

Occasional Papers

Private Universities in India Growth Status and Concerns

Sangeeta Angom



National University of Educational Planning and Administration

17-B, Sri Aurobindo Marg, New Delhi-110016, INDIA

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Sangeeta Angom



Department of School and Non-Formal Education
National University of Educational Planning and Administration
17-B, Sri Aurobindo Marg, New Delhi – 110 016

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ABBREVIATIONS

B. Tech	Bachelor of Technology
B.E	Bachelor of Engineering
BBA	Bachelor of Business Administration
BCA	Bachelor of Computer Application
Bio.Tech	Bio Technology
Bio.Chem	Biochemistry
BI-Bio	informatics
BT-Bio	Technology
BTDD-Bio	Technology Dual Degree
CSE	Computer Science and Engineering
CII	Confederation of Indian Industry
ECE	Electronics and Communication Engineering
LLB	Bachelor of Law
LLM	Master of Law
M.Phil	Master of Philosophy
MHRD	Ministry of Human Resource Development
MBA	Master of Business Administration
MBBS	Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery
MHRD	Ministry of Human Resource and Development
MSW	Master in Social Work
MCA	Master of Computer Application
NUEPA	National University of Educational Planning and Administration
PGDCA	Post Graduate Diploma in Computer Applications
PGDEM	P.G. Diploma in Educational Management
Ph.D	Doctorate of Philosophy

Private Universities in India

Growth, Status and Concerns

Sangeeta Angom*

Abstract[#]

With the liberalisation of economic policy, there has been a surge in the provision of private higher education in India. Till 1980, higher education sector was controlled by the government and thereafter, there has been a trend towards privatization of higher education (Agarwal, 2006). Setting up of private universities under the State Private University Act by individuals and private trusts is a new trend in privatization of higher education in the country during the 21st century. From the modest number of 15 pioneered universities in 2005, there were 184 private universities in July 2014 (UGC, 2014). The present occasional paper is based on the findings of the study on 12 private universities, which were examined in terms of their enrolment, financing, governance, facilities and quality provisions. Data, which were collected for the study by using questionnaires from university representatives, teachers and students concern, and also from university documents, were used for the present paper. The purpose is to throw light on an important policy issue for India and contribute to the general debate on the role of private sector, specifically private universities, in the provision of higher education. The study revealed that private universities are in an expansion phase and hence they concentrate more on getting good quality students, higher enrolment, getting experienced qualified teachers as well as getting funding agencies for undertaking research activities. Some of the universities are with inadequate teaching-learning equipment and infrastructure. Based on the available evidence, the present paper concludes that some of the private universities are currently trying to set the pace for future growth and it is hoped that some modest achievements of private universities would be maintained and improved upon in the future. However, the private university sector in India still has some distance to cover in providing quality education or services to its clientele.

* Assistant Professor, Department of Higher & Professional Education, NUEPA, New Delhi.

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Introduction

Private higher education was rightly predicted to be emerging as one of the most dynamic segments of post-secondary education at the turn of the 21st century (Altbach, 1999). In recent decade, the sector captured huge attention in the wake of its tremendous growth (Levy, 2009). The sector is growing so fast in many settings, including India; there are major variations at national level. Most of the west European countries are still dominated by public universities, whereas in East European countries, private higher education is becoming more successful in terms of share in enrolment (Gupta, 2008). Further, in countries like the Philippines, Republic of Korea, Japan, Indonesia, the private sector accounts for quite high enrolment, while its share is very low in countries like Spain, Thailand and Papua New Guinea (Mishra, 2004), with France, Germany, Israel and United Kingdom still conforming to the regional norm of small private sectors (Levy, 2009). Gieger (1986) had also strongly felt that private sectors in higher education differed conspicuously from country to country; and their developments had been shaped by rather different forces. In the closing decade of the 20th century, one has witnessed global change in the social and intellectual climate in favour of private economy. In India, the important factors behind emergence of private sector in higher education were the processes of globalisation and internationalisation (Tilak, 1999), the Government's economic policy on liberalization and privatisation (Shastree, 2004), and also the inability of public sector to meet the demand for higher education and inability of the government to provide financial support for higher education.

Till 1980, higher education sector was controlled by the government and thereafter, there has been a trend towards privatization of higher education (Agarwal, 2006). Setting up of private universities under the State Private University Act by individuals and private trusts has been a new trend of privatization of higher education in the country during the 21st century. As early as 2004, the concept of private universities was an alien concept in India but the establishment of Manipal Institute of Bangalore heralded the arrival of the first private university in the country. The Govt. of India introduced the Private Universities Establishment and Regulation Bill, 1995, in

Rajya Sabha, and the Bill was referred to the standing committee for its views. Since then, though the subject has been discussed in different fora but the Bill has not been passed in Parliament. However, some state governments have taken the initiative of introducing Bills for establishing Private Universities. It has been observed that the emergence of private universities in recent years has been phenomenal and widely accepted. As such, it is pertinent to study the growth and expansion of private university sectors in India focusing on enrolment; programmes offered; student and teacher; financing and governance; output performance and research; infrastructure facilities. The present occasional paper is based on the findings of a study on 12 private universities (from eight states) which were examined in terms of their enrolment, courses offered, cost, governance, facilities and quality provisions. The study probes further into some of the challenges faced by private universities, with special reference to India, based on data collected from 12 sample universities.

Indian Higher Education: Expansion, Issues and Realities

India has an illustrious history in education and was, during the ancient and medieval eras, the home for great institutions of learning such as Nalanda, Taxila and Vikramshila, which attracted and hosted scholars from across the world. During the ancient period, higher education was offered through Gurukulas (mentor-centric schools) which provided religious and esoteric learning exclusively for the privileged classes of society. With the expansion and institutionalization of higher education institutions such as Nalanda and Taxila, specialized knowledge, primarily religious knowledge, was pursued by Buddhist monks. Towards the medieval period, education continued to be largely rooted to religion and deeply linked to the ways of living and livelihood of people. Indigenous systems of teaching, in the context of particular communities or groups, continued with variations across the region. Under the British rule, education was elitist, catering to only the socially advantaged sections of society, and largely institutionalised to meet the administrative requirements of imperialist rule in India. The foundation of modern Indian higher education was laid by the British colonial regime in the mid-19th century (Ashby & Anderson, 1966). Western education was introduced with Macaulay's Minute with the purpose of developing an educated

class of people to interpret Indian thought to the West (Soundararaj, 2004). The controversy between the “Anglicists” and “Orientalists” was resolved by William Bentinck in favour of the Anglicist orientation in line with Macaulay’s Minute. Subsequently, his policy was reaffirmed by Charles Wood’s Despatch in 1854. On the recommendations of the committee appointed in 1885, the first three pioneer Presidency universities were established in 1857 at Bombay, Madras and Calcutta and were modeled after the London University (Bhatt & Aggarwal, 1969). These pioneer universities were largely affiliating and examining bodies and all the universities established thereafter were developed and patterned on these universities (Jayaram, 2004). During the next 25 years, there was an increase in the number of colleges which led to the demand for more universities and, by the time India became independent in 1947, it had 18 universities and a total student strength of a little less than 0.2 million (Powar, 1995).

Currently, in India (see Table 1), there are three main types of tertiary education: i) University and university-level institutions, ii) Colleges, and iii) Diploma-awarding institutions (British Council, 2014).

Table 1
Higher Education Institutions in India

Type and Number of Institution	Central	State	Private	Total
University and university-level institutions	152	316	191	659
Colleges	669	13,024	19,930	33,023
Diploma-awarding institutions	0	3,207	9,541	12,748
Percentage enrolment in 2012	2.6%	38.6%	58.9%	100%

Source: British Council (2014): Understanding India-The Future of Higher Education and opportunities for International Cooperation

The affiliating colleges, public and private, affiliated to state universities, cater to the major share of higher education. The affiliating colleges are huge, enrolling over 90 per cent of undergraduates, 70 per cent of post-graduates and 17 per cent of doctoral students (Ernst and Young, 2012). Some state universities, for example Osmania University in Hyderabad, have as many as 1000 colleges affiliated to them. According to British Council (2014), there are considerable challenges in regulation and quality control and while there are notable exceptions, many are perceived to be sub-standard.

Further, State universities, the greatest element of Indian higher education, have been critically unfunded over the last 20 years. Moreover, there are wide variations in the quantum of funding received by State universities and they spend more time administering the examinations and admissions in their affiliated colleges. Private universities, the fastest area of growth, enjoy degree awarding powers and much more autonomy. The Institutes of National Importance and central universities have been the focus of central government priorities and funding and most international collaboration is concentrated in these institutes. Besides teaching, these institutions have also focused on research and enjoy high prestige within the country and abroad.

Growth and Expansion of Higher Education in India

There has been unprecedented growth of higher education in the country since Independence and the growth can be discussed in three phases (Agarwal, 2006). The first phase (from 1947 to 1980) relates to the growth of grant-in-aid (GIA) institutions or private aided institutions. The second phase (from 1980 to 2000) covers, in the wake of the economic reforms in early 1990s, the period of accelerated growth of private higher education due to the rising demand of higher education from the middle classes and the growing culture of entrepreneurship, with this period also marking virtual withdrawal of the government from taking additional responsibility for higher education in India. The third phase (from 2000 onwards) relates to the growth of deemed-to-be universities in private sectors. By early 2005, seven private universities recognized by UGC were set up in different states. But the Chhattisgarh case of closure of over 97 private universities, following the Supreme Court order in February 2005, attests to the fact that there are a number of loopholes in the regulatory system of higher education in the country.

Over the last decade, higher education has witnessed a steep growth trajectory. India has now the largest higher education system in the world in terms of number of institutions and the second largest in terms of number of students. However, despite impressive growth, India's higher education Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) at 19.4 per cent is currently well below the global average of 27 per cent. This difference is even

starker when compared with China and Brazil at 26 per cent and 36 per cent respectively (Ernst and Young, 2012). The government of India plans to increase GER in higher education to 30 per cent by 2020 (FYP, GOI, PC, 2012). The number of higher educational institutions has increased from about 30 universities and 750 colleges in 1950-51 to about 700 universities and university-level institutions and 35,324 colleges (as of 2012-13), according to a recent UGC report. It implies a 12-fold increase in the number of universities and 20-fold rise in the number of colleges since Independence in 1947. Table 2 provides the growth pattern of colleges and universities and university-level institutions from 1950-51 to 2012-13.

Table 2
Growth of Colleges and Universities in India during 1950-51 to 2012-2013

Years	Colleges of General Education	Colleges of Professional Education	Universities/Deemed Universities/Institutes of National Importance
1950-51	370	208	27
1960-61	967	852	45
1970-71	2285	992	82
1980-81	3421	3542**	110
1990-91	4862	886	184
2000-01	7929	2223	254
2001-02	8737	2409	272
2002-03	9166	2610	304
2003-04	9427	2751	304
2004-05	10377	3201	343
2005-06	11698	5284	350
2006-07	11458	8357	371
2007-08	13381	9718	406
2008-09	15852	12030	440
2012-13	35,324		700

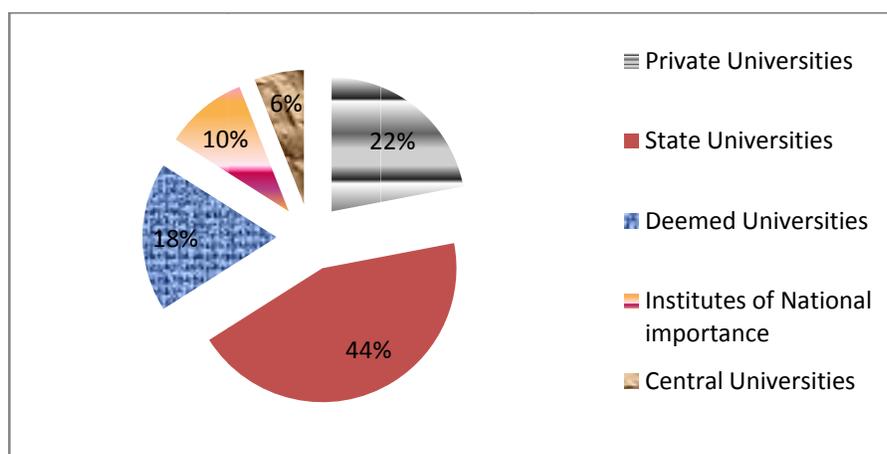
** includes institutions for Post-Matric Courses

Source: Selected Educational Statistics-2005-06; Statistics of Higher & Technical Education-2008-09; Higher education at a Glance, UGC, 2013

As illustrated in Fig 1, the break-up of number of higher education institutions, especially universities and university-level institutions, in the country shows that the share of state universities is the highest (44 per cent) followed by private universities (22 per cent), deemed universities (18 per cent), institutes of national importance (10 per cent) and central universities (6 per cent). During the period 2006-07 to

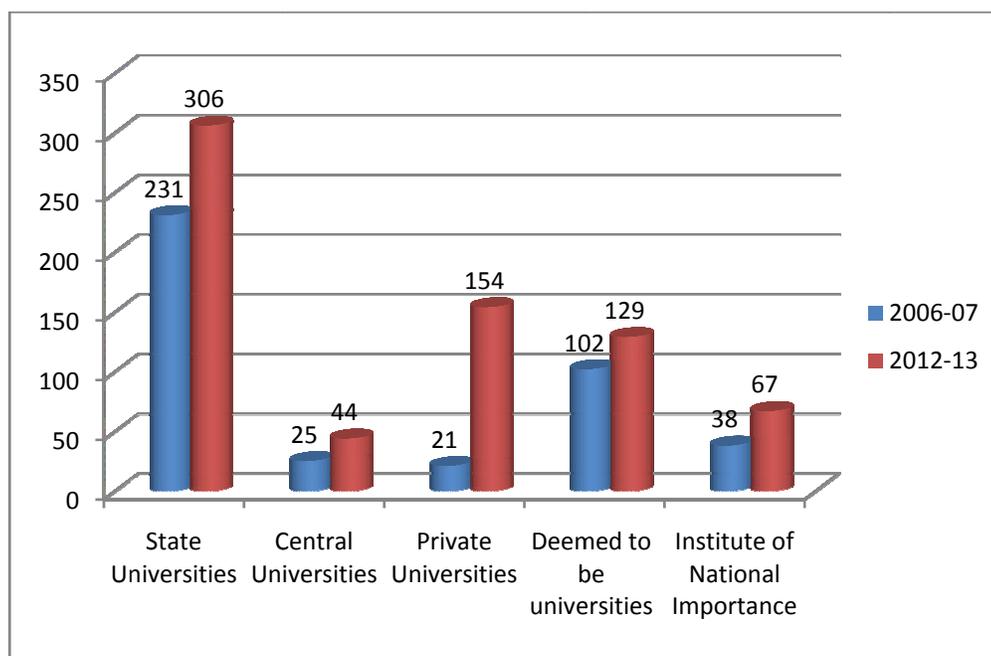
2012-13, the private universities registered the highest growth rate at 86 per cent followed by institutes of national importance with 43 per cent growth rate (as illustrated in Figure 2).

Figure 1
Break-up of Universities and University-level institutions, 2012-13



Source: Higher Education at a glance, UGC, June, 2013

Figure 2
Numbers of Universities and other Institutions, 2006-07 to 2012-13

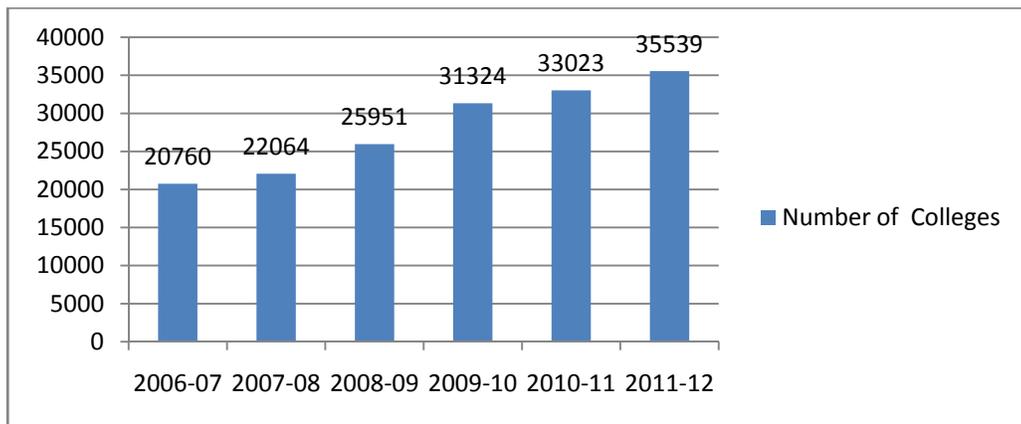


Source: Higher Education in India at a Glance, UGC, June, 2013

Number of Colleges

In the last six years from 2006-07 to 2011-12, there has been a 41 per cent increase in the number of colleges from 20,760 in 2006-07 to 35,539 in 2011-12, as illustrated in Figure 3. However, the increase in the number of Colleges varied among the states, with Uttar Pradesh accounting for the maximum increase with 2303 colleges, followed by Rajasthan (1576), Maharashtra (1473), Andhra Pradesh (1286), Tamil Nadu (1113) etc. (as per UGC Annual report, 2011-12). It is also observed that the growth in the number of colleges is almost minimal in all the States located in the North- Eastern Region and a few of the Union Territories.

Figure 3
Numbers of Colleges in India, 2006-07 to 2011-12



Source: UGC Annual Report 2010-11, 2011-12 & MHRD, Annual Report, 2010-11

Further, there are wide variations in the number of colleges per state and also per district. In the top 10 districts, almost 14 per cent colleges are located while the top 50 districts have about 40 per cent of colleges. College density, i.e. the number of colleges per lakh eligible population (population in the age-group 18 - 23 years) varies from five in Bihar and Jharkhand to 54 in Puducherry against the All India average of 23. The top six States in terms of the number of colleges in India are Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh and out of them all States, barring Uttar Pradesh, have more than 23 colleges per lakh population. Most of the colleges in India conduct only UG level programmes. Only 1.9 per cent and 33.4 per cent colleges conduct Ph.D. and Post-Graduate learning programmes respectively. Majority of colleges (73 per cent) are privately managed, of which 59 per cent are

private unaided and 14 per cent private aided. The remaining are Government colleges. There are wide variations among states in the number of private colleges (MHRD, 2013).

Enrolment and Faculty Position in Higher Education Institutions

Enrolment: The increase in the enrolment is consistent with the expansion of Higher Education Institutions over the years. The total enrolment in higher education has increased from 0.21 million in 1950-51 to about 22 million in 2011-12, while the GER has increased from 0.40 per cent in 1950-51 to 19.4 per cent in 2012-13 (MHRD,CII & Deloitte, 2013), as illustrated in Figure no. 4 and Figure no. 5 below.

Figure 4

Total Student Enrolment in Higher Education (in 000')

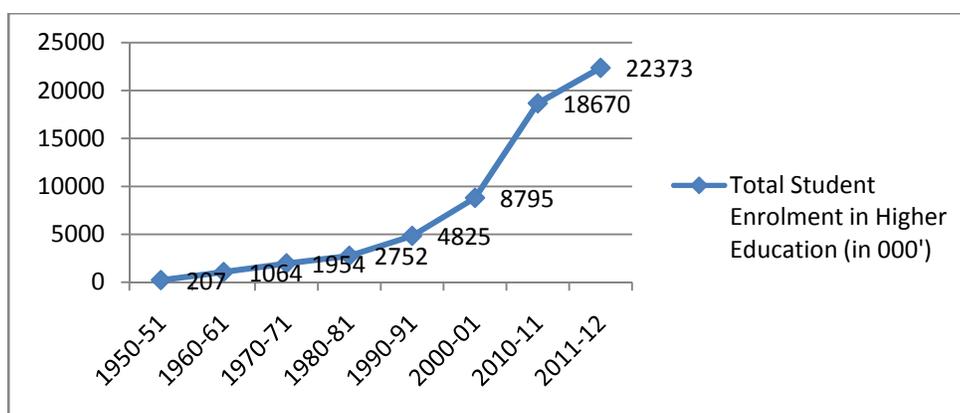
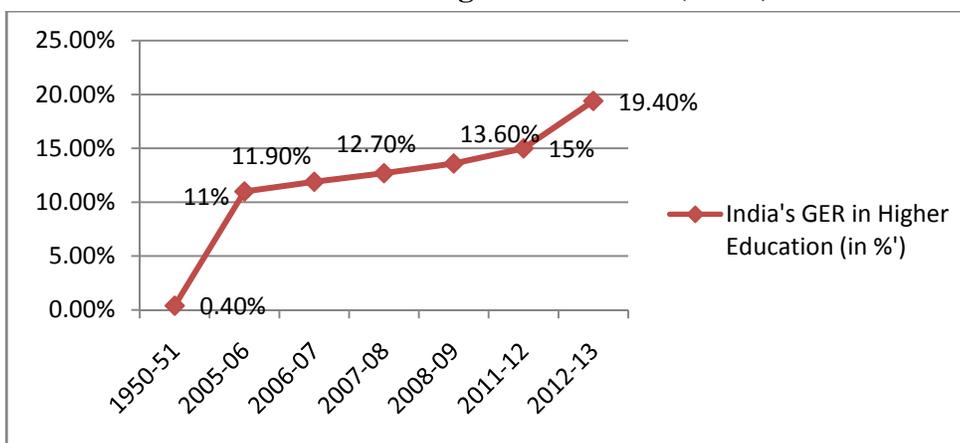


Figure 5

India's GER in Higher Education (in %')



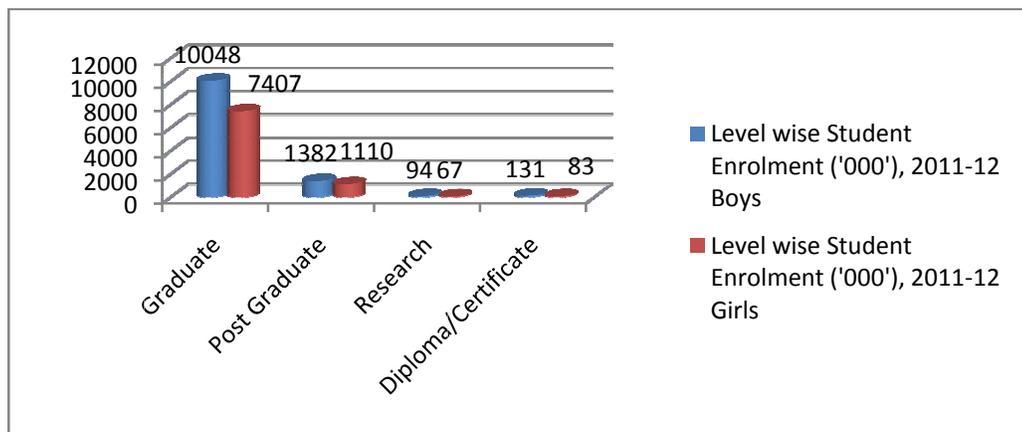
Source: Higher Education in India at a Glance, UGC, 2013

Level-wise enrolment

In terms of distribution of enrolment across various levels, majority of enrolment (86 per cent) is at the graduate level followed by post-graduate (12 per cent). Enrolment at research level (1 per cent) and diploma/certificate level (1 per cent) is still negligible. There is also disparity in enrolment of boys and girls at all levels (see Figure no. 6).

Figure 6

Level wise students' enrolment ('000'): Boys & Girls 2011-12*

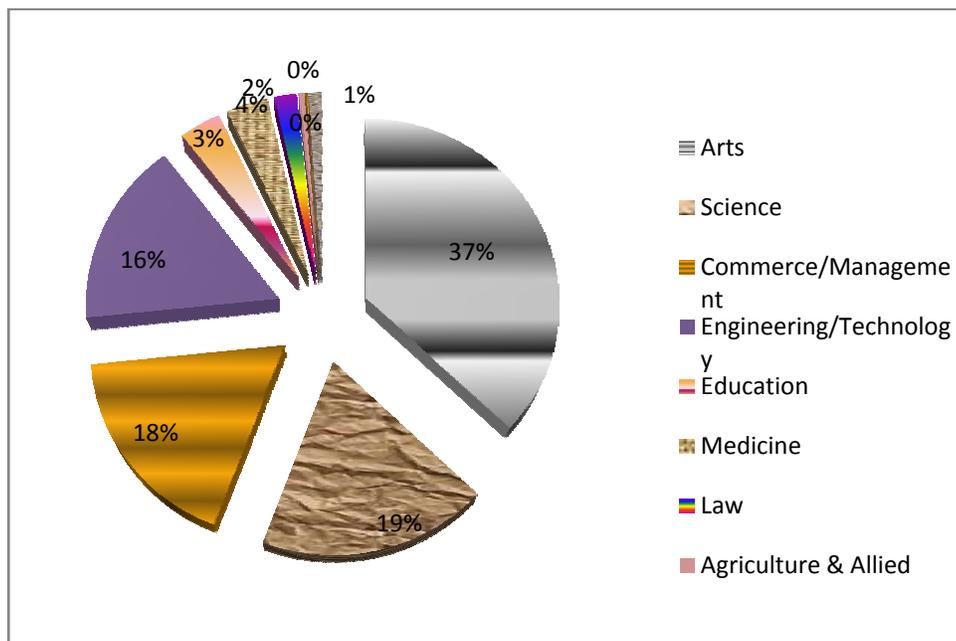


Source: Higher Education in India at a Glance, UGC, 2013 *Provisional

Enrolment by course

With regard to course-wise distribution of enrolment in higher education, as indicated in Figure 7, Arts has been the favored choice among students accounting for 37 per cent enrolment, followed by 19 per cent for Science, 18 per cent for commerce/management and 16 per cent for Engineering/Technology.

Figure 7
Distribution of Enrolment by Courses in Higher Education

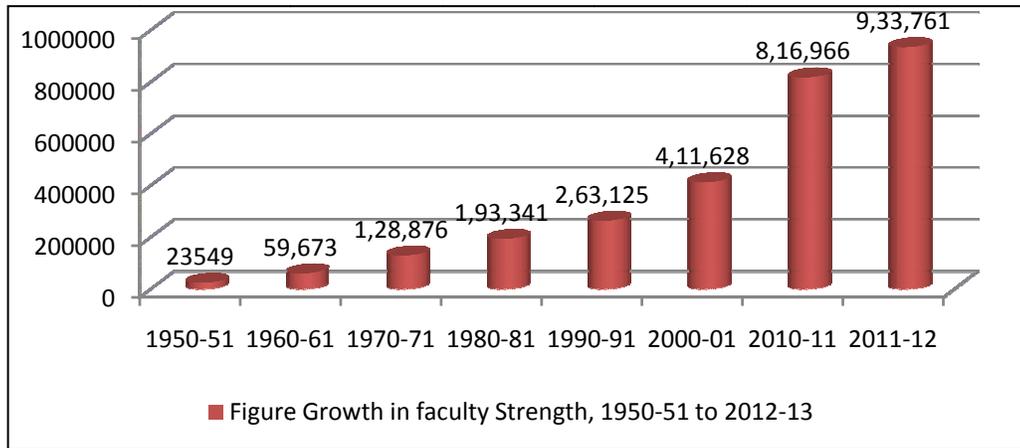


Source: *Higher Education in India at a Glance, UGC, 2013* * Provisional

Enrolment by social groups

Annual Status of Higher Education in States and Union Territories (UTs), 2013 has clearly mentioned that the overarching goal of a progressive higher education system is to ensure that education is available uniformly to all concerned without any bias. While considering the GER in higher education for different social groups, the survey found that the representation of Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs) in enrolment in Indian higher education have remained low over the years. The GER of SCs in higher education is 12.2 per cent (2009-10), while that of the STs Population stands at 9.7 per cent (2009-10), which is far below the national average. Further, there is wide variation between female GER (12.7 per cent) and male GER (17.1 per cent) and the gap between male and female GER is more pronounced in urban areas compared to the rural areas. Similarly, GER in urban areas (32.5 per cent) is more than double that of the GER in rural areas (13.9 per cent). Finally, there is a felt need to initiate efforts for increasing GER of STs and SCs as well as an urgent need to broaden the institutional reach in rural areas in order to strike a balance (MHRD, CII & Deloitte, 2013).

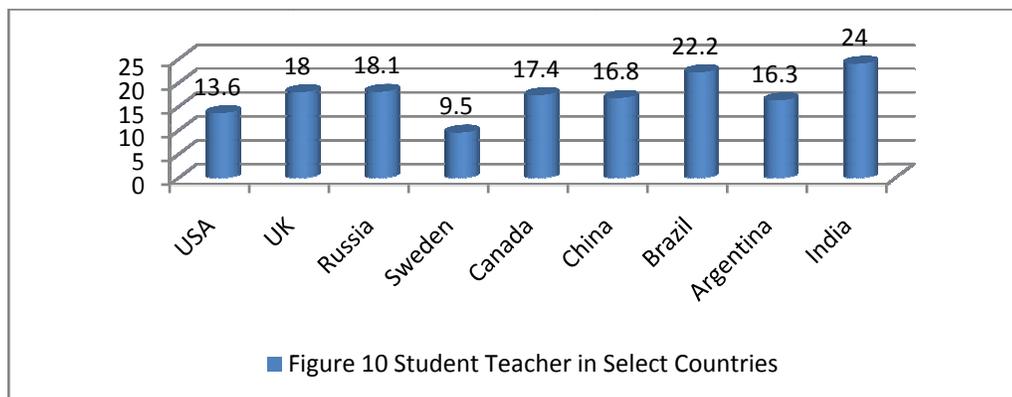
Figure 8
Growth of Faculty Strength in Higher Education,
1950-51 to 2012-13



Source: UGC, Higher Education in India at a Glance-June, 2013

Faculty: There has been consistent growth in the faculty strength in higher education; however, it has not been found matching the growth in student enrolment numbers. Referring to Figure 8, while the student enrolments have gone up more than 100 times between 1950-51 and 2011-12, the number of teachers has gone up less than 40 times, which implies the student-teacher ratios have declined by about 2.5 times over this period (MHRD, CII & Deloitte, 2013). In comparison to other countries, India's standing is quite poor with regard to student-teacher ratio, which is 1:24, while USA and China have corresponding levels of 1:13.6 and 1:16.8 respectively, as given in Figure 9.

Figure 9
Student Teacher in Select Countries



Source: Annual Status of Higher Education in States and UTs, 2013

Figure 10 gives detailed number of faculty category-wise at university teaching departments/university colleges during the year 2011-12 and it shows that 41 per cent of the total faculty were lecturers whereas only 17 per cent were professors and their equivalent. On the other hand, in affiliating colleges, 65 per cent of the faculty are lecturers whereas only seven per cent are professors, as indicated in Figure 11. Further, an analysis of the availability of faculty on the basis of experience reveals that a majority of universities and colleges have more lecturers with relatively less experience while the more experienced readers and professors, especially in the affiliated colleges, constitute a small proportion, and this has a bearing on the quality of education (MHRD, CII & Deloitte, 2013).

Figure 10
Level wise distribution of faculty in University teaching Departments/University colleges, 2011-12

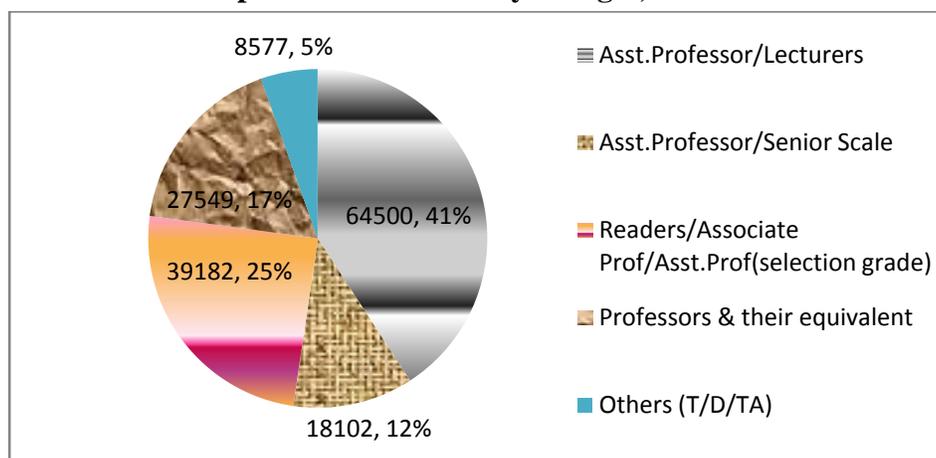
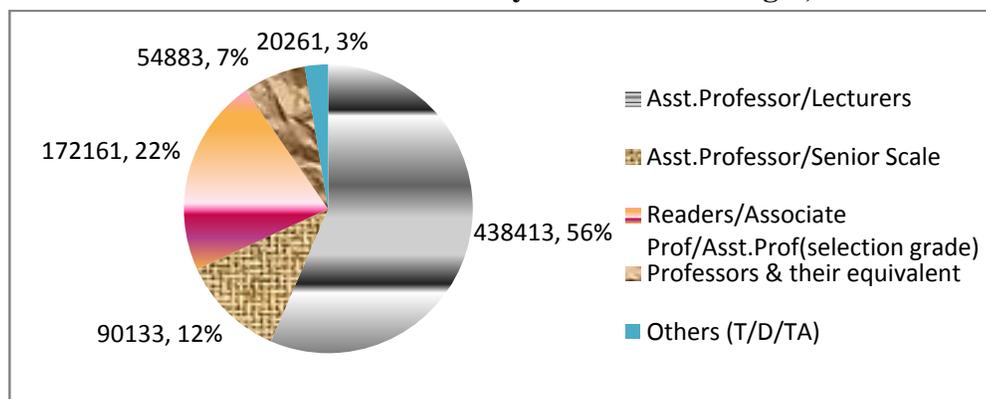


Figure 11
Level wise distribution of faculty in affiliated colleges, 2011-12



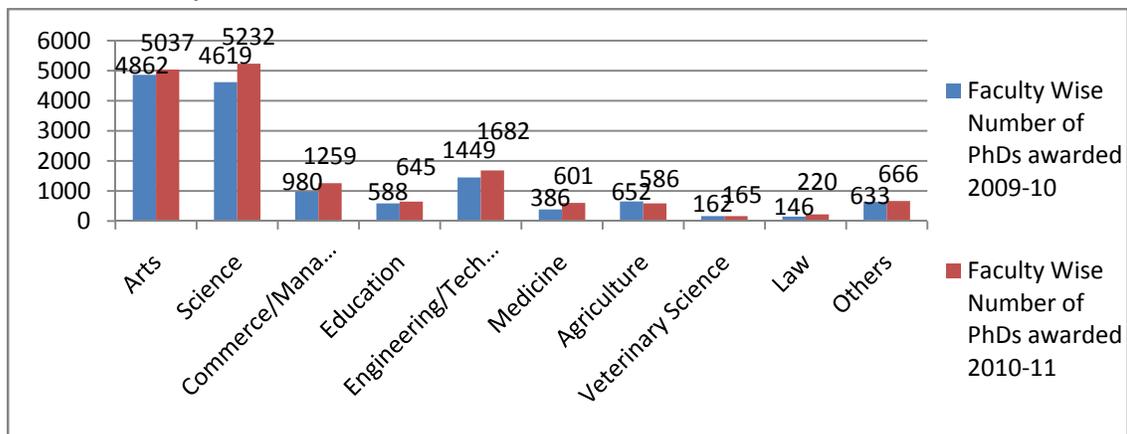
Source: UGC Annual Report, 2011-12.

Research

Research, being one of the key components of higher education, ensures that higher education remains vibrant. The two important parameters to ascertain progress in research are the quantum of spending on research and developmental activities and enrolment for as well as award of Ph.Ds. The number of Ph.Ds awarded in India has doubled over a 10- year period from 1998 to 2007, growing at an annual rate of about 9 per cent during the period, whereas the number of Ph.Ds awarded in China grew at a rate of over 18 per cent during the same period (MHRD, CII & Deloitte, 2013). Further, the number of research degrees (Ph.Ds) awarded by various universities went up from 14,477 in 2009-2010 to 16,093 in 2010-2011, accounting for an increase of 11.16 per cent (see Figure 12). Out of the total number of Ph.Ds awarded in 2010-2011, the Faculty of Science had the highest number with 5232 degrees, followed by the Faculty of Arts with 5037 Ph.D. degrees. These two faculties, together, accounted for 63.81 per cent of the total number of Ph.D. degrees awarded. In the professional faculties, the faculty of Engineering & Technology had topped with as many as 1682 Ph.D. degrees, followed by Education faculty with 645 degrees, Medicine faculty with 601 degrees, Agriculture faculty with 586 degrees, etc. A slight increasing trend was witnessed in academic research in terms of number of research degrees awarded by the Universities during 2010-2011 as compared to the figures for 2009-2010. As compared to the total enrolment for the year 2010-2011, the number of Ph.Ds produced had been to the extent of 0.1 per cent only. Therefore, promotion of research needs to be addressed by providing funds to the institutions.

Figure 12

Faculty-wise number of Ph.Ds awarded in India, 2009-10 & 2010-11



Source: UGC (2013), Higher Education in India at a Glance

On quantum of spending on research and development activities, India's share in R&D spending to the total global R &D spending stands at 2.1 per cent while the share of China is 12.5 per cent (MHRD,CII & Deloitte, 2013). This figure shows clearly that there is a need to increase spending on R & D.

However, while referring to innovation as one of the important parameters of Global Competitiveness Index (GCI), it can be mentioned that innovation is particularly important for economies as they approach the frontiers of knowledge, and the possibility of generating more value, by merely integrating and adapting exogenous technologies, tends to disappear. Referring to Global Competitive Index, for those economies ranked lower than 50th in overall GCI, any individual indicators with a rank of 50 or better is considered to be advantages. For India, ranked 71th overall, its individual indicators, namely, capacity of innovation (48th), company spending on R&D (30th), University-industry collaboration in R&D (50th) and availability of scientists and engineers (45th), constitute a competitive advantage for innovation pillars (World Economic Forum, 2014). This shows that India has capacity for research and innovation, however, this requires an environment that is conducive to innovative activity and supported by both the public and the private sectors. In particular, it means sufficient investment in research and development (R&D), the presence of high quality scientific research institutions that can generate the basic knowledge needed to build the new technologies; extensive collaboration in research and technological developments between universities and industry; and the protection of intellectual property, in addition to high levels of competition and access to venture capital and financing.

Issues and Realities of Indian Higher Education

Indian higher education is experiencing currently a phase of unprecedented expansion, marked by an explosion in the volume of students, a substantial expansion in the number of institutions and a quantum jump in the level of public funding (UGC,2011). However, *less than one-fifth of the estimated 120 million potential students are enrolled in HEIs in India, well below the world average of 26 per cent. Wide disparities exist in enrolment percentages among states and between urban and rural areas while disadvantaged sections of society and women have significantly lower*

enrolments than the national average. The pressure to increase access to affordable education is steadily increasing with the number of eligible students set to double by 2020. At the same time, significant problems exist in quality of education provided. The sector is plagued by a shortage of well-trained faculty, poor infrastructure and outdated and irrelevant curricula. The use of technology in higher education remains limited and standards of research and teaching at Indian universities are far below international standards (12th FYP). Many have generally mentioned that higher education has become more deregulated, privatized and market-oriented during the last 50 years, under various domestic and international pressures in terms of professional education, continuous education and new areas of studies such as environment; and biotechnology on a competitive basis. Universities are entering into joint ventures, merging across the borders and sharing human resources at a time when collaboration, rather than maddening competition, makes more sense (Gupta, 2008). Nevertheless, many problems and issues remain, as given below, that could pose serious obstacles in upgrading Indian higher education in the future.

a) Lower access to higher education and regional imbalances: Access remains a challenge both of concern and controversy worldwide with higher education being more readily available to wealthier segments of the population. In India too, even though the post- Independence period witnessed rapid and sizeable growth of higher education, at the same time it has been quite inadequate. Moreover, it has also been uneven which has given rise to numerous issues relating to access to higher education. Many regions and many segments of population appear to be left out, providing clinching evidence of disparities and imbalances which need to be corrected as soon as possible (UGC, 2011). There are rural-urban and inter-state disparities, inter-religious group differences, besides disparities relating to gender, occupations, poor and non-poor sections.

1. Rural-urban: Majority of the population i.e., 68.8 per cent of the households belonged to rural India and accounted for nearly 71.2 per cent of total population as per NSSO data (2012-13). The GER in urban areas (32.5 per cent) is more than double that of the GER in rural areas (13.9 per cent). This is reflective of the concentration of private HEIs in urban areas that seek to attract the young urban

population. Other factors that play a role in GER differences between the urban and the rural areas are affordability, willingness and eligibility.

2. Inter-state disparities: GER across different states and regions is not uniform. Some of the southern states have a high GER, while states like Bihar, West Bengal and Madhya Pradesh have a relatively less GER due to low institutional density.
3. Inter-religious group differences: In India, with the exclusion of Muslims, other religious groups have GER higher than the national average.
4. Inter-caste variations: There are variations in GER among different castes; while the national average of GER is 10.84 per cent, the SC, ST and OBC had GER of 12.2 per cent, 9.7 per cent and 8.77 per cent respectively as on 2009-10.
5. Gender disparities: There exist wide disparities between male and female GERs in India. GER for female students is only 12.7 per cent as compared to 17.1 per cent for male students and it can also be noted that GER of female students belonging to lower caste groups and some social groups, particularly Muslims, are even lower. The gap between male and female GER is more pronounced in the urban areas compared to rural areas (MHRD, CII & Deloitte, 2013).
6. Disparities among occupations: GER for the agricultural laborers (1.41 per cent) and casual workers in urban areas (3.26 per cent) are found to be lower than salary-earners, self-employed and regular wage-earners.
7. Poor and non-poor disparities: There is a difference in the GER for the students who belong to poor (2.41 per cent) and non-poor communities (12.81 per cent).

b) Issue of quality in higher education: Despite its impressive growth, higher education in the country could maintain only a very small base of quality institutions at the top. Majority of the institutions have been facing poor standards of education. In India, a large number of colleges are precluded from UGC development grant, as they are unable to meet the minimum eligibility criteria laid down by UGC—a minimum critical level of quality in terms of physical and academic infrastructure. Out of total colleges as on 31 March, 2014, that come under the purview of UGC, only 9860 (24 per

cent) are recognized under Section 2(f), and out of 9860 colleges only 7815 (79 per cent) are eligible to receive grants from the UGC under Section 12B of UGC Act (UGC, 2013-14). According to UGC (2011), out of a total of 164 universities receiving developmental grants from the UGC, 111 universities are accredited by the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) and, among them only 32 per cent have been rated as a grade and above. Amongst the 4,870 colleges, as many as 2,780 are accredited by the NAAC and among them barely 9 per cent are rated as A or above. Further, NAAC (2015) statistics show that only 40 per cent (266) universities and 17.3 per cent (6878) colleges are accredited with the NAAC so far. This figures hardly speak well of universities and colleges in the country. Forbes (2014) rightly mentioned that the quality problem of institutions, that India now faces, is a direct consequence of its emphasis on quantity over quality and the solution is not to limit expansion but rather improve quality.

c) Low quality of teaching and learning: One of the greatest challenges facing higher education in India is shortage of faculty and also no proper training in teaching for faculty. Other issues relating to teaching and learning which compound the problems include (British Council, 2014):

- ❖ Outdated, rigid curricula and the absence of employer engagement in course content and skills' development. Very few opportunities of inter-disciplinary learning are available.
- ❖ Pedagogies and assessment are focused on input and rote learning, with students having little opportunity to develop a wider range of transversal skills, including critical thinking, analytical reasoning, problem solving and collaborative working
- ❖ High student-teacher ratio due to lack of teaching staff and pressure to enrol more students
- ❖ Separation of teaching and research; lack of early stage research experience
- ❖ An ineffective quality assurance system and a complete lack of accountability of institutions to the state and central government, students and other stakeholders

d) Shortage of faculty: It is a well-known fact that the two main challenges to quality education relating to teachers for many years have been faculty shortages and inability of the education system to attract and retain well-qualified teachers. The number of teachers in higher education has not kept pace with the growth in student enrolments and this aspect needs considerable and concerted attention to ensure the sustainability of the higher education system. A study on Human Resource and Skill Requirements in the Education and Skill Development Services Sector by the National Skill Development Corporation (NSDC, 2008) assessed the demand for teachers and training in India till 2011 across the key segments of education and skill development sector. In this study, the teacher-student ratio for higher education was found much above i.e., 26:1 against the recommended norm of 15:1. An estimation was also made factoring the changes expected in technology, the content delivery, the e-enabled learning, etc., and it was expected that an about 31,71,000 teachers would be incrementally required in higher education between 2008 and 2022 to ensure a student- teacher ratio of 20:1, which would pose a formidable challenge for the country.

e) Low enrolment rates: India suffers from low enrolment rate at higher education level in comparison with other developed and emerging nations. As pointed out in Annual Status of Higher education in States and Union Territory's report (2013), its GER in higher education at 19.4 per cent leaves a vast segment of eligible population out of the system. At the same time, the Indian GER is significantly less as compared to other developed and emerging nations such as the USA (89), Russia (76) the United Kingdom (59), Malaysia (40) and China (24) (MHRD,CII & Deloitte, 2013). While the central government has set a target of achieving a GER of 30 per cent by 2020, it would require massive efforts in terms of strengthening and creating the infrastructure, human resources and other required inputs. While the public expenditure on higher education has to go up, the role of the private sector would also be critical for achieving the stated targets.

f) Issues of providing relevant education: According to UGC (2011), the issue of offering relevant education in terms of imparting scientific knowledge, which will impart skills and working knowledge and provide value education, also poses serious

concern. Further, it has been recognized that there is a need to develop curriculum for colleges and universities which will meet the three goals of education which, in turn, will make a person suitably enabled with scientific temper, necessary skill and values.

g) Privatization and Commercialization: In India, besides a large number of institutions, fully or partially maintained by government, there are institutions run by the corporate sector, individuals and families, religious endowments and a host of other investing agencies, which are making at times the institution a commercial hub rather than imparting quality education. For example, there is an increasing tendency in private sector towards professional and “market-oriented” courses, disadvantaging liberal arts, social sciences and humanities programmes (NUEPA, 2009). While there are many privately funded and managed institutions that are committed to educational excellence, there are also malpractices in existence such as claiming exorbitant fees from students, offering poor quality education, providing poor quality teachers as well as poor infrastructural facilities etc. While the current phenomenon of establishment of private universities by state legislatures, entry of foreign universities, unwarranted growth of self-financing courses in universities are effective in ensuring enhancement of educational opportunities, there should be clear-cut policies governing the management structures which lay the foundation for such practices (NUEPA, 2009). Therefore, there is felt a need for transparent, precise and unambiguous policy guidelines for the private sector to prevent commercialization of education.

h) Issues relating with Cross Border Education: Many are of the view that the absence of policy to regulate the foreign education service providers in India, and the symbolic presence of foreign universities may, in future, turn towards commercialisation. There are concerns expressed in promoting the commercial presence of foreign educational institutions such as (i) higher education will be limited to the select few as there will be high price for any foreign degree to be acquired; (ii) commercialisation will promote privatization that will, in turn, enhance the cost of higher education; (iii) commercialisation will adversely affect public higher education and, (iv) the fear of flooding developing countries, including India, with foreign and private providers delivering essentially profitable subjects (NUEPA, 2009). By keeping

in view all these concerns over cross-border education, it is felt by many that an effective regulation on the entry of foreign institutions is necessary for providing all safeguards to protect Indian higher education institutions. It is also felt important to note that the process of certification of quality of foreign institutions will take care of the concerns relating to quality of foreign education providers (NUEPA, 2009).

i) Research for knowledge economy: India does not have enough high quality researchers. The number of students taking Ph.Ds and entering research posts is very low: 4,500 Ph.Ds are awarded per year in science and engineering compared to 30,000 in China and 25,000 in the US (British Council, 2014). The report also mentioned that there is systemic segregation of teaching and research; most teaching–focussed universities (the vast majority) do not provide students with research experience or the skills that would prepare them for research careers. Despite a growing reputation for ‘frugal innovation, mainly driven from the private sectors, the ecosystem for innovation in Indian research institutions is weak due to lack of multi-disciplinary working, no development for faculty and students in areas to stimulate innovation and few links with industry (British Council, 2014). And these constraints reveal themselves in the failure of Indian institutions to make their mark in the global rankings. Currently, India is becoming a major global source of R&D and to facilitate the various initiatives in this regard, India needs to tap into the rapidly growing stock of global knowledge through channels such as foreign direct investment, technology licensing, and so on (NUEPA, 2009). It is also felt that besides the country’s innovation system, there is a need to boost traditional knowledge linked with modern science and enhance innovations by exploiting public-private partnerships.

Most of the above challenges have been addressed through the Government of India’s 12th Five Year Plan for higher education under the three overarching challenges of excellence, equity and expansion.

Private Sector Expansion in Higher Education

This section explores the trend for the rapid expansion in Indian higher education from the private sector perspective. India is home to the largest and most diverse higher education system in the world. Recently, the private sector presence in

higher education has been witnessing growth in terms of number of universities and colleges. Private sector enrolment in universities and colleges in India during the Eleventh Plan is given in Table 3 below.

Table 3
Growth of Enrolment in the Eleventh Plan-by Type of Institutions
(Enrolment in lakh)

Category	2006-07		2011-12		Increase	Growth Rate (Per Cent)
	Total	Per Cent	Total	Per Cent		
Government	63.38	45.8	89.63	41.1	26.25	7.2
State	60.28	43.6	84.00	38.5	23.72	6.9
Central	3.10	2.2	5.63	58.9	2.53	12.7
Private	75.12	54.2	128.23	58.9	53.11	11.3

Source: 12th Five Year Plan of India

During the Eleventh Plan, enrolment increased in government as well as private institutions. In 2006-07, private institutions had a share of 54.2 per cent of the total enrolment which went up to 58.9 per cent in 2011-12. The growth rate in per cent from 2006-07 to 2011-12 was 11.3 per cent in respect of private institutions which was much higher than that of public institutions (7.2 per cent).

Umakoshi (2004) rightly mentioned that the large majority of undergraduate students in India are in private colleges, although most such institutions are heavily subsidized by public funds and are subject to oversight by the public universities to which they are affiliated.

Table 4
Growth of Enrolment in the Eleventh Plan-by degree/diploma
(Enrolment in lakh)

Category	2006-07		2011-12		Increase	Growth Rate Per Cent
	Total	Per Cent	Total	Per Cent		
Degree	123.54	89.2	184.84	84.8	61.30	8.4
Diploma	14.96	10.8	33.02	15.2	18.06	10.8

Source: 12th Five Year Plan of India

With reference to Table 4, enrolment in degree courses was 89.2 per cent of the total enrolment in 2006-07 while it was 10.8 per cent for diploma courses. An increasing trend is noticed for enrolment in diploma courses in the year 2011-12 while a decreasing trend is manifest for enrolment in degree courses.

There is a wide range of Indian private sectors. Their founders vary from church-related groups or secular groups (profit-making or nonprofit) to private individuals. Indian state private universities may differ in terms of scale/size or in terms of purpose or academic standards. Presently, the number of private universities in China and Malaysia has been increasing as is the case with India. The private universities are not only spreading in capital cities and nearby regions but also in places far away from the main cities. As observed by Gieger (1986), the private universities in India are market-oriented. Their educational content or curriculum is largely vocational, concentrating more on engineering, management and pharmacy. It is also a fact that tuition fees in most of the private universities in specific and private sector institutions are higher than those in the public sector. This, perhaps, implies that there is an emergence of an upper-middle class that can afford them. Another important characteristic is that most private universities in India are secular as in the case of other Asian countries.

Emergence of Private Universities in India

As is understood today, the development of the University in India is only 157 years old, with the first ones having been set up by the British Government in its three provinces of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras in 1857 along the lines of the then London University. With the establishment of the three universities, an organized system of higher education was introduced in India even as the pace of development of higher education was further boosted with the setting up of more colleges for enrolling larger number of students. Higher education in India has witnessed growth since Independence in 1947 with increase in the institutional capacity. From 1950 to 2013-14, the number of universities increased from 21 to 712, while the number of colleges went up from 700 to 36,671 and the number of teachers from 15000 to about 12.09 lakhs. The number of students in higher education institutions went up correspondingly from mere one lakh to 296.29 lakhs.

As in many other Asian societies, the phenomenon of private higher education is not new in India too where a system of private education existed even during the ancient and medieval periods (Tilak, 1999). Till 1980, a sizeable private higher

education sector, mostly supported by state funds, did exist in India. From the mid-1980s onwards, a private sector that does not rely upon state support started growing rapidly (Tilak, 1999). Agarwal (2006) also mentioned that till 1980, higher education sector was controlled by the government and, thereafter, there has been a trend towards privatization of higher education. There are many reasons for the emergence of the private sector in higher education in the country. Firstly, it was necessitated by the economic trail of liberalization and globalisation. Secondly, the inability of public sector to meet the demand for higher education paved the way for the entry of private sector to expand access; and, thirdly, the inability of the government to provide financial support to the system. Indeed the private sector has been funding higher education in India for a long time, albeit on a very limited scale. There was 30 per cent growth in enrolment in private unaided institutions offering professional courses during the period 2000-01 to 2005-06. An emerging trend of private universities and foreign providers, that are financially independent, was also seen during the period (Agarwal, 2009).

Jayaram (2004) mentioned that the private initiatives in higher education were taken up in two ways- firstly through private colleges and institutes formally affiliated with a university and secondly, through privately owned and managed colleges, institutes and academies that conduct courses outside the purview of Indian universities. Another innovation among private initiatives is the concept of the twinning programme involving collaboration between two educational systems, with both the systems taking responsibility for teaching and training of students and one of them holding the right to award educational credentials. Setting up of private universities, under the State Private University Act by individuals and private trusts, is a new trend of privatization of higher education in the country witnessed during the 21st century.

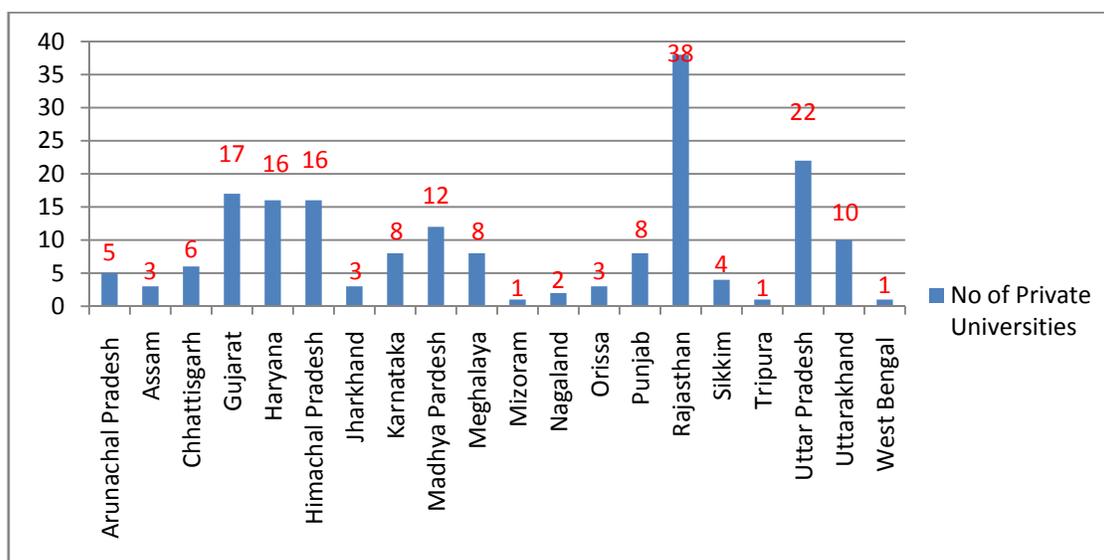
Literature reveals that the concept of a state private university in India has been pioneered by Chhattisgarh with its legislative enactment in 2002. As per this Act, Chhattisgarh government may, by notification in the Gazette, establish a university with the required recognition and authorization to conduct a syllabus or grant degrees or diplomas or awards. Subsequently, many states have established private universities through separate Acts. These private universities are regulated by the University Grants

Commission (Establishment of and Maintenance of Standards in Private Universities) Regulations, 2003. According to the University Grants Commission (UGC), there are 184 Private Universities (as on July 2014) approved by the Commission under Section 2(f) of the UGC Act, 1956. This increase in the number of private universities during the last three or four years is a cause for concern on several counts.

Private Universities: State-wise Scenario and Size

In many developing countries of Africa and Asia, the private sector is the fastest growing segment in higher education. In African countries, in fact, the numbers of private universities outnumber the public universities. However, in terms of enrolment, the public institutions still dominate the scene in Africa (Varghese, 2004). In India, too, public institutions are still dominating the private institutions in terms of size but not enrolment. The state-wise number of private universities in India, as given in Fig. 13, shows that Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh and Haryana are the leading states in terms of the number of private universities. And these 184 Universities are competent to award degrees, as specified by UGC under Section 22 of the UGC Act, with the approval of the statutory councils, wherever required, through their main campus. Table 5 presents a summary of the size and ownership structure of universities in India.

Figure 13: Number of Private Universities State-wise



Source: UGC, (July) 2014

Overview of Relative Size of India's Public and Private University Sectors

Public universities are still dominating the higher education landscape in India for several decades. However, in recent years, the private universities have been attracting students by offering courses mostly in Engineering and Management. The number of central government owned universities remained stagnant at 25 till 2007. But in 2009, it became 40 and, in succeeding years, the number increased steadily, reaching 45 in 2014. Table 5 shows that presently; there is relatively no parity in the number of universities owned by the central, state and private entities. However, in terms of public-private sector divide, the size of the public sector predominates as it controls 67 percent, as against 33 per cent by the private sector. Considering the rate at which the private universities are growing in the course of the last two to three years, there is a clear prospect of many more private universities coming up in the near future (Angom, 2014). Like Obasi (2007)'s observation about private universities in Nigeria, in India too, the size of private universities may dominate in future as already happening in countries like Japan. The average growth rate of private universities during the last four or five years is considered to be much higher than that of the state universities in the country (Angom, 2015).

Table 5

Overview of the relative size of India's Public and Private Universities' Sectors

Type of Universities	Number of Universities	% of total
Central Government	45	8.54%
State Government	311	59.01%
Private (individual & Corporate bodies)	171	32.45%
*Total	527	100%

Source: UGC 2014 *the figure does not include deemed universities

Assessing the State of Private Provision of Higher Education: Private Universities

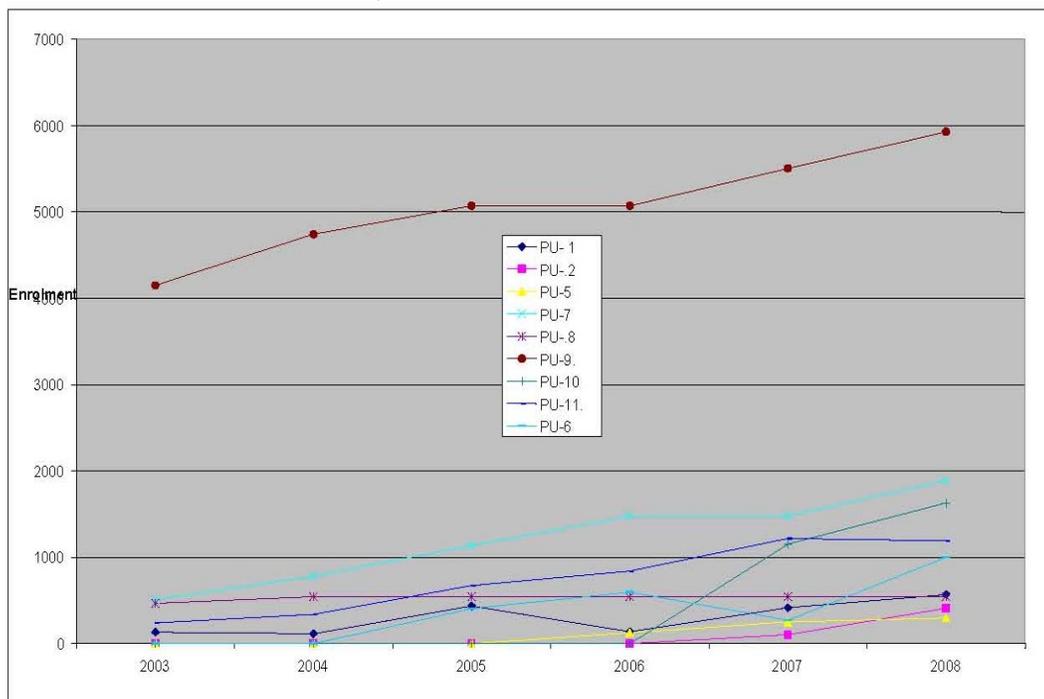
Student Enrolment Profile in Private Universities

The rate of enrolment in higher education indicates the national effort that is being invested in education and the ground that remains to be covered as well as imbalances that need to be corrected. An analysis of the enrolment patterns in the private universities is important in view of growing social demand for university

education in India and the inability of public university to absorb more than one-third of the qualified students. Available data on enrolment shows that the enrolment in the private universities is modest but there is significant potential for growth, based on the statistics from some private universities under study. In India, the private share of total enrolment in higher education institutions during 2011-12 was 58.9 per cent, with the growth rate from 2006-07 to 2011-12 standing at 11.3 per cent (see Table No 3).

Enrolment Trend: Enrolment in the private universities under study grew significantly over the years from 2003 to 2008. Figure No. 14 shows the enrolment trends in the 10 sample private universities (PUs). There is diversity in its enrolment trend among the universities. Universities, namely PU-2, PU-4, PU-5, PU-7 and PU-8, show gradual increase in the enrolment rate of the students. PU-6's enrolment pattern of student remained constant during the last five years (2003-2008). PU-9 registered a gradual increase in the enrolment of students from 2003 to 2007 but had a slight decline in the year 2008. PU-1's enrolment rate of students indicates an inconsistent rate of growth during the period even as it shows an increasing trend from 2003 to 2008.

Figure 14
Enrolment Trends, 2003-2008: Number of students enrolled



Source: A Study on Private Universities in India, Research Report (unpublished), NUEPA, 2013

Between 2003 and 2008, enrolment growth was highest at PU-11 (41 per cent), followed closely by PU-1 (34 per cent), while PU-7 and PU-9 registered increases of 28 per cent and seven per cent respectively. However, PU-8 had the smallest growth rate at two per cent. Though University-2 started only in 2007, it had the maximum growth rate, followed by PU-10 with 41 per cent increase over the period. The reason for this growth in enrolment in sample private universities may be: i) They offered marketable course and, in turn, produced marketable graduates and ii) They offered admission to those who did not get admission in public universities.

Programme-wise Enrolment: Table 6 shows that the total enrolment for nine sample universities in various programmes offered by the universities was 8684, 10560 and 11032 in the years 2006, 2007 and 2008 respectively. Maximum share of enrolment was in Bachelor's Degree programme followed by Master's Degree programme of 61.4 per cent and 20 per cent respectively on average. The enrolment in Diploma programme also showed an increasing trend from 17.3 per cent in 2006 to 20.5 per cent in 2008, with an average enrolment rate of 17.3 per cent. Enrolment share of M.Phil/Ph.D in private universities recorded an average rate as low as 1.2 per cent, even though it registered a slight increase from 0.99 per cent in 2006 to 1.4 per cent in 2008. PU-9 had the highest number of doctoral students (174) followed by PU-7 (117), PU-10 (46), PU-11 (44), PU-6 (46) and PU-1(32). Only two universities viz. PU-10 and PU-6 had M.Phil enrolment in the year 2008. This is evident from the study that most of the private universities in India offer courses in Bachelor's degree and Master's degree. However, more than 50 per cent of the sample universities, namely PU-1, PU-5, PU-6, PU-9 and PU-10, offered diploma also. While in the beginning, only 50 per cent of the universities could offer doctoral degree programme, however, in the subsequent years, more universities started offering the doctoral degree. However, the enrolment in this programme registered a low rate.

Table 6
Programme-wise Enrolment in the Sample Private Universities (2006-08)

University	PU-1	PU-2	PU-5	PU-7	PU-8	PU-9	PU-10	PU-11	PU-6	Total
2006										
Diploma	18		75	Nil		1248			165	1503(17.3%)
Bachelor	308		42	1430	181	2785		365	316	5427(62.5%)
Master's	74		0	21	3	993		461	115	1668(19.2%)
M.Phil/ Ph.D.	10			23		44 Ph.D		13 Ph.D		86(0.99%)
2007										
Diploma	11		2			1355	83		28	1481(14%)
Bachelor	361	104	0	1431	289	3049	622	743	173	6672(63.2%)
Master's	133		74	21	16	1040	448	461	72	2265(21.4%)
M.Phil/ Ph.D.	10			41	18	60		13 Ph.D		142(1.3%)
2008										
Diploma	09		37			11	1071		103	2654(20.5%)
Bachelor	415	409		1819	227	361	71	674	606	7566(58.5%)
Master's	133			18	56	133	488	500	242	2515(19.5%)
M.Phil/ Ph.D.	12			53	13	10	18-Phil 46-Ph.D	18-Ph.D	3-M.Phil 46-Ph.D	187(1.4%)

Source: A Study on Private Universities in India, Research Report (unpublished), NUEPA, 2013

On enrolments in particular disciplines, Table 7 gives the average student enrolment percentages in various faculties or schools in three surveyed private universities in the 2008/2009 academic year.

Table 7
Student Enrolments per School/Faculty/Discipline (2008-09)

University/faculty	Student enrolment	%
PU-8		
Faculty/Institute of Medical Sciences	175	24
Science and Technology	543	76
PU-9		
Faculty of Management	101	6.5
Faculty of Technology & Engineering	1264	81
Faculty of Law	79	5
Faculty of Pharmacy	115	7.4
PU-12		
Science and Technology	702	64
Law	76	6
Management Studies	326	30

Source: A Study on Private Universities in India, Research Report (unpublished), NUEPA, 2013

Science and Technology seem to be quite popular wherever they are offered and attract the majority of students. At PU-9, an overwhelming 81 per cent were taking Technology and Engineering. A similar trend is observed at PU-8, where 76 per cent of total students were studying in Institute of Science and Technology offering B.Tech, M.Tech and MCA. At PU-12, out of total 1104 students, 702 were pursuing Science and Technology. However, study of law did not show much demand in case of both PU-9 and PU-12. The findings of this study confirm the general impression that Science and Technology, including Computer Sciences and Management studies, is the main domain of the private universities. Given the proposed introduction of Science and Technology courses in all the universities strategic plans, the concerns about course diversity may be minimized in future.

Major Programme Focus of Private Universities in India

One of the important features of private universities in India is that the majority of them offer courses in subjects that require good investment in laboratory facilities compared to humanities or social sciences such as, for example, the courses in Engineering, Information Technology, Medical and allied subjects, Pharmaceutical, Business Management, Computer Applications etc. Unlike public universities, private universities offer market-driven subjects with less focus on traditional subjects. Table 8 presents the major programme focus of 12 surveyed private universities level-wise. It needs to be mentioned here that some of the well-known private universities in India provide much better infrastructure facilities with the technology used by them and their teaching/learning process being better than what one finds in public universities. It was also observed that some private universities do arrange students' internship for a month or more in some of the well-known industries.

Table 8
Courses Offered by Sample Private Universities at the time of data collection

University	Programmes			
	PG	UG	Diploma	PhD/M.Phil
PU-1	MA, M.Ed, MSW,	BCA, BA, B.Ed, BBA	NA	Ph.D. & M.Phil
PU-2	NA	B. Tech and MBA	NA	NA
PU-3	MBA, MCA, M.Sc (IT, Ecology & Environment, Applied Psycho & Sciences), M.Lib, LLM, MA (Education, Social Sciences, Mass Com)	BCA, BA, B.Sc,	NA	NA
PU-5	MBA, Master in Social Work	BA in Information Sciences, BBA	Information Sciences	Social Work, Business Management
PU-6	Master in Nursing, MBA & MCA (Integrated), M. Pharm, M.Sc (Biotech, Microbiology, Biochemistry),	MBBS, BDS, B.Tech, B.Pharm,	Nursing, Pharma, Paramedical & Engineering	Ph.D. & M.Phil in Biotech, Microbiology, Biochem, Ph.D.-Pharmacy Sciences
PU-7	M.Tech, 5 year dual degree in M.Tech+B.Tech, 6 year Dual degree in M.Pharm+B.Pharm,	B.Tech (ECE,CSE,IT,BI, BT, CE,BTDD), Physics, Maths, Management & Humanities	N.A.	Engg, Phy, Maths, Management, Humanities
PU-8	M.Pharm, MA in Hospital Management, M.Tech, MCA, MSc (Physics, Chemistry, Mathematics), Integrated Course in M.Sc Biotech.	ECE, CSE, IT, BI, BT, BTDD, B.Pharm, MBBS, B.Tech, BCA, BS (Engineering Twinning Program) BBA, BMLT, BSc (Nursing),	N.A.	Engineering, Medical, Management and Sciences
PU-9	M. Pharm, M. Tech, MCA, MBA, M.Sc (Biochemistry & Biotechnology)	B.Tech, B.Pharm,	Diploma in Engineering and IT,	Technology, Pharmacy, Sciences
PU-10	M.Tech and MBA (dual degree), M.Pharm, MBA, PGDM, LLB, M.Sc (Biotech, Microbiology, Biochem), MCA, MA (Eco, Socio, Journalism),	B.Tech, B. Pharm, BBA, 3 year integrated BSc+Biotech, BCA, Bachelor Degree in Hotel Management	Business Law	Social Sciences & Management
PU-11	Dual Degree (B.Tech & MBA), M.Tech (Refining & Petroleum Engg, Gas Engg, Energy System etc), MBA (Oil & Gas Management, Energy Trading, Infrastructure Management), MBA(Dual Degree)	B.Tech (Applied Petroleum Engg, Gas Engg, Aerospace Engg, Power System Engg etc), BBA+MBA (Dual Degree), Integrated BA (Hons)+LLB	N.A.	Subject not mentioned
PU-12	MBA	BBA, B.Tech B.Ed, LLB, Integrated BBA+ LLB (Hons.)	N.A.	Management & allied areas

Source: A Study on Private Universities in India, Research Report (unpublished), NUEPA, 2013

The private universities involved in this study offer a limited number of courses (see Table 8 and Table 9). Some of the common programmes/courses at undergraduate level are B.Tech, BBA, BCA, B. Pharm. and at post-graduate level are M.B.A, M.Tech, M.Pharm, M.C.A, M.Sc etc.. Few private universities offer diploma programmes in courses such as Engineering and Information Technology, Information Sciences, Nursing, Pharmacy and Paramedical. Ph.D. programme has been offered in almost all the surveyed universities in either of the streams of Technology and Sciences, Business Management, Pharmacy, Sciences, Humanities, Medical and allied sciences etc.. It is

evident from the study that the surveyed private universities have been offering both undergraduate and post-graduate degree programmes unlike many traditional public universities which offer only post-graduate degree programmes. Maximum numbers of departments of the surveyed universities were found offering programmes such as undergraduate, masters and Ph.D. Some of the private universities do offer dual degree programmes such as BBA+MBA and or integrated programmes such as BA (Hons.)+LLB, B.Tech and MBA etc. Available data in Table 8 indicates the courses offered by the surveyed private universities at different degree levels:

1. **Diploma Level Course:** Thirty percent of the surveyed private universities offer diploma programmes in Nursing, Pharmacy, Paramedical, Engineering and Information Technology (IT), Information Sciences and Business Law. For instance, PU-5 offers diploma programme in Information Sciences; PU-6 offers diploma programme in Nursing, Pharmacy, Paramedical, Engineering, Business Law; PU-9 offers diploma programme in Engineering and Information technology, PU-10 offers diploma programme in Business Law.
2. **Undergraduate (UG)/Bachelor's Degree Programmes:** In pursuit of the objectives, all the surveyed private universities offer a number of programmes leading to the Bachelor's degree in Technology, Computer Applications, Business Administration, Pharmacy and in Medical Sciences. However, very few universities, viz. PU-3 offer B.A and B.Sc courses.
3. **Post-Graduate (PG) Programmes:** Majority of the universities under the survey offer PG programmes leading to M.Tech, MBA, MCA, M.Pharm, M.Sc (Biochem & Biotech), M.Sc (Physics, Chemistry, Mathematics), Master in Hospital Management, Master in Social Work and Master in Nursing. As given in the Table 6, PU-9 and PU-10 offer PG programmes leading to M.Tech, MBA, MCA, M. Pharm, M.Sc (Biochemistry & Biotechnology), PU-8 offers M.Sc in Physics, Chemistry, Mathematics, MA in hospital management besides other professional courses. Only two universities, PU-1 and PU-5, offer Master in Social Work, with PU-6 offering Master in Nursing in PU-6.

4. **Dual Degree Programmes:** Few private universities, under the study, offer dual degree programmes for both UG and PG courses. For instance, PU-11 offers dual degree programmes in B.Tech+MBA, BBA+MBA; PU-10 offers dual degree programme in M.Tech & MBA. Further, PU-7 also offers dual degree programmes for both Bachelor's degree and Master's degree, namely 5-year dual degree in M.Tech+B.Tech and 6-year Dual degree in M.Pharm+B.Pharm.
5. **Integrated Programmes:** Some of the surveyed private universities are offering Integrated programmes such as BBA+ LLB (Hons.) in PU-12, BA + LLB in PU-11; 3 year integrated B.Sc+Bio.Tech. in PU-10 and Integrated course in M.Sc +Bio.Tech. in PU-8.
6. **Doctoral Degree Programmes:** Majority of the universities, under the study, offer doctoral degree programmes in Technology, Engineering, Pharmacy, Medical Sciences, Management and Humanities. Some of the universities are still in the process of offering Ph.D/M.Phil degrees. For instance, PU-9 offers doctoral degree programmes in Technology and Engineering, Management, Pharmacy and other science subjects; PU-8 offers doctoral degree in Engineering, Medical, Management and Sciences; PU-7 offers doctoral degree in Engineering, Physics, Mathematics, Management and Humanities. However, enrolment in doctoral degree is still negligible in the case of private universities under study. In some cases, the number of internal candidates continuing in Ph.D programmes is quite low. For instance, out of all the students enrolled in PU-11 for doctoral degree, the number of internal candidates is very small.

Below Box 1 below indicates that the more frequently offered undergraduate courses in private universities are B.Tech, BCA, BBA and B. Pharm. At post-graduate level, the most frequently offered subjects in the surveyed private universities are MBA, M. Tech, M. Pharm and MCA. The courses which are either less frequent or having growing importance at the Undergraduate level are B. Lib, MBBS, B.Sc (Nursing), BDS, Applied Petroleum Engineering, B. Ed, Hotel Management; and at PG level are M. Ed, LLM, MSW, M. Tech in Refining and Petroleum Studies and MBA in Oil and Gas Management and Master in Nursing.

Box 1**Indian Private Universities: Course on offer (2009-2011)****A. More Frequent****Undergraduate Courses**

1. B.Tech
2. BCA
3. BBA
4. B. Pharm

Post -Graduate Courses

1. MBA
2. M. Tech
3. M. Pharm
4. MCA

B. Less frequent/Growing**Undergraduate Courses**

1. B. Lib
2. MBBS
3. B. Sc (Nursing)
4. BDS
5. Applied Petroleum Engineering
6. B. Ed
7. Hotel Management

Post-Graduate Courses

1. M. Ed
2. MSW
3. Master in Nursing
4. LLM
5. M. Tech in Refining and Petroleum Studies
6. MBA in Oil and Gas Management

Source: A Study on Private Universities in India, Research Report (unpublished), NUEPA, 2013

Financing Private Universities

As mentioned by Altbach (1999), there are many models of funding private higher education and in a large majority of cases; institutions are financed by tuition payments received from students. He further stated that tuition payments provide the financial base of the private institutions and without them survival would be impossible. Therefore, tuition levels must be adequate to provide sufficient funds for institutional survival, and this necessitates careful planning with regard to student numbers, cost per student, and expenditure levels. The Government supports public universities and, as such, they receive a major share of funding, while private universities seldom receive financial aid from public authorities. Tuition fees form the financial backbone of many private institutions. The total income of private institutions is determined, therefore, by

the number of students and the rate of tuition fees levied. Private universities try to attract students through introducing courses that are popular in the job market and are not offered by the public/traditional universities. Accounts of the private universities in India are required to be audited by a statutory auditor, who has to be either a Chartered Accountant or a firm of Chartered Accountants, and the report of such accounts are submitted to the Governing Board. However, unlike the case in India, in Bangladesh, copies of audited accounts need to be submitted to UGC.

It may be mentioned that private universities are reluctant to share their financial information with outsiders. And barring few exceptions, this paper focusses on financial matters relating to sources of income and expenditure pattern, based on limited data collected from five sample private universities, and it also discusses mainly the sources of finance for private university education in India. It further analyses expenditure trends of the sample universities. Its findings are based on the analysis of financial data obtained from University Representative Questionnaire from the surveyed private universities.

1) Sources of Private University Finance

The main sources of finance for the surveyed private universities in India include tuition and other fees. Though tuition fees form the financial backbone of the private universities, there are other sources of fund, namely funds from the sponsoring body or charitable trust, student loans and bank loans, health care services, charities from group of companies, interest on fixed deposits with banks, income from conducting of various programmes relating to academic activities, relief bonds and recovery of past salaries. Table 9 shows the sources of income of five surveyed universities, with their main sources of income being fees and funds from the sponsors. Bank loan and interest on fixed deposits with banks also form an important source of funds. Besides, PU-9 and PU-10 received income from consultancy and other works. Unlike other private universities, PU-8 received government financial support and it formed an important source of income, besides fees, interest and other income, including from health care services. Moreover, PU-8 is the only exception among the

sample universities that provides details on sources of income for the year 2007-09. Based on the data available, Figure 15 provides PU-8's trend of source of income for the year 2006-07 to 2008-09.

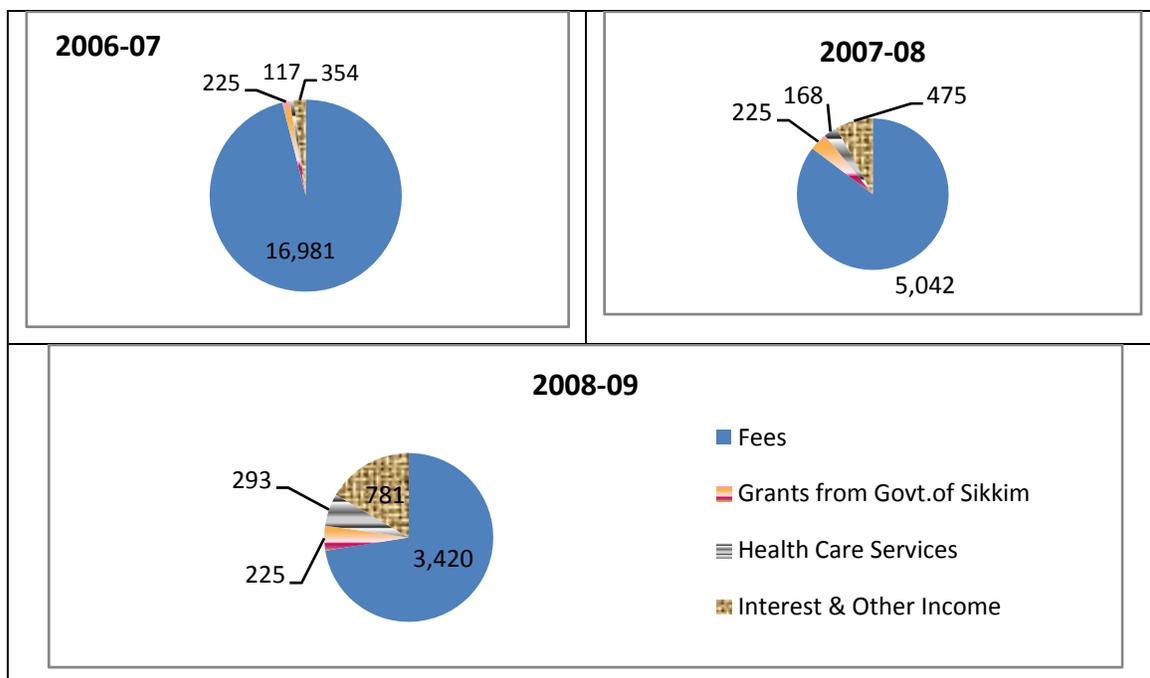
Table 9
Sources of Fund of Private Universities under Study

University	Sources of Fund
1. PU-5	Fees and income from the sponsors
2. PU-7	Student fees, funds from Jaipee Group through charitable trust Jaiprakash Sewa Sansthan and bank loan
3. PU-8	Fees, grants from State Government, Healthcare services, interest and other income
4. PU-9	Fees, bank loan, interest on fixed deposits with bank, interest on RBI relief bond, income from testing and consultancy, income from MDP programmes, recovery of past salaries and income from conducting seminars, workshops/training programmes
5. PU-10	Fees and other charges received by the university, contributions from the sponsoring body, income received from consultancy and other works, income from endowment fund and other sums received by the university

Source: A Study on Private Universities in India, Research Report (unpublished), NUEPA, 2013

Figure 15

PU-8's Trend of Source of Income for the Year 2006-07 to 2008-09



Source: A Study on Private Universities in India, Research Report (unpublished), NUEPA, 2013

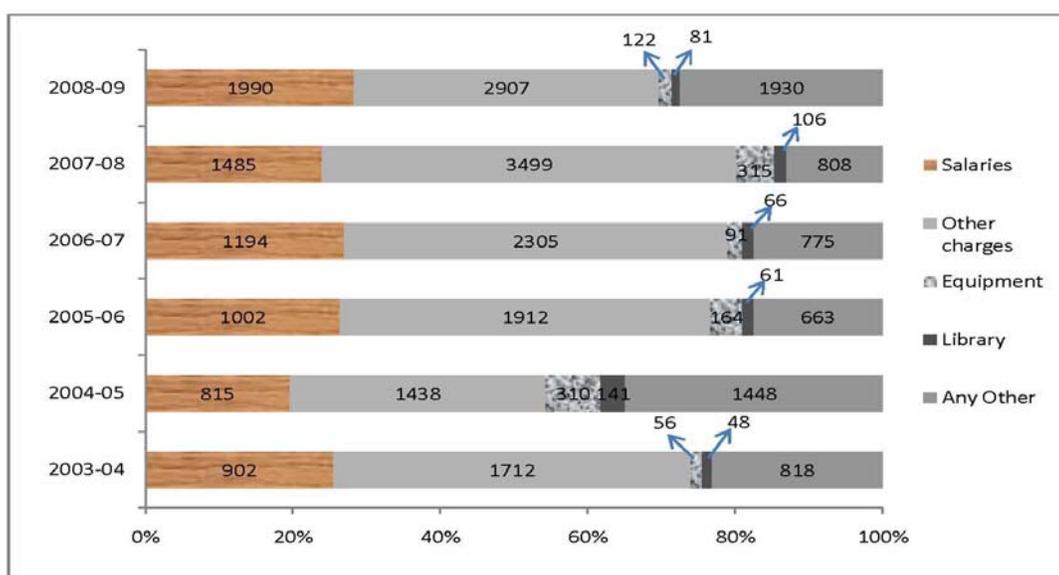
As given in Figure 15, PU-8's sources of income for the years 2006-07 to 2008-09 indicate that the main source of income includes fees, grants from the State

Government, income from Health care services and interest and other income. The major share of income of the university is from students' fee at an average of 84 per cent of the total income. However, the income from fees shows a decreasing trend—from Rs.16, 980.70 lakh in 2006-07 to Rs.3,419 lakh in 2008-09. It further shows that income from Government Grants remained the same at Rs.225 lakh for the years 2006-07 to 2008-09. The income from health care service shows an increasing trend, from Rs.353.64 lakh in 2006-07 to Rs.780.63 lakh in 2008-09. The income from interest and other income also show a rising trend. The total income shows a decreasing trend—from Rs.17,676.57 lakh in 2006-07 to 4,718.93 lakh in 2008-09. Thus the largest source of income is students' fee charged on various items.

2) Expenditure Pattern in the Private Universities

It is a well-known fact that recurrent expenditure drives the cost of private university education in most of the countries, including India. How an institution uses its funds to purchase various goods and services to support its current operations is reflected in its overall expenditure structure. The trends of an institution's recurrent expenditure structure can signal financial strength or financial vulnerability. The recurrent expenditure of three surveyed universities is analysed over time separately.

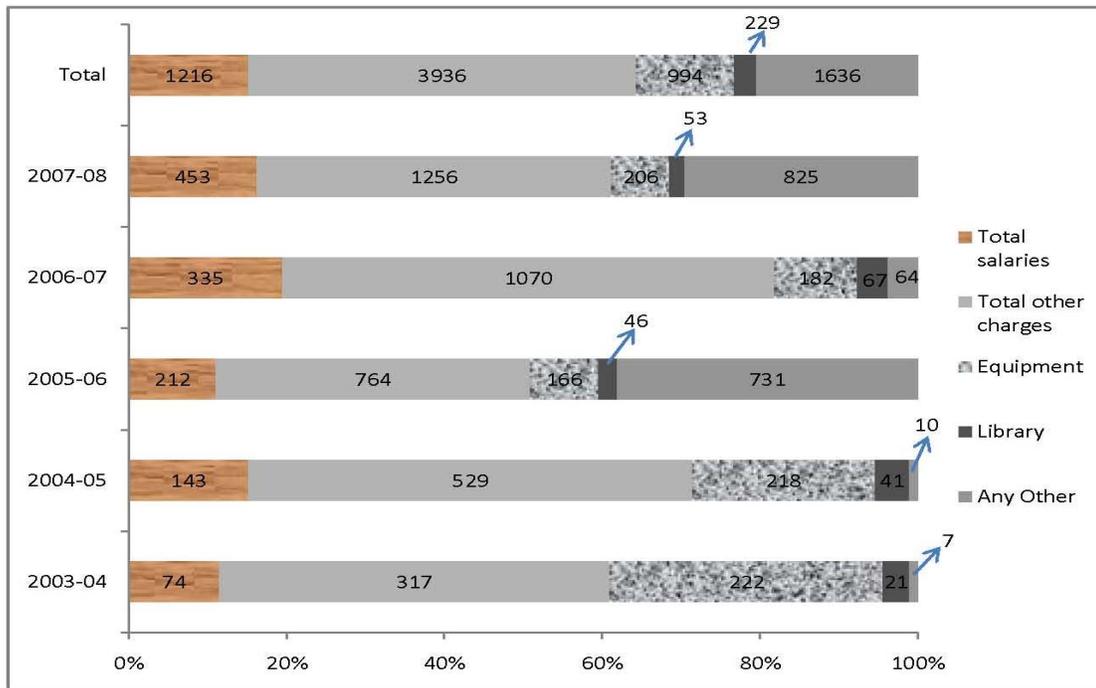
Figure 16
Expenditure Pattern for PU-9 (Amount in lakh)



Source: A Study on Private Universities in India, NUEPA Research Report (unpublished), 2013

In the case of PU-9, referring to Figure 16, the expenditure for the last six years from 2003-04 to 2008-09 shows an increasing trend. The university kept its share of recurrent expenditure on salaries at or below 28 per cent over the study period 2003-04 to 2008-09. On an average, personal emoluments consumed 25 per cent of the operational budget every year during that period. The university’s second most important recurrent expenditure item was library. This item accounted for an average of 1.7 per cent of annual recurrent expenditure during the years 2003-2009, which is a very small amount. This shows that private universities spend almost negligible amount on library. The average expenditure on equipment is 3.6 per cent that shows an increasing trend during that the study period.

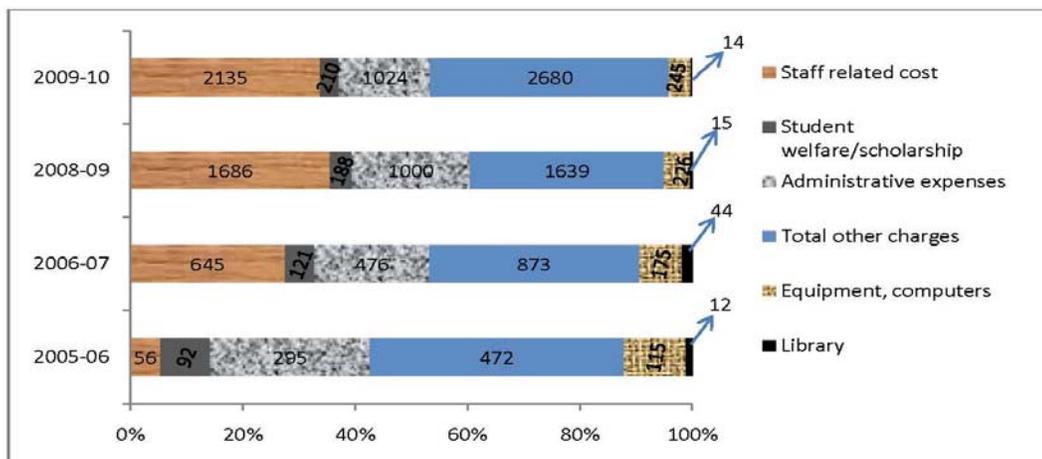
Figure 17
Expenditure Pattern for PU-7 (in lakhs)



Source: A Study on Private Universities in India, Research Report (unpublished), NUEPA, 2013

PU-7’s expenditure on salaries has been growing (see Figure 17). Whereas it was a modest 11.5 per cent in 2003-04, it went up to 16.5 per cent in 2007-08. On an average, JUIT’s salaries bill accounted for 15.2 per cent of its recurrent budget between 2003 and 2008. The University spends, on an average, 12 per cent on equipments against only 2.8 per cent on library.

Figure 18
Expenditure Pattern for PU-11 (amount in lakhs)



Source: A Study on Private Universities in India, Research Report (unpublished), NUEPA, 2013

As given in Figure 18, PU-11 has spent the maximum on salaries of all the three universities under study on expenditure pattern. Its average expenditure on emoluments during 2005-2010 was 30.5 per cent, about 15.3 per cent higher than PU-7. Its expenditure on students' welfare and scholarship and also administrative expenses trend was unsteady. PU-11 has spent the least on libraries among all the three universities under study at an average 0.6 per cent between 2005-2010 and its expenditure on library also shows a decreasing trend from 0.9 per cent in 2005 to 0.21 per cent in 2010.

To summarise, total expenditure in all the three universities under study shows an increasing trend. Expenditure on salary shows an increasing trend; however, expenditure on library by the universities is almost negligible. As per teachers' response, expenditure on research in all the sample private universities is also negligible.

3) Fee and Salary Structure

Some officials of the private universities under study indicated that they do compare their fee structures, with that offered by their competitors, before taking a decision on fee structure. Tuition fees do vary between the universities, and, at times, the variation is substantial like the case in African private higher education institutions. Available statistics on the fee structure of the universities under study revealed that the

fees charged differ across universities and across disciplines in the same universities. As per the collected data, it is evident that in a private university, a student has to spend Rs.2,80,000 annually for an MBA course in PU-9 while a student in PU-1 has to spend an amount as low as Rs.7,000 (special concession for the physically challenged students). In PU-8, a student has to spend a sum of Rs. 3,43,050 for the MBBS courses whereas in PU-6, a student has to spend at least Rs.2.3 lakhs per annum. For a professional course like M.Ed, a student has to spend as low as Rs.25,000 in PU-1 and as high as Rs. 1 lakh in PU-4. Though the students pay higher fee at private universities, only 53 per cent of the sample students were strongly of the view that the fees for the course were justified vis-a-vis the teaching quality provided by the universities.

It was not possible to get the exact data on salary structure from majority of the universities under study. Though adequate remuneration is of paramount importance in attracting and retaining high quality academic staff, majority of teachers have responded that there is no proper pay scale in their university. They also reported that staff salaries and allowances are much lower in private universities than the public universities. However, very few universities have been found to pay higher salary structure at par with the UGC Scale to the teachers.

State of Existing Facilities and Programme Quality

It appears that the enforcement of the criteria for granting of license to private universities has had a positive impact on the quality of facilities for teaching and learning in the institutions. Some of the sample universities have state-of-the-art facilities, that are the envy of students in public universities, where there are dilapidated infrastructural facilities. The UGC inspection report of universities made elaborate and positive comments on the state of infrastructural facilities in some of the private universities. In the report of the inspection of the some of the surveyed universities, it expressed satisfaction over the standard of laboratories and quantity of equipments acquired as well as availability of well-furnished classrooms, workshops, studios and ICT facilities. However, few universities' inspection reports expressed disappointment over the absence of a campus set-up besides grossly inadequate academic facilities,

including library, computer centre, internet access, laboratory and classrooms etc. for these universities.

With regard to the quality of students admitted, it may be mentioned that the private universities source their students from the same matriculation body-the Joint admissions and Matriculation board (CBSE, ICSE or State Boards)-that sends students into public universities. The minimum entry qualification requirements remain the same. Further, many of them conduct a post CBSE, ICSE/State Boards examination screening test for additional filtering in order to admit students of better quality. However, available evidence from many private universities indicates that in India too, those who are unable to get admission into good public universities seek admission to private universities. For instance, some engineering students of private universities informed that many admission-seekers in engineering degree courses are those with low ranking in All India Engineering Entrance Examination (AIEEE). Further, in so far as medical studies in private universities are concerned, interactions with some administrators revealed that students secure admission into medical studies through donations.

Majority of the students under study disclosed that they had chosen to study in private universities for various reasons such as the probability of campus recruitment, availability of job-oriented courses as well as courses of their choice, better infrastructure facilities etc. in these universities.

There is a general assumption that private universities do attract more male students than the female students. However, the gender balance may depend on the subjects offered and fees levied by the universities. Courses offered in the faculties of Technology and Engineering Studies, Management Studies, with related high levels of fee structure, attract more male students. Courses offered in faculties like Law, Education, Pharmacy, Medicine are those wherein women either outnumber men or equal them. At PU-9, the males outnumber females while accounting for 77 per cent of the total enrolled (as on 2008-09). Even in PU-6, male candidates outnumber female candidates with 77 per cent of the total number enrolled. The situation is different in a

country like Kenya where female students outnumber their male counterparts in terms of enrolment.

Further, the general impression of private universities in India, in view of high fees charged, is that most of the students belong to higher socio-economic backgrounds. Data on the highest educational levels of parents, as an index of socio-economic status, reveals that 43 per cent of the fathers were reported to have graduation degrees, with 17 per cent having master's degree and about two per cent with highest degrees of M.Phil/Ph.D. On the other hand, lower numbers of mothers of private universities' students surveyed were reported having comparative educational levels with 30 per cent of them being graduates, and another 17 per cent having a master's degree and about one per cent with highest degree of M.Phil/Ph.D. The educational attainments of the parents were indicative of their higher/better socio-economic background, which presumably accounted for their ability to pay the high fees charged in Indian private universities. Most of the fathers of students in the sample private universities have an annual income of above Rs.3 lakh on an average while the mothers of the students do not have their own income. However, it was found that most of the students are not aware of their parents' annual income. The study also reveals that students get the information about the university from diverse sources such as print and other media, peer groups, parents etc..

With regard to the maintenance of academic standards in private universities, the most objective and reliable evidence on the ground are the results of the efforts of accreditation agency. It is felt necessary to place a discussion within a global national overview of the accreditation exercise. Unfortunately, in India, with a few exceptions, majority of the private universities are not accredited yet, the probable reasons being: (i) The universities are not yet six years old or (ii) As they are not getting funds from the government body like UGC, they are yet to apply for accreditation and (iii) Accreditation was not made mandatory for private universities till the time of data collection, and, as such, information on programme quality of these universities is not easily available.

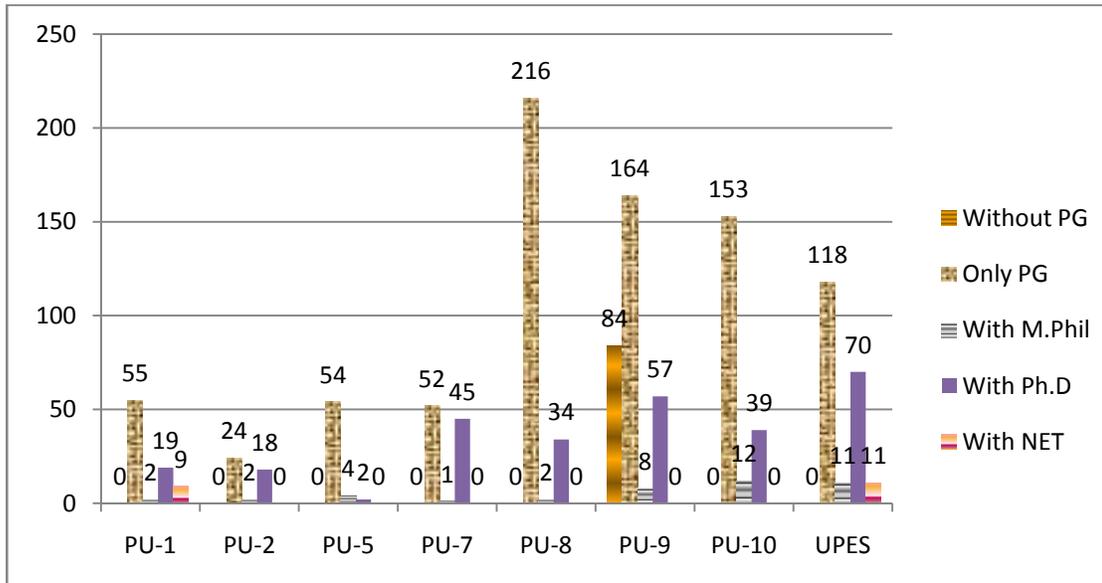
Based on the analysis of students' perceptions on curriculum management, it has been found that the main achievement of the Indian private universities under study relating to curriculum management are: (1) The curriculum and courses are updated with the changing demands, (2) The courses are conceptually manageable for understanding and (3) Courses are covered in time.

Quality of Academic Staff

As Obasi (2007) rightly pointed out, academic staff of private universities is an area where some controversies do exist in Africa. The case is the same with India too. Most private universities of India, established by State Act, are new and, therefore, function with a limited number of staff. However, the surveyed private universities have a large number of full-time teachers and limited number of contractual or part-time teachers. Academic qualification of the teachers is an important area affecting the quality of education offered. The study reveals that many of the part-time teachers in private universities are not drawn from the public universities. Very few full-time teachers are having Ph.D or M.Phil degrees with majority of them being without these degrees. The study also shows that facilities for staff development as well as research opportunities for the faculty staff are rather limited or almost non-existent in private universities in India.

Figure 19 shows the number of faculty by qualifications in the private universities under study. Of all the eight universities, only PU-9 has faculty without PG degree accounting for 27 per cent of the total faculty. All the universities under study have more faculty with only PG degree than faculty with M.Phil/Ph.D. Universities having NET qualified faculty is almost nil among the universities under study with the exception of PU-1 and PU-11. PU-2 has highest number (64 per cent) of Ph.D. degree holder teachers in comparison to PU-9 with the lowest number (18 per cent) of Ph.D. holder teachers. PU-9 has only one teacher with M. Phil whereas PU-11 has 11 of them. It is evident from the above figure that faculty profiles of the private universities under study are still low and they seldom follow UGC norms for appointment of teachers. One of the probable reasons, for having low profile faculty among the universities under study, could be due to their inability to attract candidates eligible for UGC norms.

Figure 19
Number of Faculty with Qualifications



Source: *A Study on Private Universities in India, Research Report (unpublished), NUEPA, 2013*

Available statistics on the faculty position in the universities under study further revealed that male teachers outnumber female teachers and account for 79 per cent of the total number of teachers in private universities. Majority of the teachers do not have long years of service in the university with the maximum number (62 per cent) having 0-5 years of service while a few of them (1.5 per cent) are with 21-30 years of service. A substantial 83 per cent of the teachers of the university belonged to the general category whereas 5.6 per cent, 1.9 per cent and 5.6 per cent of them belonged to OBC, SC and ST categories respectively. While 79 per cent of teachers were in the permanent post, 15 per cent and one per cent of them were in temporary and part-time posts respectively. Further, the universities employed maximum number of teachers having only master's degree than those with M.Phil or Ph.D. degrees. In most cases, the departments/schools of the universities under study are found to be headed by senior retired professors from the public universities. There are few instances of senior professors, on lien from a public university, heading a department. Evidence further indicates that there is a trend of drawing retired academic staff from public universities to head the departments of private universities as full-time staff. The available data on faculty position from majority of the sample private universities reveals that Faculty

Cadre Ratio (Professor: Associate Professor: Assistant Professor) of UGC appears to have been overlooked (Angom, 2015).

Regulation, Accreditation and Status

The private universities are recognized by the Public authority University Grants Commission which serves as a link between the Union and State governments and institutions of higher learning. They are also registered under other public authorities like All India Council of Technical education (AICTE), Nation Council of Teachers Education (NCTE) etc. Judging by the enforcement of the guidelines on establishment of and maintenance of standards in private universities regulations, 2003 so far, one can state that although the private universities are granted the necessary operational autonomy, they are within the regulatory ambit of the central government through UGC. So far, the UGC appears to be carrying out its inspection function but needs some measures of seriousness.

Unlike the case of private universities in some countries like Bangladesh and Kenya, there is no category of private universities in India. Accreditation of the private universities, to check the quality of education provided in these universities, was not mandatory at the time when the survey was undertaken. As such, there was felt the strong need to accredit them in the near future for carrying out the quality check.

The private universities are competent to award degrees, as specified under Section 22 of the UGC, with the approval of the statutory councils, wherever required, through their main campus. Requirements for recognition of a private university include the establishment of institutional standards with regard to physical facilities, staffing level and teaching loads, visitation and inspection and viability of financial resources on a long-term basis. The study reveals that the private universities are not having any affiliated colleges under them and there is no institute or studies centre/offshore campus outside the state/country. However, very few private universities are found having constituent colleges — PU-4 has seven constituent colleges while PU-8 has eight constituent colleges. Few private universities under study, such as PU-5 and PU-7, have off-campus but within the state. The private universities are self-financing institutes

and, as per their Act, they shall not be entitled to receive any grant or other financial assistance from the State Government. However, PU-8 has been receiving grants from the state government. Among the sample universities, only PU-11 has been accredited by NAAC.

Governance Structures

The governance structure of a university determines its character, which, in turn, controls the functioning of the university. This structure provides the basis of functioning of various authorities which govern the university as different organs of the system. *The governance and management structure of most of the private universities in India is similar to public universities. However, private universities decide upon their own governing bodies and appoint their authorities freely within the broad requirements established by the Act. The private universities are also free to choose their own academic organization and develop their own programmes which must, however, meet with the approval from the UGC or AICTE or NAAC.* The nomenclatural designation of their governance structures remains substantially the same as stipulated in the government guidelines on their establishment. Their principal officers go by the same names as their counterparts in public universities and organs of governance go by the conventional names such as colleges, faculties, schools and departments etc. as in the case of private universities in many countries.

The governance structure of the sample private universities consists of a Board of Management, a Board of Governor/Governing Council, a university Executive Council, an Academic Council, Finance Committee and Board of Studies. Private universities have named their governing bodies as Board of Trustees/Board of Management instead of the Senate or Syndicate of the public universities.

The Board of Governors or Board of Management is the highest executive authority in private universities. The Academic council is the principal academic body that coordinates and exercises general supervision over the academic policies of the university. The finance committee is the principal financial body to take care of the financial matters of the university. The study also reveals that Private universities do

constitute other committees, as prescribed by the statutes, such as Admissions Committee, Fees Committee, Examinations Committee, Anti-Ragging Committee, Disciplinary Committee etc..

The functionaries of the universities are a Vice-Chancellor (VC) or Director, Pro-Vice Chancellor, Registrar, Finance Officer or Controller of Examination (in few universities) and Deans. In most of the sample universities, the post of finance officer is hardly filled by the university, and, therefore, the University Registrar takes charge of the financial matters in the university. For instance, in PU-7, the university Registrar had taken charge of both offices of examination and finance. In the academic structure, below the academic council is the Board of Studies and then the various faculties or schools and departments. At each of these levels of administrative or academic structure, there are variations in terms of power and authority. University councils oversee the operation of these institutions and ensure that their various departments are in harmony with the policies outlined by stakeholder groups. In private universities, the VC works as the link between academic and administrative functions of the universities. The deans of the schools or faculties are responsible for the day-to-day academic matters of the schools or faculties, the scheduling of courses and examinations, publication of results and other academic- related matters.

Though the governance of private universities appears similar to that of the public university, there is difference in terms of its composition, size of its authorities and also the nature of appointment and functions of the officers of the university. For instance, the Board of Governance is more composite in size with a maximum number of 20 members and there is very little representation from the state government. As such, there is almost no interference from the state government but more from the trust or founder body. The Board of Governors takes important decisions in terms of policy-making and executive functions of the university. Unlike a public university, politics plays a lesser role in the governance of a private university. Through interaction with some of the administrators and teachers, it was found that the administrative style is more of a centralized nature.

Output Performance of Private Universities

A number of indicators may be utilized to assess the performance of an institution. For this study, the graduation rate and placement record of the institution form the important performance indicators.

i) Graduation Rate: Getting an adequately clear idea about the graduation rates of all the universities under study is difficult. And even the data supplied by some of the universities on graduation rates are incomplete. However, it was found that the graduation rates are high in all the four surveyed private universities like the case of private universities in other developing countries, especially in African countries. This may be partly due to fees, with only those who really want to pursue a study programme seeking admission in the private universities, and partly due to the fact that students, in general, are highly motivated and perhaps more motivated than their counterparts in the public universities. It was also found that in private universities, students' progress is monitored closely.

Referring to Table No. 10, the average pass percentage rate of the four surveyed universities shows high graduation rate and indicating an increasing rate from 92 percent in 2006 to 96 percent in 2008. At PU-1 and PU-9, the pass percentage at diploma, degree and master levels shows an increasing trend over the period. PU-11 has experienced a decreasing trend of pass percentage at degree and master levels. PU-7's master degree has recorded cent per cent pass percentage of students but graduation rate at degree level has shown an increasing trend. Data on the number of students that passed out of the universities shows that output is still small and the maximum students' output is at the degree level. Output in terms of Ph.D/M.Phil degree remains negligible in private universities.

Table 10
Examination Results of Four Private Universities (2006-2008)

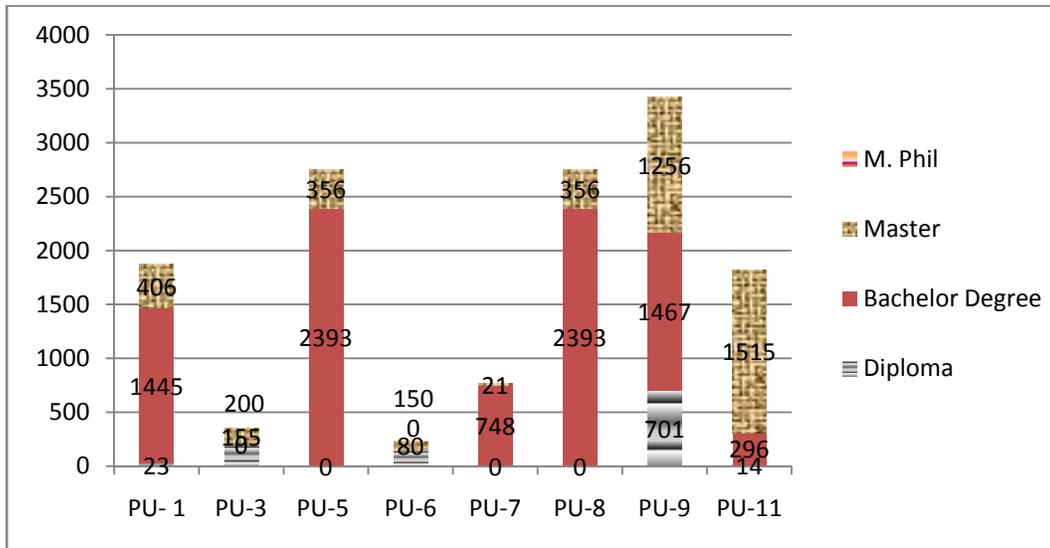
Courses	2006		2007		2008	
	Total Appeared	Total Cleared	Total Appeared	Total Cleared	Total Appeared	Total Cleared
PU-1						
Diploma	07	05 (71%)	10	09 (90%)	13	12 (90%)
Degree	308	300 (97%)	313	309 (99%)	331	328 (99%)
Master	58	47 (81%)	97	95 (98%)	104	101(97%)
Ph.D.	10	-	10	-	12	-
PU-9						
Diploma	149	148(99%)	255	252(99%)	305	301(99%)
Degree	-	-	693	691(99%)	782	776(99%)
Master	424	403(95%)	422	413(98%)	445	440(99%)
Ph.D.	6	6	4	4	1	1
PU-11						
Diploma						
Degree	127	119(94%)	170	150(88%)	275	217(79%)
Master	384	380(99%)	461	453(98%)	470	442(94%)
Ph.D.	-	-	-	02	-	04
PU-7						
Degree	170	169(99%)	286	285(99%)	294	294(100%)
Master	-	-	10	10(100%)	11	11(100%)
Ph.D.	-	-	2	2	3	3
Average	1643	1505(92%)	2703	2370(88%)	3046	2930 (96%)

Source: A Study on Private Universities in India, NUEPA Research Report (unpublished), 2013

As per Figure 20 given below, PU-9 has produced 3424 students till 2008 since its inception in 2003 consisting of 701 diploma students, 1467 Bachelor's degree students and 1256 Master's students. Five universities under study, namely PU-1, PU-5, PU-8, PU-7 and PU-11 have had a small Ph.D output whereas only PU-6 has produced five M.Phil students so far. PU-1 has produced a total of 1878 students, of whom 23 are of diploma, 1445 of Bachelor's degree, 406 of Master's and 4 from Ph.D. Two universities, namely PU-2 and PU-10, have had no students' output till 2008 as these universities were started only in 2007. For the same reason, at the time of data collection, there were no passed-out students from PU-2 and PU-10. PU-7 has produced a total of 774 students, consisting of 748 in Bachelor's degrees, 21 in M.Tech and 5 in Ph.D while PU-3 has, so far, had an output of 355 students, with 200 of them from diploma and 155 from master's degree. Data on the number of students passing out of

the universities under study (see Table 10 or Figure 20) shows that output is still small and the maximum students output is at the degree level. Output in terms of Ph.D/M.Phil degree is still negligible in private universities.

Figure 20
Total Students passed out from the sample Universities
(since inception till 2008)



Source: A Study on Private Universities in India, NUEPA Research Report (unpublished), 2013

ii) Students Placement/Employment Prospects

A major attraction of the private universities is the job-oriented courses they offer. Training and placement is becoming an important activity in most of the private universities. Some of the universities have collaborations with industries for students’ internship and placement. For instance, PU-7’s placement cell is responsible for arranging practical training of students in suitable jobs in the industry, private and public sector organisations. Similarly, in PU-2, there is a students’ placement cell, designed to provide the students with maximum professional credibility and in-depth exposure to the contemporary mandate of development in their knowledge domain and related areas. This cell is constantly engaged in the process of interacting with companies and organisations of repute to foster an academia-industry linkage. For instance, PU-11’s Career Services office is supported by industry professionals who work closely with the students and corporate recruiters. In addition, it provides

mentoring and career guidance through lectures, corporate seminars etc.. Through such efforts, the university could provide final placement assistance to over 2500 graduates and post-graduates in more than 350 reputed companies (PU-11, Information Brochure 2011). The available data of PU-11 campus placement record of 2009 batch reveals that of the total number of students of the university in four courses of MBA, B.Tech, M.Tech and BBA, 93.8 per cent of the students were eligible for placement, with only 73.5 per cent of the students being placed in companies. The placement percentage has been highest at 89 per cent for MBAs, 74 per cent for BBAs, 68 per cent for B.Tech graduates and the lowest of 60 per cent in the case of those passing M.Tech. Significantly, a large numbers of graduates of PU-9's faculty of Business Management have found placement in some good companies, in response to the rapidly growing demand in the areas of petroleum and energy studies in India.

In another case, which has been indicated in Table 11 and pertains to PU-9's Engineering Placement Record (2005-09), reveals that there is an increasing trend of students receiving placement offers - from 65.15 per cent in 2005 to 92.97 per cent in 2009. Total numbers of companies visiting for campus placement show an increasing trend, though uneven, from 135 to 152 during this period. There is also an increasing number of engineering students who registered for placement as well as who were eligible for placement. The highest salary offered ranged from Rs.4.83 lakhs in 2005 to Rs.10.35 lakhs in 2009 while the lowest average salary offered ranged from Rs.48,000 to Rs.84,000 in 2009. There were also students who received dual placement offers. The data further reveals that PU-9 engineering students were being placed in those companies that could afford to pay handsome amounts upto Rs.10 lakhs. PU-9 officials also reported that their graduates get jobs faster and their average salary levels are significantly above those of their counterparts from the public universities. The case of PU-9 may not be the same with other private universities in India. By and large, the graduates of some of these universities under study do get employment because these universities are generating market-demand courses like engineering, computer science, business management etc.

Table 11**PU-9 Placement Record, all Engineering branches (batches 2005-09)**

Placement Items	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total offer received across all engineering branches	474	548	686	730	796
Total companies visited	135	104	70	94	152
Average salary	146,548	191,009	265,760	276095	330424
Highest average salary offered (in Rs.)	483,000	550,000	643,000	720000	1035000
Lowest average salary offered (in Rs.)	48,000	60,000	60000	60000	84000
Individual offers received	455	507	652	679	662
Dual Offers received	19	41	34	51	134
Total students registered for placement	726	731	773	815	829
Total eligible students	526	565	758	702	674
Placement in % for eligible students only	89.92%	89.73%	90.11%	96.72%	98.21%
Placement in % for total students only	65.15%	66.27%	84.36%	94.43%	92.97%

Source: PU-9, Administrative Office, 2010

Research Factor

Teaching and research are the key components of higher education. However, the research component is found to be low in all the private universities under study. Universities under study were found to give greater emphasis to training products for the market with more focus on teaching. The budgetary allocations for research in some of the universities, barring few financially viable universities, may also prove that research is not a priority. Many teachers are of the view that heavy teaching workload and lack of financial resources are the main obstacles to conducting research studies in the private universities. Data collected from the universities, relating to the number of research projects undertaken and the enrolment and output numbers for M.Phil/Ph.D, shows that the universities put little emphasis on research even as their mission statements underscore the need for it. Thus, enhancing research capabilities remains a challenge for private universities.

University Physical Facilities

It is a well-known fact that physical facilities of an institution, including teaching and recreational facilities, determine students' enrolment and the number of academic programmes it can offer. These facilities ultimately affect the quality of an individual student's experience of the university. Keeping quality education in view,

UGC and other statutory bodies concerned have made strict rules and regulations for fulfilling the minimum criteria in terms of programmes, faculty, infrastructure facilities, financial viability, etc. as laid down from time to time. The regulation for establishing a private university in India is clearly given in the UGC (Establishment of and Maintenance of Standards in Private Universities) Regulations, 2003 Clause 3.4. Many of the countries in Africa have strict legislation in place on infrastructure facilities to be provided (Varghese, 2004). The case is the same with many other countries in Asia also. In India, the UGC (Establishment of and Maintenance of Standards in Private Universities) Regulations, 2003 Clause 3.4 has clearly stipulated the strict legislation on infrastructure facilities to be provided by the private universities. There were instances where many private universities were not recognised or are derecognised as they did not comply with the regulations of UGC. However, the study reveals that some of the private universities are still operating with limited facilities.

The universities, barring PU-5, have started functioning in their own campuses with total area not below 25 acres. While Universities PU-1, PU-2, PU-4, PU-6, PU-9, PU-11 and PU-12, have only one campus each, PU-8 has two campuses and PU-3, PU-5 and PU-10 have three campuses each within the jurisdiction of the state. Majority of the universities are located far away from the main city. Most of the surveyed private universities provide minimum infrastructure facilities for learning such as classrooms, non-teaching staff offices and seminar rooms, tutorial rooms, central administrative offices, a library, an auditorium, staff common room, student common rooms with indoor recreational facilities as well as outdoor recreational facilities for games and sports. Some universities have better classroom facilities; for example, PU-7 has well-equipped classrooms of various sizes with ICT facilities while PU-9 has more than 100 wi-fi enabled multimedia-equipped smart lecture halls. However, the university PU-5, housed in a rented building, has under-equipped small classrooms. Seventy per cent of the universities provide limited number of hostel facilities to both boys and girls. Fifty per cent of the surveyed universities provide limited residential facilities to teaching as well as non-teaching staff. Some universities, namely PU-2, PU-7, PU-9, have been providing internet, telephone and TV facilities at the hostels and faculty residences.

Majority of the universities have essential campus facilities such as bank, canteen, sports complex, guest house, university bus, market outlets, and dispensary.

University Library Facilities

The Library is the nerve centre for intellectual development and one of the fundamental support facilities of a university. The surveyed universities had libraries of varying sizes with varying collections of books and journals (See Table 13). Out of 12 surveyed universities, nine universities have provided basic information about the size and collection of the library. Each of the nine universities have central/common library with proper library staff. Each library is found to be having reading room with sufficient seating capacity. A university having separate departmental or centre libraries is rare. Very few among the surveyed universities and namely PU-7, PU-8, PU-9 and PU-11 are with better library facilities with access to online journals, fully computerised library with internet facilities and other non-book materials.

Table 13

University Library: Size and Collection (2009-10)

University	Size of Library	Total books	Total Journals
1. PU-1	1103.9 sq.ft (102.59 sq.mt)	12639	22
2. PU-2	2450 sq.ft	5200	53
3. PU-5	2500 sq.ft	10,000 (approx)	20
4. PU-6	45,240 sq.ft	23,785	396
5. PU-7	2500 sq.ft	24787	398
6. PU-8	8632.25 sq.ft (803sqm.) (PU-8 IT) 14,526 sq.ft (1350 sqm) (PU-8 IMS)	12,500 10095	275 92
7. PU-9	Not provided	83365	10145 (including E-journals)
8. PU-10	64,169.6 sq.ft (5963.72 sqm)	34529	174
9. PU-11	7062 sq.ft	18513	94

Source: University Representative Questionnaire, 2010 collected by the author for the research study entitled, 'A study on Private Universities in India' funded by NUEPA, New Delhi.

Summary

The phenomenon of private universities in India has become widely accepted. There is today a private university in nearly every major city of India and their increase in size in the last three or four years is a cause for concern on several counts. There was, therefore, the need to study the growth and expansion of the private university sector

and examine them in terms of their enrolment, courses offered, financing, governance, facilities and quality provisions. There was, therefore, the need to look at the reasons as to why such universities are established and also assess their ability to live up to those reasons. In so doing, there was also the need to consider some of the challenges that have prevented the universities from fully achieving their noble objectives. The paper used data collected from administering the questionnaires during the survey. The data were analysed by using simple descriptive statistics and also by using content-based analysis. Private universities were set up with a mission and vision to be a source of knowledge so as to provide vocational and job opportunities to their students. They have their own specific features and are special in their own way. They are in the expansion phase when they lay greater emphasis on getting good quality students, increased enrolment, getting experienced and qualified teachers and getting funding agencies for undertaking research activities. Admission process and recruitment are yet to improve. Some of the private universities have started to function without proper planning or thought on matters like conducting admissions, intake capacity, fee structure, pay structure. Some universities are ambitious enough to offer professional degrees without having enough teaching learning-facilities and without well-trained professional faculty staff. Private university needs to be a university specialized in a particular area instead of trying to start many courses simultaneously.

Conclusion

The study has examined the growth pattern of private universities in terms of size and enrolment and also shared insight into the overall functioning and status of private provisions of higher education in India. It also uncovered some of the major challenges faced by these universities which may hamper providing of quality education and also realizing the objectives of the universities. It has been observed that private higher education is getting more competitive with a remarkable increase in the number of academic institutions in the country. It is also evident that some of the private universities are putting in continuous and relentless efforts for their survival while some are seeking to usher in quality education. Like the case in other developing countries, the private universities in India too have contributed towards responding to the social

demand for higher education by absorbing a substantial number of students who could not otherwise have received university degrees. It was also observed that the private universities are credible for many reasons: i) attracting large number of students who are rich, ii) providing job oriented professional courses, iii) offering dual degree or integrated courses, iv) arranging placement cells, v) trying to link with industries, vi) good passed out percentage, and vii) quick decision making process or less paper work administration. It was also observed that they also faced problems generally related to contending with faculty having low profile, absence of senior experienced teachers, inadequate financing, not getting quality students. Besides, the output of private universities is still low while being maximum at degree level. Further, the research factor is very low performing, and, as such, enhancing research capabilities remains a challenge for private universities. As the examination system is purely internal in private universities, the quality of their product can always be questioned. As such, the engagement of external examiners by the universities can help in standardizing and even improving the quality of examinations. The infrastructure facilities provided in the universities too vary from one another, with some of them having sufficient facilities within their huge campuses whereas others are not even having their own campus while being housed in rented premises. Most of them have given importance to professional subjects rather than traditional ones. Training and placement is becoming an important activity of most of the private universities. Many of the private universities have tried to be linked with industries, and have even signed MOU with foreign universities.

Recommendations: The following recommendations are made in the context of the main findings:

1. The universities should consider improving the terms and conditions of service for faculty in order to attract and retain full-time academic staff.
2. University administrators should strive for a better balance between market- driven demands and the traditional role of higher education while introducing new programmes.
3. Many of the universities are in the initial stage of their growth and taking up many developmental works. Therefore, beyond meeting payment to staff and day-to-day

maintenance fund, many of these universities are not in position to undertake research work. Funds must be earmarked for regular upgradation of facilities. Universities must try to increase the funding for research through external funding agencies with proper authentic research proposals. Alternatively, the university administrator should have some policies to generate income.

4. There is need for more research work or improvement in research activities by developing research-oriented facilities in the private universities or by identifying core areas of expertise or motivating faculty to do research by finding time and source of fund.
5. It has been observed that there is a practice of employing a large number of young (less trained) faculty by the private universities. This may significantly have a negative effect on the overall educational/learning environment. This particular issue calls for UGC's strict enforcement to ensure that the private universities follow faculty cadre ratio.
6. The study reveals that in private universities, in general, getting quality students is a challenge. Through interaction with the faculty and heads of departments of the universities under study, it was found that the quality of most of the students is lower than the expectation. It was suggested that quality of students being admitted to these universities can be improved by introducing nationalized entrance tests. There is also a need to follow stringent admission criteria for students in such universities as it is perceived by many that admission criteria in most of the private universities is weak as their main objective is to increase students' enrolment.
7. There is need to bring about improvement in laboratories and facilities, with upgradation of laboratories and equipments. Some of the private universities are located in the remotest of areas and such strategic geographical location hinders all forms of communication. In such cases, the students are in need of hostel facilities and the staff for residential facilities. Therefore, the universities must ensure provision of these facilities within the campus. Another great concern is regarding those universities which have started to function without having campus and building of their own.

8. The study felt the need to introduce a strong quality-control mechanism to monitor the various provisions of private universities relating to quality education and the state has to formulate suitable accreditation.

However, the study needs to further re-examine other aspects of conditions of education provided by the private universities with the help of more quality indicators. Based on the available evidence, the present study concludes that some of the private universities are currently trying to set the pace for future growth; *and it is hoped that some modest achievements of private universities would be maintained and improved upon in the future. However, in general, the private university sector in India still has some distance to cover in providing the desired quality of education.*

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