choices lead institutions to mirror the norms, values, and ideologies of the organisational environment. In this study, participants expressed that their quality assurance strategies mirror those of their mentor institutions through choices that are considered deliberate but mostly coercive. Majority of the quality assurance strategies employed by the participant Colleges of this study were regarded as mandatory regulatory requirements, which must be complied with and be recognised as tertiary institutions. The rest of the QA strategies were also deliberately copied from mentor institutions for reputational purposes. The study concludes that coercive and mimetic influences on the QA strategies appear to have saved the colleges involved in this study from the expense of resources and human capital for developing their own QA strategies whilst at the same time offered them legitimacy and recognition. However, such influences have also produced low internal capacity for QA that could merit the status of autonomous tertiary institution.

Limitation

THE main limitation of this study is that it is based on illustrative case studies and does not allow generalisation to cover the entire system of Colleges of Education in Ghana. Nonetheless, it demonstrates realities of institutional isomorphism on QA practices in College of Education system in Ghana.

Recommendations

BASED on the conclusion drawn, the study recommends that the colleges pay more attention to the normative isomorphism by developing internally fit for purpose QA strategies to balance off the coercive and mimetic isomorphic pressures in order to facilitate their QA capacity building for meriting autonomy as fully fledged tertiary institutions. The study further recommends an additional study to test the pervasiveness of coercive and mimetic pressures on quality assurance strategies of Colleges of Education system in Ghana in order to facilitate stakeholder dialogue on improving QA practices of Colleges of Education in Ghana.

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Indian Student Mobility towards the USA: Current Scenario

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Abstract

During the last few decades, there has been a considerable increase in the volume of international students mobility worldwide. With the emergence of knowledge economy and technological development, the demand for highly skilled workers has increased in the global labour market. In the current period, the knowledge and skills are indispensable for the global market which aggravates the demand for highly skilled workers and professionals in the world. It is evident that the student flow from developing countries to developed countries has increased at the global level. India is the second largest students sending country in the world. Among other countries, the USA is the leading destination for higher education for Indian students. The present study, based on secondary data sources, analyses the trends of international mobility of Indian students for higher education. It analyses the major factors influencing the mobility of Indian students to the USA for higher education.

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Introduction

In the globalised era, the international student mobility has been increasing worldwide. The expansion of knowledge economy and technological development has triggered the demand for high skills, knowledge and experiences in the global market. This has resulted in an increasing outflow of skilled workers and professionals abroad for better employment opportunities. Therefore, the global exposure for education has become requisite condition for students.

In recent time, knowledge has become a crucial factor for economic development. Higher education has been seen a major change through the expansion of knowledge-production industry (Naidoo, 2015:2). Consequently, the academic and intellectual output of universities and research institutions has become critical for economic growth (Varghese, 2013:7). The perceived role of universities has become changed from contributing into national development to reinforce global labour market (Varghese, 2013). Therefore, higher education institutions are becoming market oriented and are less reliant on public funding.

A high quality educational degree from a reputed institution receives high priority in the global labour market. The emerging middle class are ready to invest in their children's education. This willingness to spend on higher education from an international institute has increased the demand for cross-border higher education. Student mobility, therefore, is one of the visible components of cross-border higher education (Knight, 2011). Today, the student mobility has become a global phenomenon which has been promoted under free market economy (King, 2003; Knight, 2008; Bilecen, 2009).

The internationalisation of student mobility has become global reality which has several determinants, dimensions and scope. In context of India, the student mobility has been increased towards the developed countries. Indian students search better opportunities for higher education outside their countries, so as to retain successful in the competitive market. There are several factors which influence their decision to move outside their home country; these include familial, social, economic and global factors. Such determinants have intensified the trends, process and phenomenon of Indian student mobility abroad.

The paper focusses on analysing trends of cross-border mobility of Indian students abroad. It identifies favourite destinations of Indian students and analyses the important factors influencing the Indian students' mobility to the USA. The study is based on secondary data sources which were collected from existing literature as well as IIE-Open Doors, UIS-UNESCO.

The paper has four sections including conclusion. Section 1 discusses internationalisation vs. globalisation of higher education. Section 2 analyses trends in international student mobility. Section 3 analyses trends of Indian student mobility to the USA. Section 4 analyses factors influencing the student mobility.

Internationalisation vs. Globalisation of Higher Education

International students are primarily considered as human resources trained with knowledge, talent and professional attitude. According to Bilecen (2009: 7), "International students are seen as a potential labour force, who have been trained in the appropriate manner required for host country." International students are seen as a stock of highly skilled personnel and in some European countries, the visa regulations are relaxed for them.

For instance, Germany gives opportunity to the international students for staying one more year to search for employment when they complete their studies. In other words, student mobility is seen as another form of highly skilled migration, depending on their ability to fit in the demand of host land (Bilecen, 2009: 7).

The “international student mobility” refers to the movement of the students from the country of origin to the country of destination for the purpose of studying abroad. Traditionally, the international students have been made to stay a shorter period of time in the country of destination. However, the current trends of student mobility show that they are allowed to stay longer durations of time even after their studies in the country of destination. Therefore, the international students are those who are usually residents of their country of destination as well as qualified students emigrated from their country of origin.

The concept of internationalisation of higher education has become popular today. Internationalisation of higher education refers to the process of integrating an international, intercultural and global dimension into the purpose, functions (teaching, research, service) and delivery of higher education (Knight, 2004). In context of higher education, it aims to impart courses, curriculum, knowledge, skills and values across countries which have universal application (Varghese, 2008). During the colonial period, the internationalisation of higher education took place mainly from colonies to the capitalist countries. During that time, the colonial powers were competing to educate students in colonies. Since the 1990s, the higher education became a commodity traded under GATS framework (Knight, 2003; Varghese, 2008).

The international mobility of students has been associated with the concept of ‘internationalisation’ which is used to discuss various international dimensions of higher education. The process of internationalisation has a history dating back to the colonial period when many scholars had been travelling across national boundaries to European countries for acquiring knowledge and education (Varghese, 2008). However, the internationalisation of education refers not only to the student mobility, but it involves various dimensions and processes also. In the initial period of modern era, the focus on national development and internationalisation became marginalised but globalisation has accelerated the focus towards the student mobility, international research collaboration and education as a market industry (He’nard et al; 2012).

Another terminology has also been popular in global economy, i.e., globalisation of higher education. Globalisation of higher education refers to market driven activities in education sector. The globalisation is a market mediated process which has influenced education as tradable activity. The General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) represents a set of multilateral rules governing international trade in services. GATS cover all internationally traded services and in total, GATS cover 12 different service sectors including education. Higher education, in the context of globalisation, has become a market driven activity. Trade in education under the GATS framework takes place according to four modes:

- a) *Cross-Border Supply*: There is cross-border supply of a service but the consumer remains within the home country. This mode may include distance education (e-learning) and franchising courses or degrees. It does not necessarily require the physical movement of the consumer or provider.

- b) *Consumption Abroad*: The consumer moves to the country of the provider. This mode includes traditional student mobility.
- c) *Commercial Presence*: This mode may include presence of the service provider in another country in the form of branch campuses or twinning and franchising arrangements and joint ventures with local institutions for the commercial purpose(s); and
- d) *Presence of Natural Persons*: This mode includes the presence of persons, including professors and researchers, who temporarily travel to another country to provide educational services (Knight, 2002; Altbach & Knight, 2007).

Student mobility is a form of internationalisation of education. There are other fast-growing forms of transnational education such as offshore campuses, joint programmes, distance learning and Massive Open & Online Courses (MOOCs) programmes have been far-reaching approach in global knowledge economy (Hen'ard et al, 2012). Globalisation has major implications for the higher education sector, notably on the physical and virtual mobility of students and faculty members, information and knowledge, virtual access and sharing of policies and practices.

Higher education, thus, become market-driven activity to promote international and multicultural outlook among graduates to meet the requirements of a global knowledge economy (Varghese, 2008). Globalisation of higher education implies the mobility of students, institutions, teachers and programs crossing national boundaries (Varghese, 2013: 11). Cross border education is one of the important modes of globalising higher education (Knight, 2006; 19). Cross border education implies the mobility of students, teachers and programmes across national boundaries. Student mobility is one of the crucial components of cross border education.

Both the terms 'internationalisation' and 'globalisation' of higher education have been discussed widely in academic area. In Indian context, both have their scope and dimensions determining higher education system. However, they have influenced Indian higher education system differently. Former has influenced the higher education system to interlink with global culture through processes, agencies and outlook. Later has intensified the pace of disseminating knowledge to the global reach through cross-border education, such as student mobility.

Trends of International Student Mobility

The international student mobility is global phenomenon. The trends of international student mobility show that the developing countries are the major students sending countries. The developed countries such as the USA, the UK, Australia, France, Germany, Canada and Italy are the major destinations for the international students. North America and Western Europe has been the most favoured destinations for most students world-wide followed by East Asia and Asia Pacific countries (Varghese, 2013).

Below we have Table 1 depicting the top global destination countries for international students. Except 2013 & 2017, it has five-year interval data to avoid the long duration data on student mobility. However, 2017 data are the latest data retrieved from the official source.

TABLE 1
Top Global Destination Countries for International Students, 2000-2013

<i>Destination Countries</i>	<i>2000 (%)</i>	<i>2005 (%)</i>	<i>2010 (%)</i>	<i>2013 (%)</i>	<i>2017 (%)</i>
USA	25.0	21.9	19.2	18.0	18.6
UK	12.0	11.8	10.9	11.0	8.2
Germany	10.0	9.6	5.6	5.0	4.9
France	7.0	8.7	7.3	7.0	4.9
Australia	6.0	7.7	7.6	6.0	7.2
Canada	6.0	4.9	2.7	3.0	4.0
Japan	4.0	4.7	4.0	4.0	3.1
New Zealand	0.0	1.5	1.1	1.0	1.0
Russian Federation	3.0	3.3	3.6	4.0	4.7
Others	27.0	27.4	38.0	41.0	43.4
Total (million)	1.9	2.7	3.6	4.0	4.85

Source: UIS, 2013¹

Table 1 show that the recent trends in the international mobility of students in the world. It shows that the total number of international students doubled from 1.9 million in 2000 to 4.0 million in 2013 and further increased in recent data of 2017. The USA continues to be the top destination country for international students. However, the share of international students hosted in the USA has been declining over a period of time except. For example, the USA accounted for 25 per cent of international students in 2000 and 18 per cent in 2013. The share of international students in the USA has declined by 7.0 per cent percentage points between 2000 and 2013 but increased slightly in 2017. The reasons of declining the percentage share of international students were the emergence of new destination countries for international students. Despite that, the USA consists largest share of the international students compare to all other countries of destination in the world.

Table 1 also shows that there is hardly 1.0 per cent increase of international students in the UK in 2013 but decreased to 8.2 per cent in recent data of 2017. Australia is becoming an emerging destination for international students since 2000 onwards but there was three percent decline in 2017. The share of international students in Germany and Canada has been declining since 2000. The percentage of international students in Germany saw a sharp decline from 10 per cent (2000) to 5 per cent (2013). The percentage share of students in Canada has declined from 6 per cent in 2000 to 2.7 per cent in 2010 and marginally increased with 3.0 per cent in 2013. Considerably, the share of global students has been

¹ Latest data on the website are up to 2013.

increasing in Australia. The data show that Australia has become one of the top choices of destination for global students.

The share of international students in the USA accounted for 18.6 per cent followed by UK (8.2 per cent), Australia (7.2 per cent), Germany (4.9 per cent), France (4.9 per cent) and Canada (4.0 per cent) in the year 2013. However, the USA, the UK, Australia, France, Germany are top five destinations which attracts more than 50 per cent of total international students for higher education.

The recent data of UIE-UNESCO 2017 reflect that the USA is the leading destination for international students with 18.6 per cent of students for higher education followed with the UK (8.2 per cent) and Australia (7.2 per cent). The rate of outbound international students' mobility has been continuously increasing since 2000. In the year 2017, the total percentage of international students' mobility was 4.85 million in the world. This shows that the outbound student mobility has been continuously increasing at global level.

TABLE 2
Top 10 Institutions of USA Hosting International Students

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>No. of Students (2017-18)</i>	<i>No. of Students (2018-19)</i>	<i>% Change</i>
1.	New York University	17,552	19,605	11.7
2.	University of South California	16,075	16,340	1.6
3.	Columbia University	14,615	15,897	8.8
4.	North-eastern University- Boston	14,905	16,075	7.8
5.	Arizona State University- Tempe	13,459	13,324	-1.0
6.	University of Illinois- Urbana- Champaign	13,445	13,324	0.4
7.	University of California-Los Angeles	12,017	11,942	-0.6
8.	Purdue University- West Lafayette	11,044	10,943	-0.9
9.	University of California-San Diego	9,883	10,652	7.8
10.	Boston University	9,742	10,598	8.8
Total (in top 25 institutions)		251,972	261,372	3.59

Source: Open Doors Data. Institute of International Education. Available at the website: <http://www.iie.org/Research-and-Publications/Open-Doors/Data/International-Students/Leading-Institutions/2015-16>

Table 2 shows the share of international mobile students in the top 10 institutions of the USA. Among all institutions, New York University has the largest number of international mobile students. Significantly, the share of international students has increased 3.59 per cent in all institutions from 2017/18 to 2018/19 (Open Doors Data, 2019). The share of students has been increasing in top ten US institutes except Arizona State University, Tempe (-1.0 per cent), University of Illinois- Urbana, Champaign (-0.4 per cent), University of California, Los Angeles (-0.6 per cent) and Purdue University, West Lafayette (-0.9 per cent). This connotes that the share of students has been increasing but choice of institutions varies within the USA.

The students have been interested to get admission in the top-notch universities or institutions for higher education around the world. However, they face challenges such as expensive education due to high tuition fees of professional courses, accommodation facilities, language, safety and life security, stringent rules related to foreign nationals and travel expenditure (Choudaha, 2017; Marginson, 2012). Nevertheless, there are various sources have emerged which support the educational expenses of the students. Significantly, the educational loans have become important source of funding for higher education.

TABLE 3
Source of Funding of International Students by Academic Level

<i>Source of Funding</i>	<i>Total</i>		<i>Academic Level (%) 2015/16</i>	
	<i>2014/15</i>	<i>2015/16</i>	<i>Undergraduate</i>	<i>Graduate</i>
Personal and Family	63.6	66.5	81.2	57.6
U.S. College or University	20.9	17.0	7.4	34.6
Foreign Government or University	7.7	7.4	9.0	5.0
Current Employment	5.0	6.6	0.0	0.6
Foreign Private Sponsor	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.2
U.S. Government	0.5	0.4	0.5	1.1
U.S. Private Sponsor	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.5
International Organisation	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.6
Other Source	0.7	0.7	0.4	1.2

Source: Open Doors Data, 2014/15. Institute of International Education (IIE). Available at the website: <http://www.iie.org/Research-and-Publications/Open-Doors/Data/International-Students/Primary-Source-of-Funding/2014-15>

Table 3 shows that the source of funding of international students who are enrolled in the USA. The data has been provided for source of funding from 2014-15 to 2015-16 which are latest data from the IIE. In 2015-16, around 67 per cent students are self-funded as well as supported by their families which have rose up at 3 per cent as compared to previous year. It shows that the students are ready to finance their education to get enrolled in the colleges and institutions of the USA. Significantly, there were only 21 per cent of students who have gained funds from colleges and universities of the USA in 2014-15 which has declined at 17 per cent in 2015-16. However, there are around 7.7 per cent students who are funded by foreign government in 2014-15 which has slightly declined at 7.4 per cent in 2015-16. Notably, the USA provided little funds to the international students for their education in its own country. The data show that US government provided only 0.4 per cent of funding to the international students in 2015-16.

Table 3 shows the source of funds of international students by academic levels. The data prove that around 81 per cent international students had personal and family source of funds at undergraduate level. They prove that they spend more on their education with help of their family at undergraduate level. At graduate level, personal and family source of funds was 57.6 per cent in 2015-16. However, the US college or university funds were 34.6 per cent at graduate level which was much higher than 7.4 per cent at undergraduate level. Also, foreign government or university funds were 9.0 per cent at undergraduate level as compare to 5.0 per cent at graduate level. However, the other sources of funds had slight difference of funding both at undergraduate and graduate levels.

Trends in Indian Student Mobility to the USA

During the recent years, India has been the second largest student sending country in the USA. Since the 1990s, the numbers of student mobility have been increasing across national boundaries. The USA has been a traditional destination for Indian students. Despite having high cost of education, the USA has been an attractive destination for Indian students also for higher education. There are several reasons, including multiple entry doors, flexible transition paths between statuses, viz, from a student to a worker and a worker to an immigrant, better educational opportunities, scholarship programmes and employment opportunities (Martin, 2012).

TABLE 4
Top 10 Sending Countries to the USA: 2012-13 to 2015-16

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Place of Origin</i>	<i>2012/13 (% of total)</i>	<i>2013/14 (% of total)</i>	<i>2014/15 (% of total)</i>	<i>2015/16 (% of total)</i>	<i>2016/17 (% of total)</i>	<i>2017/18 (% of total)</i>	<i>2018/19 (% of total)</i>
1	China	28.6	31.0	31.2	31.5	32.5	33.2	33.7
2	India	11.8	11.6	13.6	15.9	17.3	17.9	18.4
3	South Korea	8.6	7.7	6.5	5.8	5.4	5.0	4.8
4	Saudi Arabia	5.4	6.1	6.1	5.9	4.9	4.1	3.4
5	Canada	3.3	3.2	2.8	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.4
6	Brazil	1.3	1.5	2.4	1.9	1.2	1.3	1.5
7	Taiwan	2.7	2.4	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1
8	Japan	2.3	2.2	2.2	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.7
9	Vietnam	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2
10	Mexico	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.4
Total (in numbers)		819,644	886,052	974,926	1,043,839	1,078,822	1,094,792	1,095,292

Source: Institute of International Education, Open Doors Data Report, 2013, 2014, 2015.

Table 4 shows that top 10 student sending countries to the USA are China, India, South Korea, Saudi Arabia, Canada, Vietnam, Taiwan, Japan and Brazil. It also shows that the number of international students in the USA has been increasing every year. In addition to this, the share of international students from top ten sending countries varies slightly in each year. However, China and India retain their top two positions in student-sending countries in the USA respectively.

In the current data of 2018-19, the total number of international students was more than ten million in the USA which is highest numbers among student receiving countries. The USA is the topmost destination for international students for higher education. As per the current data, the major sources of international students in the USA are China (33.7 per cent), India (18.4 per cent), South Korea (4.8), Saudi Arabia (3.4 per cent) and Canada (2.4 per cent). China is the leading student sending country with 369,548 number of students (33.7 per cent) in the USA. The data of the previous years show the continued increase in the number of Chinese students in the USA.

Table 4 shows that India is the second leading place of origin for students coming to the United States, comprising 18.4 per cent of the total international students in the United States. In 2018-19, there were 202,014 Indian students in the United States of America. The number of Indian students in the USA increased by 25 per cent in 2015/16. India accounted around 16 per cent of share of total international students.

The total percentage of Indian students' outflow has increased from 11.6 per cent (2013-14) to 15.9 per cent (2015-16). However, the percentage share of Indian mobile students has declined marginally at international level, between consecutive years 2013 and 2014, but it increased almost 2 per cent in the year 2015.

In 2014-15, the USA has more than 50 per cent of international students from China, India and Republic of Korea. These three countries (China, India and Republic of Korea) together accounted for 51.3 per cent of the international students in 2015. However, the share of students from some countries like Vietnam, Mexico etc. remain unchanged, there was a decline in the share of students from other countries in 2014-15. The total percentage of international students enrolled in the USA estimated 58 per cent of total population percentage.

In 2015-16, the total number of international students enrolled in USA was 1,043,839 which was 7 per cent increase in the share of international students from previous year 2014-15 (IIE, 2016). China, India, Saudi Arabia and South Korea accounted around 60 per cent share of international students enrolled in the colleges and universities in the USA in the year 2015-16 (IIE, 2016). According to the data, South Korea has slipped one position down to Saudi Arabia in 2015-16. While South Korea had been at the third position up to 2014-15, Saudi Arabia climbed to the third position in 2015-16. However, the share of international students from South Korea and Saudi Arabia has slightly fallen down as compare to previous year. Japan and Brazil have shown one percent dip in current year as compare to previous years. Vietnam has slightly increased the percentage of international students from 1.9 per cent to 2.0 per cent in the USA.

The latest data of 2018-19 show that the share of international students has been increasing in the USA. The total number of international students in the USA was 1,095,292 in 2018-19 which was slightly higher, by 0.045 per cent, as compared to the previous year. China and India have been continuously top two students' sending countries in the USA. In context of India, the USA has been always a top choice of destination country for students. In 2018-19, the share of students from top five student sending countries has increased more than 60 per cent in the USA. It shows that the USA is traditionally an educational hub for international students, which has been fulfilling all demands of market economy.

TABLE 5

Top Choice of Destinations for Indian Students

<i>S. No.</i>	<i>Destination Country</i>	<i>No. of Indian Students (2016-17)</i>	<i>%</i>
1.	USA	142,618	42.9
2.	Australia	51,976	15.7
3.	Canada	32,616	9.8
4.	United Kingdom	16,421	4.9
5.	Germany	13,387	4.0
	Others	75,015	22.7
Total		332,033*	100

Source: UIS-UNESCO, 2017.

*Latest data of total no. of Indian students abroad released by UIS-UNESCO.

Table 5 shows the major destination countries of Indian students for higher education. The data show that more than half of the percentage of total number of Indian students' flow to the USA for higher education studies. In 2016-17, the total number of Indian students enrolled in the USA was 142,618 (IIE Open Doors Data, 2015). The USA attracted foreign students in their higher education system through scholarship programmes. Due to the largest economy in the world, the USA has been a dominant choice of destination for the Indian students for better employment market (Martin, 2013). Indian students prefer to go to the USA to study science and technological courses for better employment-opportunities and career prospects (Khadria, 2004; et al; 2014).

Table 5 also reflects the top destination countries for Indian students for higher education. Australia has become the second destination for higher studies. Surprisingly, Canada has secured third place with 9.8 per cent of students. However, there was a sharp decline in the share of students in the UK which was second top in the previous years. The Brexit and strict visa policies have reduced the students' inflow into the UK. The political issues and complex immigration policies have affected the Indian students' immigration during that time.

A large number of student mobility has sizeable effect on both sources as well as destination countries. Such core areas are labour employment, remittance gain, global opportunities and socio-economic development. The area of international student mobility is understudied or partially studied. The next section mainly analyses the factors which influence the students' choice to move to the USA for higher education studies.

Analysing the Factors Influencing the Student Mobility

The cross-border mobility of students depends on various familial- socio-economic factors of the countries of origin as well as destination. In a broader sense, the pull and push factors encourage students to move abroad pursuing higher education studies. The demand for overseas education arises because of the lack of supply of quality education in domestic education institutions. With the effects of urbanisation, it is perceived that a growing relatively rich middle class aspire to finance the education of their children and willing to send them in foreign land for global exposure of education (Rafi & Lewis, 2013: 159). Furthermore, the financial support from commercial banks in terms of educational loans and various loan schemes helps the aspiring students to move abroad.

The USA encompasses a significant number of international students. There are various reasons of large number of foreign students in the USA. Some of them are globally renowned educational universities, global networks of academic institutions and professional and high-level research activities, global exposure of students for employment and so on (Altbach & Knight, 2007). In case of India, there are various decisive factors which motivate students to choose the USA as their destination for education. Despite having high cost of education in the USA, the Indian students prefer the USA for their higher education. This section discusses the responses of the prospective students about the choice of the USA for their higher education. These are follows:

The perceived quality of education is one of the important factors of cross-border student mobility (Varghese, 2008; Liu & Wang, 2009). The quality education, as a concept, varies country-wise but in context of India, it incorporates many educational standards including better curriculum, teachers, educational infrastructure and academic outcome.

The USA ensures world-class education through facilitating variety of courses which fulfils the demand of the global market. The world-class universities and famous institutions in the USA assure students for the brilliant educational exposure as well as better employment-opportunities.

The courses of study are another deciding factor for the higher education abroad. The students choose their subject area vis-a-vis the destination country on the basis of monetary calculations and status of the reward of foreign degree in the global labour market (Varghese, 2008: 23). The demand for STEM courses among respondents is more than the social sciences courses and management courses (Alyammahi et al, 2016). They think that the STEM courses have more career prospects in future.

The IIE data 2018-19 reveal that the majority of Indian students were enrolled in the STEM courses in the USA. The highlighted fields of study convey the large percentage of the Indian students, namely, Engineering, Mathematics, Computer Sciences, Business, Management, Life Sciences and Health Professions etc. Engineering is the leading field of study comprising 37.5 per cent of Indian students in 2015-16 which was dropped by 2 per cent in 2015-16. Engineering, Maths/Computer Sciences and Business Management accounted around 80 per cent of Indian students in the USA in the current year of 2015-16. The share of Indian students has increased in Maths/Computer Sciences courses with 34.9 per cent in the year 2015-16. The data show that number of Indian students in STEP courses were more than the share of Indian students in Humanities and Social Science courses.

Scholarship is one of the important motivating factors to go abroad for higher education. The Fulbright and Ford Foundations of the USA are the best examples to invite foreign students for higher education in the USA (Varghese, 2013:9). Scholarship has been a source of economic support for the students going abroad for education (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007). The scholarship programmes reduce the economic liability from their parents. During the last few years, the scholarship has been reduced for the international students. This has affected the scholarship support to the students who may try to go abroad. The trend of enrolment of international students on scholarship basis has been reducing in the USA also. More than 60 per cent of total international students are bearing their educational expenses with their own as well as with their family support (Open Doors Data, 2015). The reason could be the effect of global economic crisis on economy of the USA which is unable to generate funds for higher education.

The employment opportunity is an important factor for cross-border student mobility. The economic reason is the motivating factor to leave home country. The students expect better career and better employment after completion of their studies. The demand for foreign degree has been increasing among students for high paid jobs in employment-market (Docquier, 2013). According to Khadria (2014: 31), "The 'worker seeking' demands for skilled Indians and professionals have become critical concern for the migration." This accelerates outflow of skilled workers from India to new destinations in the world. Since the 1990s, India has been sending huge number of skilled workers and professionals to the developed countries which has considerable 'Indian knowledge diasporas' abroad, mainly in the USA and Western Europe (Khadria, 2008; Jain, 2014).

The other determining factor of cross-border student mobility is language in which education has been imparted to the students. The mode of teaching is also an important factor which motivates students to migrate abroad for education. Since Indian students are familiar with English and many are fluent in it, they have an advantage (Varghese, 2008).

It is because the students find English as global language which can be more advantageous in their future career (Varghese, 2013). In the globalised world, the flow of international students has been coming from multi-lingual countries to the host countries. They want to study in a language which has wider scope for their career. The respondents told that English has a universal acknowledgment and it is convenient to study in the language that has a global acceptability. Learning different language for the sake of studies becomes a difficult job for the international students. The USA disseminates educational courses and various academic programmes in the English language. The cultural familiarity is important factor in cross-border students' mobility. Higher education is playing a role in integrating all cultures and social groups together. The cultural diversity has become important for the cross-border mobility of students. The students highly value the social and cultural experience in the destination country. Many students from developed countries study in developing countries to gain cultural experience in a multicultural context (Varghese, 2008: 24). Many educational partnership programmes aim to promote student mobility within the European countries. The education can be achieved under the cultural affinity in the destination country and the USA serves this purpose due to its multicultural society.

The visa rules are another major determinant influencing the cross-border mobility of students. It is one of the important decisive factors to move abroad. The cross-border mobility of students is possible only when the visa rules are liberal and flawless in nature (Ziguras & Gribble, 2014). The visa rules are an important factor to decide how and where to move for higher education. During time of Trump's victory, the visa for foreigners became debatable which made international students perplexed regarding their future. However, the international students became relaxed over the time under liberal visa appeals from government. The USA offers three major types of visa categories exclusively for students, namely, M-1 visa, J-1 visa and F-1 visa². Under F-1 visa category, the international students are considered as the temporary immigrants up to the completion of the study. In case of USA, Indian students always demand 'VISA after studies' for settling down in the USA (Martin, 2012). The current trend of student-mobility shows that students are permitted 5 years of residence even after the completion of their studies in the USA.

Conclusion

The paper deals with the Indian student mobility to the USA in light of international students mobility. The outflow of Indian students for studies has become important concern in the debate of higher education system. The demand for foreign exposure for education has become increased in the global employment scenario. The higher education has become market commodity, which has certain 'value' added to it under the market rules. The employment opportunities are available for those who are eligible to compete in the global market. In this context, the students' outflow has increased for greater global exposure of higher education under market pressure.

² The F-1 visa is the most common visa which is exclusively for foreign students who are studying in a full-time academic programme (Ruiz, 2014). The F-1 visa is a non-immigrant visa that does not provide permanent residence to the foreign students and has limited use for employment purposes. F-1 visa holders can seek temporary work authorisation.

In the context of globalised world, international migration has been intensified in terms of its scope, scale and nature. The current phase of globalisation is referred to as the era of knowledge economy where students are catalysts of the economic development both in home as well as destination country. Cross-border education has seen a considerable transformation in the globalised world. The student mobility is the dominant form of international migration. Student mobility, therefore, is not a new concept, but its nature, scale and scope has intensified in the global era. The flow of cross-border students indicates that the dominant flow continues from the developing countries to the developed countries.

In the knowledge society, the purpose of higher education institutions and universities is to produce skills and knowledge in view of facilitating skilled workers and professionals to the global economy. The higher education institutions aim to meet the demand of better skills, knowledge and experience necessitated in the global labour market. In the competitive world, the higher education institutions have become global 'brands' to facilitate courses and degrees which are required for the global market. Therefore, the students are motivated to go abroad for seeking global exposure of education for better employment career.

The USA has been the topmost choice of destination for international students. However, the trend has been changing in the flow of the international students to many different countries in the world. Australia, the UAE and Singapore are the emerging destinations for the international students. Nevertheless, the USA is still the leading destination for the international students seeking higher education. Being a world's leading economy, the USA encompasses numerous opportunities more than any other country.

The student mobility is generally signifying the temporary residence in the destination country. However, the global exposure for the educational programme ensures the career prospects in the destination country. Many host countries including USA are facilitating the employment opportunities to the foreign students after completion of their studies. In this context, there are various factors which influence the student mobility as well as the choice of destination for their studies. Some of the important factors are: Quality of education, Course of study, Employment prospects, cultural environment of the destination country and so on. The host countries are initiating the new measures to attract foreign students in their country.

Overall, the trends of Indian student mobility, is however, declining internationally. However, in context of the USA, the trend of student-mobility has been increasing over the time. Compare to other countries, the enrolment of foreign students in the USA has been increasing since last five years. The trends of student mobility in the European countries such as the UK, Australia, France, Germany and Canada are slightly declining since the year 2010. It is the global economic crisis which has been affecting the limited number of scholarship programmes, limited funding for foreign students and limited opportunity for foreign student in the higher education system. Although, in case of the USA, the condition of labour market is more promising than the other European countries.

Therefore, the students are eager to move to the USA for higher education system. The study forecast that the trend of student mobility will not increase under such global market condition. The government of both home country as well as host country have to promote scholarships programmes to increase the student-mobility. However, the case of the USA is different from other countries, though the global economy is downfall. The USA attracts every student, personnel and professional because of the immense opportunities available in

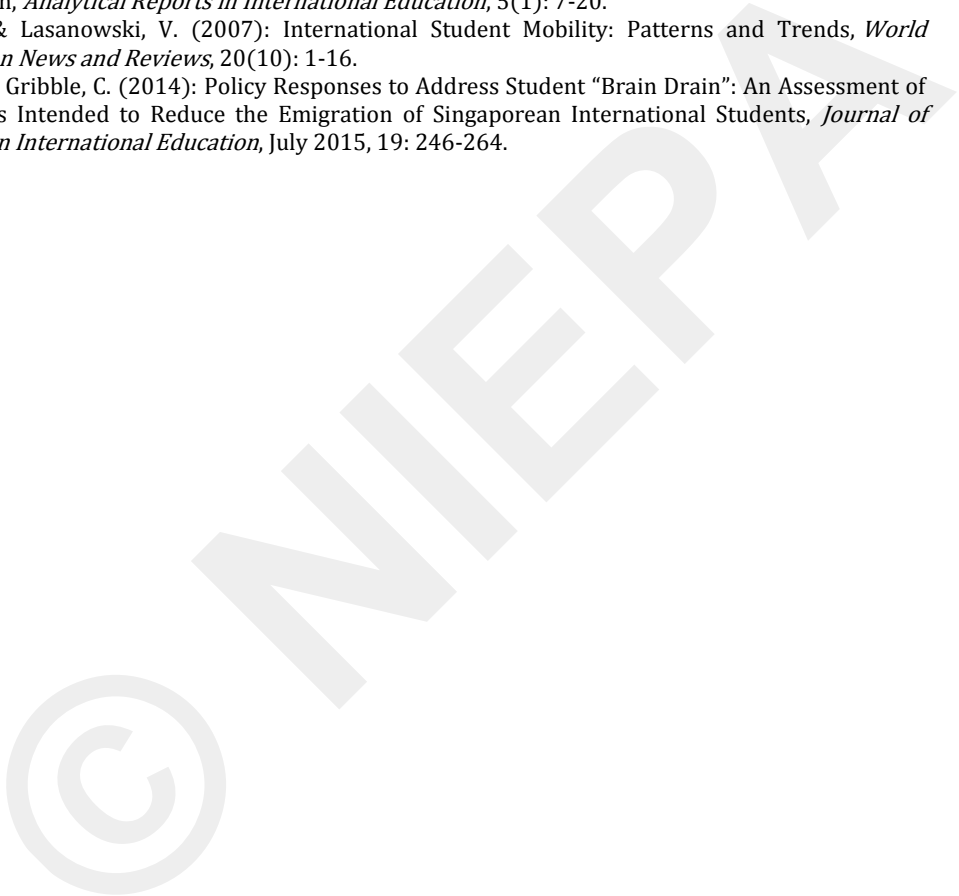
the USA which are more than any country or part of this world. Therefore, the USA will remain the topmost destination for the foreign students in coming years.

At present, India is among the top countries of the emigration of students and professionals abroad. Today, there are more than 25 million Indian diasporas living abroad, including workers as well as students. The purpose of migration has been generally economic particularly employment opportunities. There have been greater expectations of the migrants before moving abroad. Conversely, there are many challenges emerging for the migrants in the destination country. Some of the important issues are violence against foreign person, cultural disintegration, regulation of laws of destination country and so on. The state should consider other related issues such as trend of migration, security of the migrants, cultural fraternity in the destination country and so on. The state should ensure protection of the Indian students against violence and fraudulent practices in the destination country.

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Book Reviews

ARVANITAKIS, James; BHUSHAN, Sudhanshu; POTHEN, Nayantara and SRIVASTAVA, Aarti (Eds.) (2020): *Teaching and Learning in Higher Education in India and Australia*, Routledge India, pp.158, Price: ₹ 695.00

Teaching and learning is often relegated to the periphery of higher education, but shifts in the foundations of this sector are being witnessed across the globe, due to globalisation and massification, leading to a very diverse community of learners and teachers entering the field. This is laced with technological influences in pedagogical practices and the shrinking of funds for teaching and research, making it an imperative for revisiting the discourse.

The book *Teaching and Learning in Higher Education in India and Australia*, edited by James Arvanitakis, Sudhanshu Bhushan, Nayantara Pothen and Aarti Srivastava, is a starting point and brings forth multidimensional teaching and learning perspectives, supported adequately with case studies and best practices from both Indian and Australian higher education institutions and policies.

India and Australia, both erstwhile British colonies, are distinct from each other in many ways. While Australian higher education might unequivocally appear as more evolved, both the countries are faced with similar challenges. Among some of them include ascertaining the relevance of universities in a time of social, cultural, technological and economic disruption; innovating through curriculum in keeping up with changes; gauging the role of assessment in the evolving higher education environment; thinking about ways of assisting students in transitioning into university, by also ensuring their retention, promoting their success and supporting them through different stages; selecting the best support structures for early career academics to thrive; enabling the sector to promote the scholarship of women across the different disciplines and into the upper management positions of higher education and realising their full potential, and, lastly, devising plans for employability for graduates within rapidly changing economic conditions and the possibility of multiple careers in their lifetime. These challenges, in a sense, form the basis of the cross-cultural study on teaching and learning practices, which hold great relevance to other countries too.

The book is divided into nine chapters. Six out of the nine chapters are co-authored by one Indian and one Australian author. The chapters in the book have a fresh orientation in responding to the challenges mentioned above, and range from Teaching Learning Centres in India; Support through Engagement: Employing Best Practice Pedagogies to Support Diverse Learners; How to Improve Indian Graduate Employability and Outcomes: Empirical Comparisons with Australia; Women in Higher Education and Research; Supporting and Developing Early Career Academics through a Holistic Approach to Academic Development; Curriculum Innovations in Higher Education in India and Australia, and Assessment: What is the best practice and how do we innovate?

The pace setting introductory chapter points to certain disruptions in higher education, emanating from changes in government policy and direction, funding constraints, increased competition, technology and structural change, metrics-driven ranking exercises with little consideration to teaching, uncertain nature of the academic workforce, and broader impacts of universities moving away from public good characteristics in promoting an educated, active and engaged citizenship. While these are identified in the context of India and Australia, they hold true for other higher education systems as well. Whereby, the chapter very rightly calls for a holistic and inter-disciplinary approach and carefully crafted definitions in enabling cross cultural learning and teaching, a balanced curriculum by bringing in the liberal arts as well, aided by well aware citizen scholars, with the ability to be a voice for issues that impact on their lives, the lives of their family, their community (be it local, regional, national or global) as well as championing the causes of the most vulnerable, in enabling a more creative university.

The chapter on Teaching Learning Centres (TLCs) states the need for principles of learning and methods of teaching in pedagogical discourse to meet the needs of heterogeneous learners, which are not determined autonomously. Leading to a paradigm shift from establishing a unity of research and teaching to one of establishing a unity of teaching and learning. Developing curricula and pedagogical framework to reflect and address the needs of the learners is further compounded by technology. The chapter very interestingly places the teaching learning centres in India as one that enables the synthesis of the paradigm of unity of teaching and learning with a third paradigm of integrating teaching and learning with technology. What sets the chapter apart is in the way it calls for technology to fit within a pedagogical strategy and not the other way round and developing support systems for teachers to not only use technology, but be also optimally trained on methods of teaching, assessment and new pedagogic approaches. And lastly, innovative paradigms of teaching and learning must be aided by the right policy settings, based on principles of affordability, quality, research capability and culture, resourcing, accountability, autonomy and policy stability.

The chapter on Support through Engagement is again focussed on enabling diverse learners in their transition into and through university by employing effective teaching practices. In this case, through engaging pedagogical opportunities. This is indeed an innovative way of enabling the retention and achievements of the learners, for, student engagement, as suggested, is a precursor of student success. Considered a complex and multi-faceted meta-construct, the chapter suggests how student engagement can be made extremely fruitful through purposeful student-faculty contact, inclusive and affirming learning environments, effected by individual university teachers, and the institution at large. Some of the innovative pedagogical opportunities elaborated include collaborating learning pedagogies, work integrated learning, research opportunities at the undergraduate level, community-experiential based learning, blended high impact pedagogical learning, engaged scholarship and, lastly, Capstone curriculum.

The chapter on How to Improve Indian Graduate Employability and Outcomes: Empirical Comparisons with Australia, delves into a very contemporary area of concern in higher education, i.e. graduate employability. For, the purpose of higher education is not to only aide the students in merely attaining a degree, but also equip them for life beyond the institution of study. While employability attributes and employment opportunities in

Australia appear much more favourable than India, as suggested by the chapter, the need for nurturing employability strategies are considered important for both the higher education systems. The strength of the chapter lies in the empirical evidence it generates, in ascertaining the experiences and perceived value of employability strategies from four stakeholder groups --- students, graduates, educators and employers. A cross-cultural comparison of relevant employability strategies such as Work Experience, Careers Advice, International Exchange, Mentoring, Networking, Part Time Work, Capstone, Portfolios, Professional Associations and Social Media is undertaken. The chapter brings emphasises on the need for universities to do more for students than providing units of instruction, by actively embedding employability initiatives in curriculum, assessment and student experience.

The chapter on Women in Higher Education and Research points to three main challenges facing women's interaction with higher education: of equal access, including gender equity within the disciplines being studied as well as the equal access to facilities once enrolled at university; of the provision of adequate opportunities to embark on leadership roles in higher education, and the challenge of balancing studies, academic future and family. The chapter calls for the need to ensure women's access to higher education through teaching-learning initiatives encouraging participation at university, particularly in disciplines that are traditionally dominated by males; equality in terms of on-campus experience as well as institutional initiatives aimed at academic and professional staff by removing gender bias in committees, recruitments, and inclusion in decision making. Recommendations are also made for supporting women that have demonstrated excellence in research, teaching and/or governance through access to networking and mentorship; flexibility in work hours and location following a career disruption; promotion relative to opportunity; and opportunities for early career academics to participate in leadership roles.

The chapter on Supporting and Developing Early Career Academics, puts much needed focus on that strata of teachers in higher education, i.e. the early career academics, who whether they hold on-going appointments or are ad hoc and session-based staff, whom it also considers are as the future of the academic workforce. The fact that these academics face problems of navigating different aspects of the role of a teacher holding traditional academic positions - research, teaching and service or engagement, apart from entry level challenges. This scenario calls for greater attention through initiatives for enhancing their career paths and security of employment, professional development, work-life balance and well-being. This in turn will enrich the student-centred teaching and learning process. The chapter highlights by reproducing five domains as a potential framework for Indian higher education institutions and policymakers to consider as they respond to the challenges faced by early career academics. These include: Systemic and Sustainable Policy and Practice, Employment and Administrative Support, Induction and Academic Management, Professional and Career Development, and Rewards and Recognition. The framework can be helpful in supporting early career academics in their varied roles as well as in managing the change that they constantly witness.

The chapter on Curriculum Innovations in Higher Education in India and Australia looks at higher education curriculum, focussed mainly on the Indian system, and in terms of pre-neo-liberal and post-neo-liberal contexts. However, the challenges faced by higher education institutions and educators in conceptualising/planning, designing, redesigning, marketing

and delivering the curricula are not only restricted to India, but are common to a global liberal economy. With this backdrop, a forward looking approach to curriculum development is warranted – a curriculum that could meet the needs of the changing society confronting complex challenges. The chapter aptly calls for employing user centred designed in curriculum development, i.e. placing the students at the centre of the discussion and consulting industry and government. Hereby it recommends not only integrating pedagogical models to enable the students for discipline learning opportunities that include soft skills but also including research as an integral part of the curriculum to promote high end problem definition and research-led skills. A strength based approach to curriculum design is proposed, which acknowledges the heterogeneous nature of the student body as well as the needs of specific segments of the student population, apart from ensuring to include the best practice of experiential learning.

The chapter on Assessment: What is the Best Practice and How do We Innovate? points to how in addition to supporting teachers to make judgements about what students are capable of, assessment also needs to prepare students for life beyond graduation, where they need to be the judges of the quality of their own work, and the work of others. The chapter places joint challenges of assessment from India and Australia, i.e. of validity and reliability; 'constructive alignment' of intended learning outcomes, learning and teaching activities, and assessment; balancing multiple purposes; trust (or distrust); and feedback. Drawing largely from David Boud's Assessment 2020 project, the chapter calls for assessment to engage students in learning that is productive: by promoting learning that is aligned with the broader objects of the degree, and not merely restricted to performing in examination. Aided by effective and timely feedback to actively improve student learning. Enhanced dialogue and interaction between students and teachers, for they are jointly responsible in learning and assessment; inducting students into the assessment practices and cultures of higher education; apart from assessment being an inclusive and trustworthy representation of student achievement.

The current volume could certainly include more enriched case studies in general, and case studies from Australia in particular. A more detailed conclusion to the book, aligning with the pace setting chapter would have been befitting. The book not only adds to the limited literature on teaching and learning in higher Education, but provides a nuanced understanding related to it. Considering teaching and learning is still a nascent area in higher education, the book is indeed a great value addition to the sector.

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CHAKRABARTI, Rajendra M. (2018): *Happiness and Wellbeing: Wealth, Pleasure and Virtue in Good Life*, Chennai: Notion Press, Price: ₹ 499.00

As implied by the title and the subtitle, the content of the book has to have a fairly wide ambit. The Introduction and the titles of the seventeen chapters may allow the reader to have a fair idea quickly. A few prefatory remarks of the reviewer are, however, warranted. A way of representation is to delve into the content as implied by the words in the title of the chapter and to wind it up appropriately.

The titles of the four parts of the book speak for themselves. The personal motivation is fairly well spelt out in the Preface, with the author pestering on happiness and wellbeing, the former having a bit of being edgy over the latter. The purport of economics has been drawn upon, somewhat adroitly, to reach out not only to the duality of 'happiness' and 'wellbeing' but also to their accompanying thoughts and ideas. Obviously, the Introduction does that ably, with the 'outline of the book,' spread over five pages.

The author doesn't venture a strict definition of happiness and/or wellbeing. The relevant attributes and ramifications, to begin with, are put forward. A conceptual framework gets built up, using commonalities elsewhere. Piou's has been attended to, so that happiness vis a vis welfare creep in. Thoughts of Adam Smith's *The Wealth of Nations* find a ubiquity throughout the book, beginning with first chapter. A K Sen figures so as to be at home with 'doing' and 'being' rather than 'having.' Aristotle's name just appears, to be treated a bit late, pertaining to 'essence of happiness.' A qualitative approach has been sought after so that the place and happiness can have their places within the canopy of ethics. Attributes and properties, as desired by the author, continue to shape up 'happiness.' Arguably 'happiness' continues to be strictly, an undefined term, whatever the choices in regard to ambiguities elsewhere. The words 'meaning' and 'definition' seem to be, as per author's practices, situated at extremities. The 'wellbeing' with economic implications, does not, it seems, fit in neither with the 'excellence of a person' nor the attainment. The supremacy of morality is well focussed, perhaps throughout the book. One ought to expect how the duality, sector, mood and spiritual aspects, unless one has an unflinching belief, somewhere. That 'income' can affect happiness has been devoted to somewhat lengthily.

According to Richard Layard, 'happiness' seems to be a hypothesis state. 'Adaptation' appears to be a much-used word, with the help of the author, so that 'headic treadmill' can be looked into. How humans get 'adapted to income-wise and new assumption goods,' requires coping with sufferings, that may well go with condescending somewhere, if not with well-connected thoughts of individuals and so --- forms of addiction. The section 'The Law of Utility and Change of Aspiration' could have been well fathomed if the main repercussions had been taken care of. That also holds ground for 'income' and economic path that may suffer a slowdown. Doesn't that lead to instability over and above the 'insaliability,' aptly within the wider framework that the author is seeking for? The Marxist idea of 'alienation' has been cited, along with Adam Smith's thought processes that resemble, in a way, that of Karl Marx. Then appear the pages discussing the aspects that do not seemingly facilitate either 'happiness' or 'wellbeing.' Expanding Karl Marx's views of aberration studies along with the author's observations can well equip readers, with anti-Marxist stances, of those

wedded to superficiality. Deaserratio, in particular, appears to be the author's dictum, far from being a dialectic, so vital for a Marxist point of view.

Capability approaches vis a vis utility occupy substantial parts of the book, on account of their connexions with triad of pleasure, happiness and desire, without having them established with rigour and so with reasons. His view of 'capability approach' can do what he does and what the achievers can form a continuum, so that its intrinsic character can be associated with 'happiness' and 'wellbeing.' As for capability, the author turns towards A K Sen so as to have a sort of choice. A constituent 'wellbeing' comes out but not the totality around. The linkage with 'happiness' appears to find itself well structured. The 'wellbeing' appears to be in a form of juxtaposition elements of quality of life. There has to be a contingent hierarchy somewhere so that Rawl's idea to 'wellbeing' can be established. The Gandhian insistent conviction about means and ends comes up, without being referred to by the author. A fresh set of attributes of wellbeing has been preferred, for developing the 'wellbeing.' 'Wellbeing' continues to be discoursed, with basics drawn from Sen and Adam Smith. The relevant corollaries on wellbeing related to institutionally has been looked into. The author has kept on oscillating between 'wellbeing' and 'capability factor,' hoping to have another nature of definition 'capability.' Sen's relevant work has been just referred to, without unfolding either or both 'happiness' and 'wellbeing' can affordably have. In a chapter, 'rights' occur with whose Rawl's and Sen's could throw light on the score. Shouldn't 'capabilities' be allowed to co-have and cohabit the 'rights,' as was well unfolded by A K Sen? An analysis of welfare state comes up, without the 'wellbeing' having been focussed upon. In a separate chapter, the author has reflected how happiness can arise from, citation of Mathew Arnold and Bertrand Russell, through the classic work *The Conquest of Happiness*. A neighbourhood has to be accorded a priority, as argued by Russell, so as make room for the positivity of 'happiness.' Mathew Arnold puts up on ideas of culture, with a word content so that the author's orientation, well reinforced by thoughts of Tagore, to dharma, coming close to spirituality, with its stages of growth. The author makes use of such ideas dealing with his avowed goals of a morality and spirituality, now.

Then begin the expositions on Aristotle --- to the extent that they fit in with overriding notion of happiness as one of its factors. Aristotle provides the stuff on happiness and good life. The order in which 'good life,' 'successful life' and 'excellent life' ought to occur is touched upon. Some of the later expositions could have been shortened to the extent of presentation of 'eudaimonia' or being translated as 'happiness.' That Aristotelean versions deserve, to the reviewer, brevity in key factors could have been spelt out. The chapter that follows for human good in Aristotelean thought-range could have restricted itself to salients of the summum bonum, rather than digressing to what is a philosopher all about.

The section on 'Virtue as the Domain of God' does provide, on its own, a stable basis that could have moved more criticalities. The pathways of happiness having been initiated, peaks and pitfalls could have come up for consolidating the viewpoint of the author and that too, on scores of 'happiness' being aspired for consolidating for observations on its own provide a bedrock, mostly for tenets of happiness. Critiquing by the author occurs so that morality occupies its own areas of attention. While some of the content may be left to the readers, 'ethics and religion in good life' has an edge over others so that 'virtues in the Bhagavad Gita' come up. 'Human diversity and religious pluralism' are set forth, particularly in the Indian context. The oft cited Vivekananda can in no way be fetished off.

A step later, one is led to a chapter entitled 'A Spiritual Perspective to Happiness.' That an obvious spatiality is inextricably well-dovetailed with happiness comes up on the author's inquisition. Economics is desired to be in the forté elan of this book. Since the economic ideas are unrolled through a great length of pages, the relevant spin-offs need to be adroitly used so that the 'capital' in the environment is not eaten up. That economic derailment can bring about impediments towards spirituality has to be fathomed so that spirituality around flourishes, without being tarnished by obscurantist doctrines. Sustainable development has to be raked up so that the essence of spirituality can figure on an ongoing basis. The author has made use of concepts and techniques but what is desirably necessary is to push towards a resolute inclusivity. A detached view, coupled with a bedrock on spirituality, permits a receptivity to acquire broader inclusive versions so that the 'happiness and wellbeing' may assume to be bedrocks for a vibrant spirituality.

The book represents a fairly structured approach so that involved aspects are well taken care of. The style provides a dimension uniquely of its own. Reading between the lines is a time-consuming affair but a pestering acquisition stands the book in good stead. The elements of the book are enlightening and emboldened. The author has left aside the perennial question: What is the secret of happiness? Response to that question does find a resilience, if not resiliences, in the book, without being secluded or deluded. On the whole, the book turns out to be a must-read for a wider segment of takers.

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GEORGE, Abraham (Ed.) (2013): *Higher Education in India: Emerging Issues and Future Prospects*, New Delhi: Authors Press, pp 518, price: ₹ 1,200.00

Higher education system in the country is in the midst of transition. The system developed over the last seven decades witnessed a major expansion in terms of the institutions established, increase in student enrolment and growth in number of teachers in the system. In addition, over the years, the system has emerged as highly diverse and complex due to participation of private providers in establishment of higher education institutions on the one hand and by initiating efforts/programmes for inclusion of students belonging to different marginalised sections of the society in higher education institutions across India. Against this background, the volume *Higher Education in India: Emerging Issues and Future Prospects*, a collection of 32 articles addressing the issues, challenges and opportunities for improving and transforming of the higher education system in the country, is an insightful and comprehensive compilation.

The first chapter titled "Indian Higher Education: Issues and Challenges," by the volume's editor, provides the context and background of the book. The editor deliberates upon the evolution and growth of higher education in the post-independence period. He points out that education being a concurrent subject in India's Constitution, both central and state governments have taken initiatives to expand and establish the higher education

institutions (HEIs) in the country. Detailing the status and types of higher education institutions, i.e. universities, colleges, or institutions of national importance, the author observes that contribution of private sector in technical education is significantly high. He also raises the concern regarding the large proportion of affiliated colleges, which were recognised by the UGC but were unable to receive any central financial assistance. The author also reflects exhaustively on the major issues and challenges in regard to the academic and administrative aspects of higher education system. He articulates the need for continued involvement of the centre and state governments to ensure equity, access, quality and relevance of higher education. The need for attention towards the emerging challenges -- arising due to privatisation, commercialisation and internationalisation of higher education --- has also been emphasised.

After the introductory first chapter, the articles reflecting the various dimensions of higher education are presented one by one. Though, the chapters are not organised on the basis of any common theme or area, yet they can be clubbed into groups and discussed. Three major issues in higher education, namely affiliation system, internationalisation and multiculturalism, are analysed in three chapters. The issue of affiliation in the universities is examined by A Gnanam in the article "The Legacy of Affiliation and the Need for Alternatives." The article explores the history of the affiliation system and the erosion of university autonomy, and then suggests alternatives to the affiliation system (Chapter 2).

A debate on increasing internationalisation of higher education is the core of Chapter 3 where Samuel Paul argues for using its potential to alleviate the problems of access and quality of higher education in the country. The author makes suggestions for developing a strategic mechanism to collaborate with foreign universities and institutes of acceptable quality in order to supplement the ongoing efforts to expand and transform higher education in the country. Another important aspect which needs to be addressed is multiculturalism. The author, T Oomen, observes that multiculturalism within the borders of national state came to be endorsed as an ideology and value with the onset of modernisation and globalisation phenomena. In case of India, multiculturalism is recognised and cultural diversity is celebrated. Discussing in depth the social and cultural milieu of the country, he argues for higher education institutions to play a constructive role in preparing students for economic and social transformation of the country.

The book devotes three chapters to a discussion at length of the issues and concerns of three types of universities, namely state universities, the deemed universities and open universities. Saidapur (Chapter 4) observes that the state universities are passing through a difficult phase as they have the inadequacy of faculty (due to ban on recruitment), supporting staff, infrastructure and finances. He laments that this decline in quality of state universities and the education imparted by them is largely due to erosion of autonomy and political interference. The need to unburden universities from their affiliating function was also emphasised. To rejuvenate the state universities, he proposed reforms for improving academics, administration and examination systems.

Powar, in his article "The Deemed Universities Imbroglio" (Chapter 5) describes the evolution of the concept of deemed universities and the later debates on conferring of deemed-to-be status to the various institutions. He has noted that the University Education Commission (1950) advocated for special status that of deemed university for some excellent institutions that pursued missions of national importance and contributed to

development of knowledge and values. In order to accommodate these institutions, special provision was made in the University Grants Commission Act of 1956. The author observes that the sudden growth in number of deemed universities in the early 2000s and the adverse reports regarding their functioning raised issues and even led to assessment of performance of these universities and their categorisation in category A, B, C. Further, the author observes that sudden that the resultant UGC Institutions Deemed to be Universities Regulation 2010 emphasised not on quality, access, relevance or diversity but on governance and desire to control / prevent commercialisation. After a discussion and comparison of the public and private deemed to be universities, the author argues that the deemed to be universities, especially the private ones, must become research intensive, offer innovative and useful programmes, and be recognised as a separate class of universities as visualised by the Radhakrishnan Commission to accommodate institutions which are doing good work but do not fulfil the requirements of traditional universities.

Prasad (Chapter 6) observes that in the 21st century the role of open distance learning will be much sought-after. Also, the open universities system, as it has been evolving over the last few decades, may take a different shape in the 21st century. In this chapter, he identifies and proposes 10 guiding principles and their corresponding core elements --- both in academic and administrative subsystems which are contextual to the needs of specific national education systems. In continuation, the discussion on the mushrooming private universities as well as central universities would have helped to provide a holistic and comparable insight.

Governance of higher education in India has been extensively discussed in different chapters of the book. Valerian Rodrigues (Chapter 18) observes that Indian university system continues to be anchored in the philosophies with which it was established. However, in the post-independence period, the higher education system, both in public and private sectors, faced a conflict between the founding objectives and the universally accepted or that of modern ways and practices. The author argues that the influence of the Indian nationalist discourse on the university system requires revisiting the foundations of higher education and developing alternatives for the present pluralist and diverse society of India.

Mariamamma Varghese (Chapter 19) notes that there is need for effective governance of higher education institutions in the external dynamic environment. She has argued for adoption of strategic planning process in order to reform the education system and manage the change in higher education institutions.

In his article (Chapter 20), Thomas argues for strengthening the governance of Indian higher education, innovative role of public and private institutions and faculty recruitment. He asserts that at present the higher education sector is facing several issues which need to be handled carefully and with urgency.

Issues related to minority rights (Chapter 21) and minority welfare (Chapter 22) in education have been raised by Justice Thomas and Mani Jacob. They emphasise that true welfare and empowerment of the minorities will take place only when the minority rights are utilised to benefit the 'community' rather than individuals.

Further, citing the significance of the social justice concept, Xavier Alphonse (Chapter 23) explains the problems of social justice through the lens of educational exclusion, economic exclusion and social exclusion. He argues that community colleges can

emerge as an alternative system of education for the empowerment of the disadvantaged and the underprivileged as they offer skill development programmes.

Autonomy in universities and colleges in Indian higher education system has always remained a pertinent concern. Davies George in his chapter on “Autonomy in Higher Education: Prospects and Challenges” analyses the genesis and challenges of higher education system in the country. He examines the move from affiliated to autonomous colleges, recommendations of Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) and their implementation strategies and advocates for institutional autonomy, especially for colleges, so as to enhance quality and accountability.

In continuation, in his article on “Autonomous Colleges in a Globalised World,” S John Britto discusses in detail the new challenges faced by autonomous colleges in emerging global scenario. The author emphasises the need for rethinking and restructuring the objectives, contents and methodologies of educational programmes.

The focus of article “Quality Assurance in Higher Education in India: A Brief Overview” by B S Madhukar and I H Jahagirdhar is on quality assurance in Indian higher education. The authors review the concepts of quality and quality assurance and quality initiatives in the Indian higher education. It analyses the role of quality assurance agencies, namely the NAAC and NBA in the government sector and CRISIL, a private agency, for grading the business schools and a few international agencies who have granted accreditation to some universities or business schools. The authors emphasise that for continuous improvement, both internal as well as external quality assurance mechanisms, need to be strengthened.

B S Ponnudiraj (Chapter 27) also reflects on the increasing role of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the tasks performed by quality assurance agencies in higher education. He feels that ICT is a boon for these accrediting agencies in view of the pace of expanding number of institutions and the programmes they offer.

In his article, Sujit K Basu (Chapter 28) focusses on education for skill development, character building and strengthening of academic, administrative and financial management of educational institutions. P Jagdish Gandhi assesses the characteristics of education system in place in the article “Values in the Globalised Educational System in India: An Overview,” and reiterates the need for model education institution, the exemplary educator and the value-rich educated cadre in the country. J V Vilanilam analyses the educational ideas of Mahatma Gandhi and highlights their impact on Indian higher education. He cites their relevance in the present times and stresses for their implementation so that the today’s education leads to economic development.

Three chapters in the book are dedicated to teachers in higher education. In his article “Preparing World Class Teachers through Online Education,” S P Thyagarajan argues for the teachers to become tech-savvy. He opines that in the globalised era teachers must adopt technology for the content and delivery methods for providing effective education. The chapter deals with the issue of inadequate availability of teachers and proposes that faculty development programmes for teachers to enhance their online teaching potential would not only equip the teaching community for online education but also an investment in the interest of the future manpower and economic prosperity of the country.

In his paper on “Education and Formation: The Indian Context” (Chapter 30) Cyriac Thomas looks through the ancient practices of Indian education. He refers to education as pilgrimage for perfection, where the teacher itself is the role model to students.

However, he observes that over the years the cherished values of the past have been sidelined while trying to keep pace with the changes taking place around us. And, in this context, role and credibility of the teachers is a very pertinent and serious challenge to sustain the quality of education. He advocates the need to find out some rational mechanism for selection and faculty improvement programmes for improving the quality of education at school, college and university.

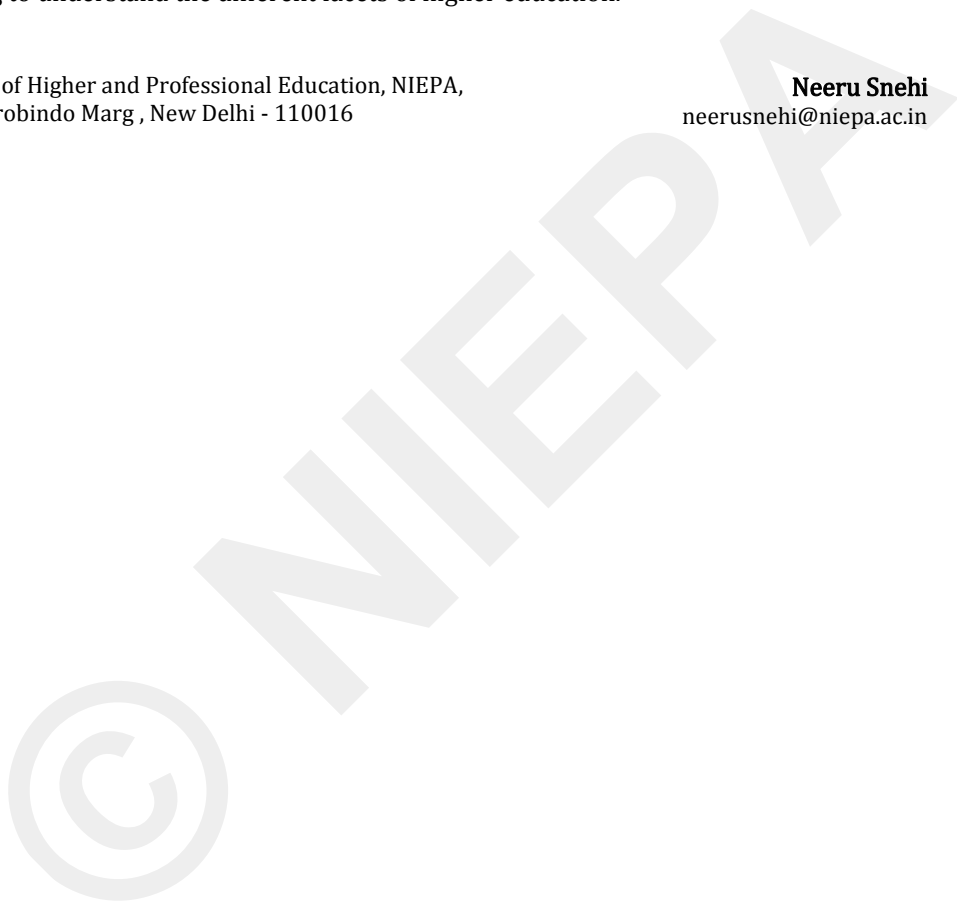
In the chapter "Staff Development in Higher Education: Role of Academic Staff Colleges" (Chapter 32), Bhadrayu Vachhrajani analyses the role of academic staff colleges. He emphasises on regular objective assessment and the need to strengthen the academic staff colleges so that they could perform their functions adequately.

The book also includes nine chapters (Chapter 9-17) which deal with different fields of education. These chapters analyse the status of these disciplines, discuss their significance, approaches towards their teaching and provide suggestions for alternative pedagogies. G Balamohan Jhampi advocates for appropriate weightage for humanities and value education in the curriculum of higher education programmes. Citing the importance of economics, C J Kurien emphasises the need for alternative pedagogical approaches for teaching of economics. N R Madhav Menon reinforces the need for reforms in legal education in view of the increasing demands of the emerging diverse and global society. M Y Pyles puts forwards suggestions for bringing a radical change in the country in the present system of management education in the country. Soundararaj's article on "Teaching Spoken English" analyses the problems specific to the teaching of spoken English in colleges and universities. Based on the successful experiment done in Loyola Institute of Business Administration, he suggests an outline of a two weeks bridge course in English Communication. Challenges and concerns of medical education in India have been discussed by B Ekbal. He emphasises the need for medical faculty to undertake medical research and to create conducive atmosphere for research in medical colleges. Chandrakant Kokate highlights the problems in pharmaceutical education, and observes that the overregulation by Pharmaceutical Council of India and All India Council of Technical Education had adversely affected the quality of the pharmacy education system. He laments the inadequate research by the academicians in the field and states that research capacities need to be enhanced to develop commercially viable pharmaceuticals of global standards. R V G Menon traces the evolution and growth of technical education in India. He explains that the sudden expansion in technical institutions in the post-independent India has resulted in several concerns, especially those of regional imbalances and shortage of qualified faculty. The author endorses the suggestions made by the National Knowledge Commission to overhaul the management and technical education in India. In his paper on "An Innovation Framework for Practice-Predominant Engineering Education," Om Vikas examines the curricula of engineering programmes, the supply-demand mismatch and other concerns. He highlights the disconnect between the engineering programmes offered and the needs of the country. He also describes the scenario of the engineering education, vocational education, emerging technologies and offer recommendations for innovation-centric education. Inclusion of other disciplines, especially the languages, biological and physical sciences and others, would have enriched the scope of the volume.

On the whole, the present volume offers a comprehensive account of higher education system, its development-related debates and the challenges faced in the post-independence period. The authors have attempted to provide a theoretical and experiential understanding of the challenges before the higher education system in the country in a lucid language. The book will be of immense value to all the scholars, academicians and policy makers who are striving to understand the different facets of higher education.

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