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Indira Gandhi National Open University : integrating higher education reform with national developmental goals.

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INDIRA GANDHI NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY:

INTEGRATING HIGHER EDUCATION REFORM WITH NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT GOALS

A Dissertation Presented

by

BRENDA S. ROBINSON

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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School of Education

INDIRA GANDHI NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY:

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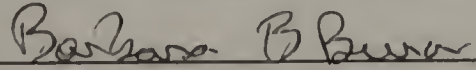
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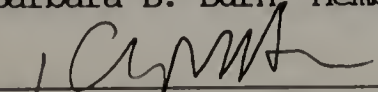
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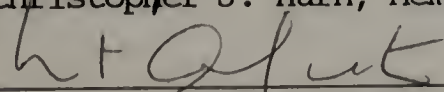
_Patricia H. Crosson_____
Patricia Crosson, Chairperson of Committee

_Barbara B Burn_____
Barbara B. Burn, Member

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Christopher J. Hurn, Member

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Ernest A. Lynton, Member

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School of Education

This Dissertation is dedicated to

Mohandas K. Gandhi

and

The Modern Day Freedom Fighters in India,
Those Individuals Who Give Unselfishly
So That India May Reach Goals of Self-Reliance

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

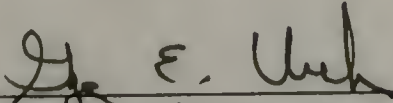All who have completed a dissertation are aware of the demands on personal time, on emotional stamina and on professional quality. The role of Dissertation Committee Chair is one of providing support, encouragement and sustenance to complete the work. Dr. Particia Crosson has been incredible in knowing when to push and when to encourage. She has been unfailingly in her direction of this research, mentoring as well as providing the necessary academic guidance. Pat, as well as Barbara Burn, Ernest Lynton and Chris Hurn, were confident that this research had validity and could be done, despite the relative paucity of models for it. In fact, they supported it because it was innovative and because they knew I had the skills and cultural knowledge to complete my proposal.

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travels to teaching me the university politics of obtaining a doctorate.

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Governmental organizations were especially helpful in financial assistance as well as providing support services. U. S. Department of

It has been a rewarding experience and has provided the base for a
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assisted.

ABSTRACT

INDIRA GANDHI NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY:
INTEGRATING HIGHER EDUCATION REFORM WITH NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT GOALS

MAY, 1989

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In less developed nations, higher education is often viewed as
extravagent, especially if it is unrelated to national development
goals. India is no exception. Higher education is constantly
generating critical comments, for it is mired in tradition, stagnant,
often corrupt and irrelevant to the nation's development needs.
Furthermore, India's colonial system of higher education is rigid,
conservative, expensive, inaccessible for most of the population, and
produces graduates who are unemployable.

Higher education reform, in fact - educational reform at all levels
- has been recommended since the Kothari Committee shortly after
Independence in 1947. While the system has grown in numbers of
students and institutions, it has not changed to accommodate the
increasing enrollment of students or the technological advances that
have changed the world.

x

Following the assassination of Indira Gandhi, the nation was in chaos. During the address presented at his inaugural as Prime Minister, Rajiv Gandhi professed the reforms needed to unite the country and carry it to the 20th century as a self-reliant nation. A priority was education. Within this educational recommendation was the creation of the Indira Gandhi National Open University, designed to provide meet the development needs of the nation through an innovative method of higher education. It was to attend to continuing education, promote national unity, and offer programs of study which would be relevant to the nation's employment and economic needs.

This innovative approach was coordinated with conceptualization of the Seventh Five-Year Plan. A proposal to integrate development goals and education was included in the Sixth Five-Year Plan, but had not been implemented. The Seventh Plan again proposed a coordination of development objectives and educational programming. The Indira Gandhi National Open University was proposed as a vehicle to integrate national development goals with education.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Since Partition in 1947, a basic need in India has been education, for education enables national development. Agricultural progress, technological advances to the 20th century, employment, population education, nutrition and health advancements all rely on the nation's ability to educate its populace. While India has made great progress in these areas, much remains to be accomplished.

Two years after Independence, the Government embarked on a series of five-year plans designed to develop the nation's human, natural and industrial resources. The first five-year plan focused on meeting basic human needs through agricultural development and rehabilitation of the Independence devastation. Subsequent plans continued to address agricultural improvement, and added industrial, technological and social objectives. While educational issues were included in each of

the five-year plans, they were unrelated to the development goals until the 7th Five Year Plan currently in effect.

India has been partially successful in attaining the goals of her five year plans. Progress has been made in selected areas of agriculture, business, industry and technology. Failure to make greater progress, however, has been attributed to a lack of relationship or mismatch between national development goals and the educational planning process. India has now recognized the need for integrated national development and educational planning.

Many prominent Indians consider the assassination of Indira Gandhi in 1983 to be the catalyst that set the nation on a new course of integrated development. Her death symbolized the pervasiveness of unrest in the country. Those in power realized that socio-cultural factors were impeding the nation's progress. Needed was a comprehensive development plan, coordinating economic development with social goals. The vehicle to accomplish this task was to be education.

As part of the resultant development plan, India recently enacted the National Education Policy - 1986 which proposed to nationalize the education system under a consistent and comprehensive scheme. The policy was established to meet the nation's development and unity goals through the educational process. Intertwining of two major national policies, the National Education Policy - 1986 and the Seventh Five-

Year Plan indicate an attempt to coordinate economic, employment, educational, technological and social goals with the education system.

During the planning phases of the National Education Policy - 1986 and the Seventh Five-Year Plan, the concept of a national open university was proposed and accepted. The primary goals were: to provide higher education relevant to the nation's development needs; to be the change agent for reform in higher education; and to establish an access route to higher education for large segments of the adult population. The Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) emerged as the vehicle to unite national planning and educational reform.

The open university provides an opportunity to analyze an important educational reform designed to meet the needs of national development while undertaking a concerted effort to alter the course of higher education. Should the open university be academically, economically and developmentally successful, it can become a model for other nations wishing to undertake development goals through educational means.

Background

In order to understand the needs for national development and higher educational reform in India, it is essential to appreciate the

social, geographic, governmental, and educational context of India in 1985.

India is a nation of fifteen recognized languages, 120+ dialects and a non-indigenous unifying language.[1] The nation is 1/3 the size of the United States. Geographically, India has glacial mountains, fertile plains, arid desert regions, and an extensive coastline. Caste and class, along with multitudinous tribes, form a complex social structure. While practising Hindus constitute 83% of the population,[2] the minority religions of Islam, Christianity and Sikhism are major activists in the religious and political functioning of the country.

The 1984 population of India numbered 736 million.[3]   While its birth rate is declining, it is currently at 33.2 births per 1,000 women. Concurrently, the life expectancy has risen to an average of 60 years.[4] In 1981 (most current statistics), 33.4% of the adult population was employed.[5] The 1981 literacy rate was 36.2%, up from 24.0% in 1961.[6]

Once dependent on other nations for food, India now exports grain. The Green Revolution, accomplished through sophisticated irrigation and fertilization methods, has enabled the nation to become self-sufficient in food production.

Industrially, India produces all consumer goods domestically. Foreign-owned enterprise has not been permitted. The nation manufactures several models of autos, trucks, buses and ancillary motor vehicles, iron and steel, non-ferrous metals, textiles, chemicals, and electrical equipment. Exports now include textiles, metals, gemstones, chemicals, mineral and computer software. The Indian Stock Market is the 'best' in the developing nation,[7] and is now listed on the New York Stock Exchange in consolidated form.

Nuclear power, satellite transmission, and computer production are among the world's most sophisticated. Oil production is booming. For the first time since Independence in 1947, India has an economy of surpluses rather than shortages.[8] India ranks 9th or 10th in the ranking of the world's industrial powers.[9]

Despite the agricultural, industrial and economic progress, the adjusted standard of living equals 1/5 that of the United States.[10] In a 1984 panel discussion preceding the formation of India's Seventh Five-Year Plan, Dr. Tarlok Singh, Secretary, Indian Association for Social Science Research Institutions, stated that during the Sixth Five Year Plan 50-52% of the nation's population fell below the poverty line.[11] Contrary to these statistics, a growing middle class is emerging in India, demanding production of consumer goods and the resources with which to purchase them.

India is a democracy with a constitution based on that of the United States. A Bill of Rights and a Bill of Responsibilities form the constitutional articles. There are two national assemblies, the Rajya Sabha (upper house or State Assembly) and the Lok Sabha (lower house or People's Assembly), both formed by general election. The government has many ministries, a cumbersome Parliamentary procedure and a large bureaucracy. There are seven major political parties in India, of which two are Communist and one is Socialist. Though political parties generally function independently, coalitions are occasionally formed.

As in the United States, the initial Constitution granted governmental control to the twenty-two states and nine territories. However, Constitutional Article #42 (1976 Amendment) granted the national government power to override state control in areas essential to all-India needs.[12] By virtue of the same Article, education became a shared entity, programmatically and fiscally, between national and state governments.[13]

In the four years immediately following Independence, the government addressed the resettlement and basic subsistence needs of millions of people. Subsequently, the crucial issues of food production, coping with natural disasters, and health programs eradicating leprosy, malaria, smallpox, tuberculosis and malnutrition took priority. The extremely limited resources were channeled into

basic needs programs and scientific development. During this period, higher education was directed toward basic scientific research in the much-needed areas of agriculture and technology. Overall, education focused on issues of literacy and primary education, goals retained in an unmodified form from pre-Independence.

India believes in national planning. Following the resettlement and continuing throughout the post-Independence period, six five-year plans (with two 'holiday plans' inserted in the 1960's) have been the vehicles to guide national development. The plans succeeded overwhelmingly in some areas such as agriculture and scientific development. They failed miserably in others, such as population control, literacy, employment, and education. Manufacturing made progress, but not sufficiently to meet the employment and economic goals. Overall, health and nutrition made some gains, but fell far short of the planning objectives.

Planners from all sectors of the Indian government - economic, technology, health and nutrition, agriculture, business and industry, population - gradually came to agree that the failures of the education system had negative consequences on goals and programs included in their five-year plans and that educational improvement must be a major priority.

Education in India is an imported system, originating with the establishment of the first East India Company school in 1673.[14] The current system is a variation of the British model, but the fact that educational responsibility has been vested in the states and territories has produced disparate systems from primary level through university. There are no unified curricula, standards or durations. Medium of instruction, especially at the lower levels, is in the language of the state. As there is no single national language, a second and often third language is a prerequisite for education beyond primary school, with English as the unifying language of higher education.

Many Indian leaders and scholars of education believe that the system is essentially dysfunctional.[15] It is a lock-step system, with no means for re-entry or continuing education. It produces graduates who are unable to secure employment, does not meet the needs of the nation, and generates much frustration among all sectors of society. As in most situations, its long entrenchment renders it difficult to change. While education was given cursory inclusion in the five-year plans, it was never a major article, nor was it considered, until recently, an essential component in assisting the nation in meeting its stated goals.

In the middle of the Sixth Five-Year Plan, 1983, critics and planners proposed a restructuring of the education system to meet the

objectives of national development. Poverty eradication programs had
not attained national projections; employment targets remained unmet;
urban and rural industrial development had not reached the proposed
levels; food production, while successful in some areas, needed
diversification. Health programs had met some goals, while others were
in need of assistance. Government planners reasoned that goals could
be met only through an overall increase in education and, further, that
total renovation of the education system would be necessary to link
education to national development. Although dissent occurred between
Union and state governments, the overriding consensus was that reform
was essential for the betterment of the nation.

Integration of education to meet the social, economic and
development goals of the nation coordinated the action plans for the
first time since Independence. The 1983 planning sessions generated
the Educational Reform Bill - 1985, which provided the basis for the
National Policy on Education - 1986 and educational programming in the
Seventh Five-Year Plan, linking education with national goals.

> The country has reached a stage in its economic and technical
> development when a major effort must be made to derive the maximum
> benefit from the assets already created and to ensure that the
> fruits of change reach all sections. Education is the highway
> to that goal.[18]

The National Education Policy - 1986 comprehensively addressed all
levels and methodologies of education, with the overall goal of an

integrated system which would coordinate educational programming and national goals.

Higher education was one of the main areas targeted for reform. Rapid expansion of the higher education sector since Independence, its decline in quality, and its inability to assist with the national development goals of the nation placed it in a central position for revision. As of 1984, the system had almost no facility for the non-traditionally aged student, for the under-prepared, for those not gaining university entrance immediately following secondary school, for the person whose life situation prohibits entry at age 19, or for continuing education.

National development goals for higher education in the <u>Seventh Five Year Plan</u> included system unification, total restructuring of the rigid curriculum, a credit accumulation scheme, increased access routes, examination reform, recurrent education, education relevant to the needs of the nation which would ensure the utilization of the educated populous, and elimination of corruption within higher education.

The <u>Education Reform Bill of 1985</u> contained a restructuring of higher education AND instituted a national open university, separate from any state control. Autonomous and funded directly by the

legislature, the IGNOU was officially announced in January, 1985.
Among the goals for this institution were:

1. promoting national unity;

2. promoting acquisition of knowledge in a rapidly developing and changing society, continually offering opportunities for upgrading knowledge, training and skills;

3. strengthening the relationship between degree programs/training and national development needs;

4. providing education and training in the various arts, crafts and skills of the country, raising their quality and improving their availability to the people;

5. increasing access to higher education and continuing education for previously disenfranchised populations;

6. training and providing continuing education for teachers;

7. contributing to the improvement of the nation's educational system through an innovative system of university-level education.[17]

An additional, and unwritten, goal of the IGNOU was its function as a catalyst to change the higher education system. Higher education reform had been attempted on numerous occasions, with no success. It was thought that a successful open university could challenge the traditional higher education system to make the requisite changes needed for national development.

Problem Statement

The broad problem being investigated is the gradual convergence of educational policy and systems with national development planning in India. Of specific interest is the study of the conception, origination and implementation of the IGNOU, the nation's radical approach to integrating higher education and national development goals and to fostering change in higher education.

The primary question being investigated is why India undertook to establish a national open university, given the constraints of its present system and the risk involved in creating a very different institution. Component questions of the study include:

- Why was the IGNOU created?
- What social, economic and development issues was it intended to address?
- Is there a relationship between national development goals and the IGNOU?
- On what basis was the decision to implement made?
- What were the initial goals of the IGNOU?
- What components of the plan have been accomplished to date?
- What were the major obstacles that were encountered? Where was the major opposition to the IGNOU creation?
- How did the planners overcome the myriad of historical, social, political, economic and educational factors to rapidly create an autonomous institution, contradicting India's historical refusal to implement innovation?
- Were the planners required to make changes in the original plan to accomplish the task?
- How does the IGNOU fit into the higher education system?
- What lessons can be learned from its establishment?
- How is its creation applicable to other less developed nations?

The IGNOU was expected to fulfill its goals through distance and continuing education, cooperating with existing institutions of higher education, utilizing the most current scientific knowledge and technology to provide high quality education concurrent with contemporary need.[18] Accompanying this mandate was the desire for cost-effective programming, an essential component in a poverty nation. The examination of the creation and implementation of IGNOU will involve the scrutiny of these aspects as well.

Purpose of the Study

The intent of this study is to examine the issues and processes of linking higher education with national development goals, as a means of initiating change in the nation. Educational change and national progress were stated goals of the National Educational Policy - 1986 and the Seventh Five-Year Plan.

Surveying the IGNOU provides an opportunity to examine the rationale for establishing a major educational innovation, intended to connect educational reform and national development. Understanding the emergence of innovation and its implementation within the context of the Seventh Five-Year Plan provides a model for other nations considering similar educational innovations as conduits for national development and educational change.

While there is a plethora of literature on open university systems, operations and components, almost nothing exists to guide policy planners who investigate the establishment of a similar institution in their nations. Many noted researchers describe the types of open universities, their components, methodology, student needs, ancillary services and evaluation.[19] None, however, addresses the initial phase of needs identification or the process whereby a solution to a particular set of policy problems was generated in context. This study will pay particular attention to these issues in India.

Many researchers document the educational aims of open universities.[20] Such diverse intents as democratizing education, extending access, providing alternate routes to higher education, providing continuing education and upgrading skills are all aims mentioned in the literature. With one exception, no researcher documents the social framework of the problem, the emergent needs, how these needs were identified, the groups that participated in policy emergence and formation, the problems encountered in obtaining the necessary authorization for creation, and the initial implementation of the policy. The one exception is Walter Perry, in his book, The Open University, which chronicles the establishment of the British open university. This study will pay particular attention to social context issues in India that led to the proposal for the IGNOU.

Another purpose of the study is to provide a description of how a developing nation created an educational institution designed to meet its social and educational needs. Many less developed nations share with India the problem of scarce resources and multiple demands on those resources. The 'model' of India should prove applicable or adaptable to other nations.

Significance of the Study

The institution of a national open university in a developing nation provides many other nations with a model upon which to build. India and Great Britain share an educational system format and both now have open universities. However, Great Britain's Open University is not devised to meet the broad scope of needs, - economic, human and developmental - for which India's is designed. India has a poverty-based economy characteristic of many underdeveloped world nations. Implementing an innovative educational institution designed to meet a nation's development affords other nations a model on which to transform their existing educational systems into one which is more relevant to needs. If the IGNOU is successful in the diverse and indigent nation of India, replication in other less developed nations may be possible. The IGNOU could be a pace-setter for revolutionizing higher education/continuing education, especially in multi-lingual, multi-cultural poverty nations.

This research has additional implications for higher education. Increased demand for financial and human resources, rapidity of change within the world, dynamic increase in knowledge bases, and reliance on technological development necessitate new methods of initial higher education, adult education, and lifelong education in order to keep pace with world progress. Demands of increased access, education to meet the developmental needs of any nation, and relevancy of education support the cry for economically accountable educational programming.

Generally, educational systems in less developed nations are of British, French or German origin, with access limited to those students who are successful in passing a series of elimination examinations throughout their educational career. These systems have created elitist higher education systems, offering no limited alternative routes for those who are unsuccessful in the exam process. Furthermore, many do not provide access for the older student, nor any significant means of continuing education for those already employed. This establishes a gross waste of human resources, a situation that a developing nation cannot afford. Bringing a nation into the 20th century and maintaining prominence in world events requires a restructuring of educational systems to permit lifelong education relevant to the nation's needs.

A broader significance of this study is to provide a base for replication and for longitudinal studies in development of the open

university. In addition to existing open universities, Italy[21] and Indonesia[22] are undertaking the implementation of similar institutions. Less developed nations are considering ways to broaden their higher education systems. Documenting the process will provide not only a model for other nations, but will permit them to review policy inclusions and contingencies prior to establishing their own institutions.

There has been little longitudinal research which documents the modifications necessary in meeting the stated development goals of a nation through creation of an open university. With only 20 years of open university history, there has not been sufficient time to conduct the required research, as most institutions are still struggling with implementation. In order to conduct quality research, a base must be established. It is that base which this research is intended to form.

The final area of significance for this study lies in the examination of the role of IGNOU as a change agent in higher education. India has chosen to create a new institution as an external transformer rather than attempt to facilitate change from within. It will be important to document the success or failure of this method of change.

Definition of Terms

ADULT EDUCATION - Any type of education, formal and non-formal, degree and non-degree, which is undertaken by a person over the age of 18.

CONTINUING EDUCATION - Education, formal and non-formal, degree and non-degree, whose purpose is to update knowledge in one's profession, trade, occupation.

CORRESPONDENCE EDUCATION - Any form of learning which is carried out through the use of postal systems.

COURSE (of Study) - A multi-year program of academic work, generally resulting in a degree. Comparable to a 'major' program of study in a U.S. college or university.

DISTANCE EDUCATION - A complete system of education, formal and non-formal, utilizing a variety of instructional modes and methodologies for students of all ages, where the students are located at a geographic distance from the administrative and faculty location.

FIVE-YEAR PLAN - A comprehensive plan covering five years addressing issues of national development in India. Included are Agriculture; Rural Development; Irrigation and Flood Control; Village and Small Industries; Employment, Manpower Planning and Labor; Energy; Industry and Minerals; Transport; Communications, Information and Broadcasting; Education, Culture and Sports; Health and Family Welfare; Housing, Urban Development, Water Supply and Sanitation; Socioeconomic Programmes for Women; Socio-economic Programmes for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, Special Area Development Programmes; Science and Technology; Environment and Ecology; Minimum Needs Programme; Other Development Programmes. Funding strategies, implementation programmes and monitoring plans are included. The current Plan is the Seventh Five-Year Plan, 1985-1990.

NATIONAL UNITY - A concerted effort to unite the multitude of cultures, languages and religions into a national identity, India, promulgated to the preservation of the historical and cultural traditions of the nation.

OPEN UNIVERSITY - An autonomous institution of higher education which maintains unrestricted access and employs non-traditional as well as traditional methodologies and utilizes distance education principles.

POLICY - implicit or explicit specification of courses of purposive action being followed or to be followed in dealing with a recognized problem, and directed toward the accomplishment of some intended or desired set of goals.

STUDY CENTER - A geographically-distant educational center where students may utilize tutoring, media and receive support services related to their studies.

UGC - University Grants Commission, a statutory body which coordinates higher education curriculum; strives to maintain quality of education; sanctions college/university affiliations; distributes funds; sets standards for hiring and criteria for promotion for faculty, among other duties.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

As open universities are a relatively new concept, the literature
available is not vast. Sir Walter Perry, first Vice-chancellor of the
British Open University, published the initial text on open university
development in 1977. A few minor publications followed Perry's text.
However, the definitive works on open universities have been published
since 1981. Comparative studies of open university systems have been
done by Perry, Rumble, Watson and MacKenzie, Postgate and Scupham.
Harry and Raggatt have compiled two volumes addressing origins and
administrative policies of open universities. Keegan has defined open
universities by their administrative characteristics. Rumble and Perry
have presented evaluations of the British Open University. A
comprehensive review of open university literature was been done by
Reddy in preparation for the creation of IGNOU.

Aims of Open Universities

A small number of studies have been completed on the origins and
aims of open universities. Goals common to most nations' open
university creations include reform of higher education as a means of
equality, a way of eradicating poverty, and a method for improving the
quality of life for a nation's population. For governments, education
of its constituency is essential for progress. Maintaining one's place
in the 20th century has forced even the poorest of nations to examine
educational policies and programs. The transfer of technology at a
level sufficient to sustain food production, employment and meet basic
health needs is a primary goal for developing nation nations.

Altbach, Arnove & Kelly (1982) state that:

(educational) . . . reform and development in the Third
World . . . is clearly intended to provide more cost-efficient
institutions in nations with a lack of adequate resources and a
need to modernize quickly.[24]

Altbach et al argue that less developed nations have their own set
of problems, for they not only must face the general problems of
universities in the industrialized world, but they must also address
reform from colonial-based curriculum and administrative structures,
and the imperative development needs of their countries.[25] Educators
have proposed that one innovative method of meeting these multiple
demands in a cost-effective manner is through implementation of the
open university.

This chapter will review literature on selected open universities
with emphasis on definitions, characteristics, purposes and rationale.
Specific attention is given to the British Open University as the model
upon which subsequent open universities were based. The literature on
the IGNOU will be treated in subsequent chapters.

Definitions and Characteristics of Open Universities

The collective term, 'open university,' has been used to describe
organizations with various objectives, quite different types of
educational programs, delivery systems, scheduling patterns, intended
populations, and assessment and evaluation processes. In addition,
national policies governing the establishment of open universities,
their status within educational systems, national goals and objectives
and funding vary widely.

'Open universities' are found in the literature under the
categories of distance teaching universities, distance education and
open learning.[26] Regardless of the category, common criteria for
defining open universities include addressing the needs of a non-
traditional student population, employing various methodologies
including technology, locating educational sites in non-traditional
facilities, flexible scheduling, and alternative modes of evaluation.
In the reviewed literature, intended purpose and/or goals of an

educational institution were not included in any criteria for defining an open university.

Providing access to a population previously disallowed is a main feature of open universities.[27] This classification of students can include those who did not enroll in higher education, those who did not qualify, adults who now wish to return to university, and those who need retraining. Perry and Lewis cite specifically adult learners as those for whom open university education is intended.[28] Further, non-traditional admission criteria is a distinguishing characteristic of open universities, as cited by many scholars.[29]

Methodological innovation in terms of type, location, and examination is another central focus of open universities.[30] Employing new technologies such as audio cassette, video cassette, computer-based instruction, developing competency-based lessons for self-study, and take-home instructional laboratory kits are some forms of innovative instructional methodology described in the literature on open universities. Harry and Raggatt describe the assessment process as one that is designed to provide feedback rather than eliminate students, as is done through the traditional examination process.[31]

Flexibility in terms of scheduling and geographic location are components of the open university.[32] Proponents argue for utilizing time available rather than adhering to a pre-determined instructional

schedule and establishing study centers within commuting distance of all students to augment instruction with tutoring sessions and short-term meetings.

Open Universities are often categorized as open learning institutions. MacKenzie, Postgate and Scupham describe open learning as:

> suggesting the lessening or removal of restrictions, of exclusions and of privilege; of demolishing or lowering established barriers between subject areas; of enlarging and enriching the areas of activity and experience graded as educational.[33]

Coffey adds that:

> An open learning system is one in which the restrictions placed on students are under constant review and removed wherever possible. It incorporates the widest range of teaching strategies, in particular those using independent and individualized learning.[34]

Lewis defines open learning as:

> arrangements to enable people to learn at the time, place and pace which satisfies their circumstances and requirements, . . . with emphasis on opening up opportunities by overcoming barriers that result from geographical isolation, personal or work commitments or conventional course structures which have often prevented people from gaining access to the training they need.[35]

Many types of open university administrative structures and arrangements are described in the literature. Numerous scholars describe administrative issues which distinguish open universities from

traditional institutions, including western vs. eastern orientation,[36] the degree of authority imposed,[37] the degree of control vested in specific agencies,[38] the institutional type and the organizational structure.[39]

Keegan and Rumble delineate distance teaching institutions into seven categories of organizational structures:

1. Autonomous, centrally controlled,;

2. Autonomous, decentralized;

3. Essentially autonomous, operating within a federated university structure;

4. Autonomous centralized with a high degree of control, using facilities based in and run by conventional universities;

5. Mixed mode uni-departmental (distance teaching department within conventional university;

6. Mixed mode multi-departmental (academic staff responsible for both internal and external students;

7. Mixed mode, multi-institutional (academic staff responsible for students at other universities).[40]

The IGNOU falls within the first category. For this reason the literature review for this study also focused on the first category -- autonomous, centrally controlled open universities. Institutions in this category include open universities in:

Britain   Korea
China (People's Republic)   Netherlands
Costa Rica   Pakistan
Indonesia   Spain
Iran   Thailand
Israel   Venezuela
Japan

Purposes and Rationale for Open Universities

There is very little in the literature which seeks to directly
explain the emergence of open universities. With the exception of the
British Open University, there are no well-documented policy records
which describe the rationale - in political, social or educational
terms - for this particular innovation in higher education. Overall
purposes and goals for open universities, stated in social and
educational terms, are discussed more frequently in the literature.
One can assume that these are reflections of underlying rationale.

Keegan states that most research in the field of distance
education has been practical rather than theoretical. While he notes
the importance of political, financial, educational and social
components of educational theory and their relationship to developing
an innovation in the field, he further cites the absence of this type
of research in the area of distance education.[41] His book, The
Foundations of Distance Education, continues to report on distance
education models, but does not refer to the research base, needs

analysis and planning stages that predicate the choice of models.
Rumble and Harry[42] as well as Harry and Raggatt[43] describe the aims of
many distance education institutions, but they as well do not provide
the historical framework for the creation of open universities.

It is possible, however, to find many explanatory themes in the
literature. Ashby[44] and Stephens and Roderick[45] argue that customer
demand is a foremost issue in the establishment of new universities.
Stephens and Roderick state that the most acute problem that the
universities have to face stems from the insatiable demands of
societies for university expansion.[46] This pressure can be seen in
the rationale for creating the open universities of Indonesia, Japan,
Korea and Venezuela.[47] All note that response to societal demand for
higher education was instrumental in establishing a national open
university.

The issue of access, often stated in the term 'democratization'
or opportunity for higher education, was the single most frequently
mentioned purpose for establishing an open university. El Bushra,[48]
Ferguson,[49] Reville & Keegan,[50] Gooler,[51] MacKenzie, Postgate &
Scupham,[52] Keegan,[53] and Moisey,[54] address the matter of providing
access to higher education for those who have not been able to
enroll. This topic is also the most frequently stated objective of
open university establishment. All of the thirteen open universities

reviewed except China list access as an elementary goal of their open
university creation.

Rumble & Keegan in <u>The Distance Teaching Universities</u>, recognize
that "distance teaching universities enable new target groups to be
given an opportunity to study at university.[55] The issue of
opportunity was mentioned by Gupta,[56] and MacKenzie, Postgate and
Scupham.[57] Seven governments have undertaken to provide higher
education opportunities, where planning groups have perceived an unmet
need. Costa Rica, Indonesia Iran, Israel, Netherlands, Pakistan,
Spain and Thailand report that educational access - often in the form
of 'second opportunity' - was a primary reason for implementing their
open universities.[58]

Bereday summed up the state of educational reforms throughout
history by stating that:

> Over and over again efforts to reform educational systems . . .
> are thus directed toward giving access and even preference to the
> bright sons of the poor in order to hold steady or even to
> diminish the proportion of the bright sons of the rich. The policy
> of increasing intake enough to give everyone a share, the main
> characteristic of mass countries, . . . tends to be overshadowed
> by efforts to decide how large a piece of the existing[59]
> opportunities each group should have.

The Open University is the first establishment in higher education
to decline discussion of who should have what portion of admissions
quotas. Open access, the true application of democratization of

education, is a stated aim in all but one of the reviewed open universities.

The second most frequently mentioned purpose for open universities is manpower training. China, Costa Rica, Indonesia, Iran, Israel, Pakistan, Spain, Thailand and Venezuela include manpower training, in some form, as a central objective.[60] Of those nations, Costa Rica, Indonesia, Iran, Pakistan, Spain, Thailand and Venezuela, created open universities because they lacked sufficient vocational training programs to meet the nation's development needs.[61]

In much of the literature, manpower training included the provision of adult education and continuing education. Adult education took the form of literacy as well as non-degree topics of health and nutrition education and agriculture. Continuing education included initial as well as retraining in the professions of teacher education, business and industry, science and technology, and health and human services.[62]

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development policies state that broader national priorities should be a principle factor in developing new institutions of higher education.[63] Gooler,[64] Reville & Keegan,[65] and MacKenzie, Postgate and Scupham[66] support this stance, though no scholar places the relationship of open universities to national development as a priority for open

universities. The national open universities of China, Indonesia, Pakistan, and Venezuela, however, relate educational programming in the open university to programs of national development.[67] MacKenzie and Scupham are the only scholars to include sociological values as a purpose for open university creation.[68]

The British Open University

The relatively brief history of open universities commenced with the establishment of the British Open University in the early 1960's, the benchmark of innovative higher education. The British Open University is the model upon which subsequent open/distance universities have been patterned and it has been thoroughly discussed in the literature.

John Ferguson noted that the Robbins Report of 1963 suggested that the government look into establishment of correspondence courses by some university,[69] as a means of meeting national needs and resources through improved access to higher education. At the time of the Robbins Report, Britain had two non-traditional methods for adults to further their education: The University of London's external degree, which had almost insurmountable matriculation requirements and only administered examinations; and the extramural university departments offering very few non-vocational programs.[70]

The Robbins Report concluded that:

1. there was a large proportion of adults with undeveloped academic ability, including a large number of certified, non-degree teachers;

2. the mature adult had extremely limited opportunity for higher education, and only if they enrolled in a correspondence college;

3. there was massive demand from adults for higher education;

4. there was no financial support for part-time students.[71]

Sir Walter Perry, first vice-chancellor of Britain's Open University, substantiated the gap in provision and the demand from adults for higher education. He also noted that there was a gap in relevant programs for the underprivileged, the deprived and school leavers.[72] Nothing existed for adults and the need had to be met by non-traditional programming.

In September, 1963, following a visit to correspondence universities in the Soviet Union, Labor Party Leader Harold Wilson proposed a University of the Air during a speech in Glasgow.[73] In the Spring of 1964, when the Labor Party came into power and Wilson became Prime Minister, Wilson asked Jennie Lee, Minister of State for the Arts, to convene a Parlimentary Committee to examine the concept of an Open University.[74] Chaired by Jennie Lee, the Committee produced a White Paper recommending a University of the Air.

Subsequently, the Government appointed a Planning Committee to develop a comprehensive proposal for the University. The Planning Committee Report proposed three main purposes for the university:

- contribution to the improvement of education, culture and professional standards by providing scholarship of high order to all who wish it;

- opportunity to obtain a higher education degree;

- educational contribution to the world.[75]

The result of the Planning Committee's Report was a Royal Charter, July, 1969, instituting the Open University, with a command to commence teaching in January of 1971.[76] The main objective of the Open University was to provide undergraduate and postgraduate higher education to all those who, for any reason, were prevented from attending an existing higher education institution.

The Charter conferred upon the Open University the right to grant its own degrees and permission to operate differently from conventional British universities in the composition of its student body, the structure of its courses, and its teaching methodology.[77] Williams and Loder noted that the impact on conventional universities was slight and, in fact, the Open University relieved the existing system of any obligation to provide part-time courses leading to a first degree, and to address the issues of access for the majority of the population.[78] Under the leadership of Walter Perry, the Open University established a campus, instituted regional administrative centers and study centers.

Policies governing open admission, degree course offerings and requirements including an integrated curriculum, and innovative methodologies were implemented.

Funding of the Open University was by the Central Government (approximately 80%) with student fees accounting for 14-15%. The remainder was obtained through the Marketing Division, which sells texts, media programs and course materials worldwide. Students who had dire financial need could apply to the Local Educational Authority (LEA) for grants, though the LEA is not required to fund Open University students.[79]

The popularity of the Open University was documented in a brief paragraph from The Chronicle of Higher Education, 24 September 1986. Vice-chancellor John Horlock stated that there will soon be a 24-month waiting period for entrance into the Open University. In 1985, more than 10,000 people who wished to study mathematics, science or technology had to be turned away.[80] The institution designed to democratize higher education in Britain seems to have been so successful that it has become its own enemy. A two-year wait for admission hardly qualifies as opportunity.

Ferguson notes that the British Open University model is quite relevant to less developed nations, but cautions that the courses created in less developed nations must be relevant to the geographical

region and culture.[82]   Rumble cites the significant number of requests

for help and advice from foreign nations.   Nations do not request

course content information, but inquire about the writing and producing

of courses, scheduling, instruction and counselling practices, planning

of new projects and the financial implications of ongoing projects.[82]

   The absence of context, descriptions and analyses of the emergence

of open universities in other countries is a major gap in the

literature.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Study Design

The design for this research is an historical case study. Borg
and Gall describe a case study as research that involves an
investigator who makes a detailed examination of a single subject or
group or phenomenon.[83] Further, they define an historical case study
as one which traces the development of an organization over time,
relying heavily upon interviews and documents.[84] An historic case
study is aimed at discovering the underlying factors generating a plan
of action, over a stated time period. The research covers a span of
fifteen years, though the majority of the research is concentrated into
a four-year period, 1984-1988.

Baldridge cites several strengths to the case study method. It
permits an in-depth study of a topic; it is carried out in the actual
setting which permits the researcher to perceive the "feel" of the
setting; and it permits an exploration of the process involved in the

creation of policy. He also states weaknesses including the absence of
contrast with other institutions and limitations of generalization to
other settings, as no two settings are alike.[85] However, Baldridge
indicates that the case study method is appropriate in examining policy
formation when there is little data on a topic, when research is
exploratory, when the objective is in-depth research and when
change and the dynamic process are crucial to the investigation.[86]
All of these circumstances are applicable to this study.

Furthermore, much of the current research and literature on open
universities uses the case study format. Major works on open
universities - Kaye and Rumble, Distance Teaching in Adult and Higher
Education, Rumble and Harry, The Distance Teaching Universities, and
MacKenzie, Postgate and Scupham, Open Learning, - present case study
illustrations. MacKenzie et al was particularly useful because the
presentation of material included historical, economic and social
contexts of open universities. Thus, the methodology selected is
consistent with the existing research on open universities.

For possible analytic use in connection with the historical case
study method, a number of policy analysis theories and methods were
reviewed. Most were found to be too dependent on United States
practices and on assumptions of bounded rationality to be useful for
this study.

However, Baldridge provides a general framework of policy
formation and analysis that did affect the organization and analysis of
this study. Major aspects include social context factors, interest
articulation, legislative transformation and execution of policy.[87]
Rumble and Harry analyzed policy patterns and resulting planning modes
which relate to open university creation in various nations. Their
analytical framework included needs analysis, goals and objectives
statements, plans, test situation and evaluations, as factors
applicable to the development of an institution.[88] Their analysis was
useful in structuring the case history for this research. No one
theory contained all of the requisites for examining a complex nation
such as India, however, because in India the context of any policy
contains more variables than in most nations.

Study Methods

Document research, interviews and multiple visits to India were
the methods employed in this study. In all, the researcher visited
India four times, spending a total of four and one-half months in the
country.

The researcher conducted document research in India at the IGNOU,
the Association of Indian Universities library, the United States
Educational Foundation in India library, the University of Bombay

library, and several private collections of education materials. In
the United States, research was conducted in Harvard's Gutman and
Widener Libraries, the Boston Public Library, the New York City Public
Library, and the Consulate of India library in New York. While in
India, the researcher purchased over 40 texts on education in India, in
addition to the seventeen government documents available on education
reform and the IGNOU. A number of pamphlets and conference proceedings
were donated by the Vice-chancellor of IGNOU, Prof. G. Ram Reddy, and
his staff.

Interviews with academicians, education agency and government
personnel in the United States who were familiar with higher education
in India were conducted. Three sets of interviews were held in India,
one in the summer of 1986, the second in the Fall of 1987 and a third
in Fall of 1988. Most individuals interviewed were involved in the
development of the Seventh Five-Year Plan, the National Policy on
Education - 1986 and the IGNOU.

Two seminar series were attended in India, in 1986 and 1987. The
first was a Fulbright Summer Seminar covering topics on politics,
government, development, education, social issues, and culture. The
second seminar was designed for incoming Fulbright scholars and newly-
appointed USIA personnel. The researcher was invited to attend the
seminar, which included presentations on caste, history, women's
issues, higher education reform and development.

Selection of Interview Participants

Twenty-five individuals were contactedand/or interviewed in the
United States and twenty five were interviewed in India (Appendix A).
U.S. participants were identified and selected for their knowledge
about India and/or their professional responsibility for an educational
program with India. For those who were knowledgeable about India,
persons included had conducted significant research on India, as
indicated by listings in Altbach and Kelly's Higher Education in
International Perspective: A Survey and Bibliography, as well as those
who direct India programs at United States Department of Education
funded South Asia Curriculum Resource Centers.

Additional individuals were selected from academic organizations
having national offices of international education and international
agencies which fund educational programs in India. United States
Government agencies maintaining India desks were also included as
resources. Press representatives with responsibility for reporting on
education in India comprised the last group of individuals.

The following sources in the United States were contacted:

- United States Government Funded Regional Centers on South Asia
    Columbia University
    New York University

- Educational Exchange Organizations
    Council for the International Exchange of Scholars
    Institute of International Education

- <u>Colleges/univ. offering academic majors in South Asian studies</u>
    University of California at Berkeley

- <u>International agencies having working relationships with India</u>
    Ford Foundation
    UNESCO
    UNICEF
    United States Department of State
    United States Information Agency
    World Bank

- <u>Research/resource agencies</u>
    Academy for Educational Development
    Social Science Research Council;
    The Asia Society
    National Assoc. of State Universities & Land Grant Colleges

- <u>Known India experts</u>
    Columbia University
    University of Kansas
    Sarah Lawrence College
    Lesley College
    Brevard Community College
    University of Maryland

- <u>Journalists with responsibility for South Asia reports</u>
    <u>India Abroad</u>
    <u>National Public Radio - India Project</u>
    <u>The Chronicle of Higher Education</u>
    <u>The New York Times</u>

- <u>Consulate of India Education Consul, New York</u>
    Education Consular Office
    Chief Planning Consultant

Subject selection for interviews in India was determined by a separate set of criteria. Academicians and government officials who had published articles on educational planning and reform within the last ten years, senior administrators at academic agencies, those identified by the New York Consulate of India Education Consul as currently involved with educational reform in India, government officials involved in the planning of the open university, and senior

administrators at IGNOU were identified and interviewed. Twenty-five
individuals were interviewed in India, representing the following
organizations:

- Association of Indian Universities
- IGNOU
- Ministry of Human Resource Development
- National Institute for Educational Planning & Administration
- University of Delhi
- United States Educational Foundation in India
- University Grants Commission
- Women's Development Center

Written permission was secured from all who were interviewed prior
to scheduling an appointment. Thus, those who participated did so by
choice. Additionally, in situations where several individuals in an
organization or agency were being interviewed, the senior administrator
was contacted and approval was requested.

Anonymity was guaranteed to all who granted an interview, both in
the United States and India. The educational community in India is
quite small and politics are strong. Additionally, there are only a
few United States Indo-scholars and they return to India frequently.
Protecting the identity of those willing to discuss the topic was
essential in order not to jeopardize their future research
opportunities and allow for candid responses..

<center>Procedures</center>

A Fulbright seminar in 1986 permitted initial research into the Open University. The researcher gathered available documents and interviewed several governmental and educational representatives regarding formation of the open university, educational reform and national planning.

Upon return to the United States, an extensive review of the literature on open universities was conducted, with particular attention to the development of open universities in nations throughout the world. The researcher prepared a comparative analysis of the origin and intent of national open universities, including contextual factors affecting the creation of open universities, in a qualifying paper entitled A Survey of National Open Universities with Special Reference to India. This provided a basis for the investigation of the formation of India's open university.

The researcher also prepared a chronicle of education in India throughout recorded history in a second qualifying paper, Education in India: Historical Perspectives, Current Trends. This provided a basis for understanding the historical and educational traditions. Research into the multifaceted culture, and the economic, political, technological, social and industrial circumstances in India since

Independence provided a factual basis for understanding the current
state of the nation.

The next step involved creation of interview protocols for
interviews in the United States (Appendix B). The protocol designed
for those in the United States referred generally to trends in Indian
education that would lead to the establishment of the Open University
and to the identification/addition of experts in Indian education for
interview in India. Knowledge of India's Open University was also
included. Interviews were conducted in the United States over a four-
month period.

Potential questions for the protocol were formulated prior to the
interviews and were oriented to the specific person being interviewed.
However, an open-ended interview process was employed, with a list of
possible questions held in reserve. Interviews were not tape-recorded,
as that may have skewed the responses to posed questions. Answers were
handwritten and transcribed to audiotape immediately after the
interview to assure accuracy in reporting data and to eliminate errors
of omission and interpretation.

Following the compilation of data from the U. S. interviews,
protocols for the India interviews were prepared (Appendix C). A
letter was sent to each prospective interviewee in India requesting an
appointment. A synopsis of the research data and sufficient

documentation to verify the researcher's credentials accompanied the letter.

Questions for these interviews were designed to probe into how the IGNOU came into being, how it was funded, the relationship to the Seventh Five-Year Plan, the obstacles needed to be overcome in order to establish the IGNOU, the current status of the IGNOU, and future plans, especially as they relate to the national development goals.

The researcher next spent one month in India conducting interviews. Similar to the United States process, the interviews were open-ended. Answers were handwritten and transcribed to audio-tape immediately after each interview. Language was no barrier. All officials speak English, as that is the language of government and higher education in Delhi.

Following the return to the United States, the researcher compiled and analyzed the data gathered from initial interviews. A return visit was made to India to conduct additional interviews and validate data gathered during the initial interview visit.

Limitations

There are several weaknesses inherent in case study and interview methodology: those of human memory, perception, personal bias and interpretation. It is also limited in the questions that are posed.

Recollection ability and individual perception are factors that influence the responses obtained in interviews. Psychological research documents varying memory capabilities and perceptions of the same event by those who witnessed or were part of an event.[89] Thus, identical questions asked to several participants could produce entirely different responses. In this study, individuals were being asked about events that were complex and enmeshed in political, educational and socio-cultural contexts. Depending on an individual's primary contextual orientation - political, educational or socio-cultural - events surrounding the creation and implementation of the open university were remembered differently.

Personal bias, positive or negative, affects the response of a participant.[90] Those who saw the the open university as a threat, professional or personal, answered the questions in a defensive manner; those respondents who favored change in higher education generally were optimistic and positive.

Interpretation of a set of events depends on an individual's own unique set of values and attitudes.[91]   Thus, those who valued educational reform in India or who viewed it as a means of progress, tended to view the historical development of the open university with a more positive attitude. They also projected a more favorable future for the open university. In the United States, those who had witnessed India's progress, even for the short period of the last ten years, were able to envision the success of an open university. Conversely, those who saw educational reform as an empty promise or who were threatened by change, tended to view the open university's history as a repeat of India's failure at educational reform and attributed little hope to its existence.

In addition, eagerness to please, or at least avoid a negative image, led a few individuals to present the topic in positive terms. In one instance, it appeared as though the participant wished to please the interviewer. In several cases, it could be interpreted that the participant wished to positively support a colleague, and responded subjectively about the open university. In no case, however, was India made to "look good." Honesty and candor, especially from Indian participants, were evident in the interviews.

Open-ended interviewing can appear to have no structure or direction. This does not have to be the case, as care can be taken to establish a set of questions within desired parameters. This method

was employed in this research, permitting the researcher to control the topic and direction of the interview..

Understanding a culture alien to one's own is most difficult. Researching topics without first-hand experience of their national impact is limiting when attempting to grasp the subtleties of values, attitudes and behavior of a culture. India is a complex nation, not easily understood by Westerners in a short period of time. The researcher, while having visited India several times, has not lived in the nation for a prolonged period. Further, while those visits have included all geographic areas and major cities of the country, they have not encompassed living situations at the low or median standard of living. However, those who are in power positions in the nation also have not, for the most part, lived at the median standard. They are among the privileged of the nation, in the truest sense. While the researcher has not lived the 'average' Indian life-style, neither have the policy makers and implementers.

India is suspicious of foreigners, especially those from the United States. Many students have not learned about the nation, her history, values, culture, and traditions prior to visiting. They experience and make judgements based on comparisons with their own standards, rather than attempting to evaluate within the context of the nation. Many injustices have been done to India and other less developed nations because of these behaviors. Thus, it takes time to

establish a relationship with Indian officials, especially if one is not Indian.

The person conducting this research is female, conducting research in a male-dominated culture. The Constitution of India grants equality to women. However, the reality of that equality can easily be seen in the number of females interviewed for this research. Of the twenty-five people interviewed in India, only three were female; of those three, only one held a position of authority. Women have succeeded in India, but it is unusual to find a woman in top echelons of government, civil service or education. There are no women in senior administrative positions at the IGNOU. Had the researcher been an Indian women, she would have had to be "well-connected" to complete the research. Factors that assisted the researcher, both in her gender and in her access to the requisite people, were prior visits to India, reputation in India among those in influenctial positions, and the willingness of politically connected people in India to vouch for her trustworthiness and validity as a scholar.

Additional research limitations include the relative paucity of materials and the distance from the sources of information on open universities. There is no national open university in the United States. The only one of this type, the University of Mid-America, closed in 1982.[92] On this continent, the University of Athabasca in Edmonton, Canada, is the major institution. All others are overseas.

Obtaining print materials on open universities was difficult. The researcher worked from Harvard's Gutman Education Library and Widener Library, as well as the Boston City Library and the New York City Library. Computer searches revealed few materials in United States collections, the major one being overseas in Milton Keynes, England. Harvard's Gutman Library was the most comprehensive in the United States, in ERIC documentation, in print collections and in journal publications but it was barely adequate. Additionally, there is a vast shortage in the United States of information on education in India. Despite the quality of the libraries utilized, much of the research material had to be imported.

Time overseas was limited by the necessity of the researcher to maintain full-time employment. The restrictive overseas time periods resulted in the unavailability of a limited number of potential interviewees. Two key participants were not in India at the time of the researcher's trips, although all had agreed to be interviewed.

A final limitation relates to differences between East and West. The review of the literature and research related to methodology, policy planning and implementation worked with theoretical models and frameworks produced in the West. These models do not acknowledge West vs. East differences in values, attitudes, sociological parameters, conceptualization and decision-making processes. Considerable

departures from Western frameworks were needed for an understanding of policy and planning processes in India.

Data Presentation and Analysis

In the Introduction to <u>Contemporary Issues in Comparative Education</u>, author Keith Watson states that:

> . . . no education system can be studied or understood in isolation from its social, historical, cultural and political milieu . . .[93]

Hough introduces a 1920 quote from Sir Michael Sadler in his book on <u>Educational Policy</u>;

> . . . in studying foreign systems of education we should not forget that the things outside the schools matter even more than the things inside the schools, and govern and interpret the things inside.[94]

Essential to understanding India in 1988 is an awareness of her history and culture. It is not possible to talk with any Indian citizen without historical facts and traditions, current issues and culture entering into the conversation. Indians are proud of their 5000 year heritage. They are also openly dismayed at their present status in the world, and share the blame for their status. India was once a powerful and sophisticated nation, reduced to poverty and now re-emerging. It is imperative to the citizens that they not forget their past, lest they succumb to ruin again. Tradition, heritage,

shortcomings and resurgence are the bases on which the nation currently thrives.

Thus, in researching a current educational innovation it is essential that sufficient context is provided for the reader. Social, economic and political factors affecting the planning goals must be described. The status of higher education and of national development at the time of planning for the Seventh Plan complete the context in which planners envisioned an integrated scheme of development and education. Though the historical survey of education appears to be voluminous, it is critical to understanding the direction which India envisions, to discerning the "coordinated whole" of the state of national development planning in India. In India, it is a requisite for a scholar in education to document knowledge of the nation's educational history.

Chapter Four, therefore, will present an historical overview enabling the reader to understand the sociological, economic, political and contextual factors that set the stage for current development planning. A brief synopsis of the sequential national development plans and a description of the Seventh Five-Year Plan Objectives will conclude the chapter.

Chapter Five presents an historical perspective of education in India to Independence. Included are the major educational shifts in

control, emphasis, purposes and access. The chapter then describes education in post-Independent India from 1947 to the comprehensive planning preceding the Seventh Plan.

Chapter Six will describe the 1984 status of the higher education system in India and its relationship to the Central Government and to the states. The chapter also addresses correspondence colleges as the predecessors of the open university. Included will be a description of the higher education components of the following planning documents: Challenge of Education: A Policy Perspective, National Policy on Education - 1986 and National Policy on Education: A Programme of Action.

Chapter Seven will describe the planning, proposals, and government approval for the IGNOU. This will be followed by a section describing the goals, purposes, structure and intended programs for the IGNOU. The final section will address the implementation of the IGNOU to date.

Chapter Eight focuses on IGNOU as a mechanism for educational reform. It analyzes the viability of IGNOU for meeting national development goals and fostering change in the traditional higher education system. It also analyzes its potential as a model for other nations. The chapter will conclude with recommendations for future research and replication.

CHAPTER IV

NATIONAL PLANNING - ESTABLISHING THE CONTEXT

In Chapter Four, a brief overview of developmental planning in India to the time of Independence will precede a description of planning during the movement toward Independence. The third section will recount the planning programs from 1947 to the current plan. The chapter will culminate with details of the Seventh Five Year Plan, 1985-1990.

Pre-Independence Planning

Planning as a structured, sequential, national scheme did not occur in India until after Independence. There was, however, considerable planning activity before that time, much related to the British and much to the nationalist movement.

Ancient India was not a united nation under a central government. As invasions occurred, conquerors established rule over specific

geographic areas, but did not undertake plans of development, even within their territories. As Muslim rulers and monarchies were established, planning did occur, such as Akbar's elaborately designed new capital city of Fatephur Sikri. However, these programs were limited to designated projects and did not include comprehensive plans for economic, social and political development for the total populace.

Under British rule, almost all of the planning which did occur originated in England. Initially, colonization was accomplished through the East India Company. Later the ruling viceroy governed large territories within the nation. Whatever efforts went into planning for development were designed primarily to enrich the British, not the Indian people. The economic base -- cotton, wool, spices, tea -- was developed strictly for export, with very little reinvested into India. Political development was instituted to strengthen the British rule and discourage indigenous control.[95] The princely states, which were outside British control, did no planning whatsoever.[96]

Social programs, including education, were also designed to maintain British control. Education was for government service and created an elite class of Indians trained for subservience in administrative positions. Social programs were essentially non-existent for the Indian population.

The founders of the nationalistic movement considered planning essential. The advent of the Indian National Congress in the early 1880's brought a committee structure which focused on economic planning for Independence. The Indian National Congress continued to push for home rule, succeeding with the 1919 Government of India Act, which gave provinces limited authority over their own ministries.[97] As far back as 1924, a ten-year plan focusing on economic development for India had been suggested by M. Visvasvaraya.[98] The India Act of 1935 gave full autonomy to provincial assemblies, with their own ministries assuming the planning function.[99] In 1937, the Indian National Congress appointed a Planning Commission to create a national development scheme.[100] All planning during this period was within the realm of economic development to assist the nation toward the goal of self-sufficiency through food production and industrialization.

Taylor et al refer to the sixty-five year period immediately preceding Independence as a period of planning. They state that:

> Probably no other newly-independent country had, for so long a period, looked forward with so sure a conviction that it would in due time inherit the responsibility for planning the course of its own development. . . Most of the sixty-five year period, which intervened between 1885 when the Indian National Congress was organized, and 1950 when the Planning Commission was appointed, looked at in retrospect, can be said to have been a period of planning.[101]

Many of the plans envisioned by the Indian National Congress, however, were not implemented because of British rule, general domestic unrest and India's involvement in world wars, as part of the British

Commonwealth. Efforts at planning for national development were delayed until after 1947.[102]

Independence to the Seventh Plan

The joys of Independence did not last through the day, 15 August 1947. What was hoped to be triumphant turned to carnage with the division of India into two nations, India and Pakistan. Home rule had been wrested from the British at an incalculable expense to humanity. The horrors of partition and the migration of Hindus and Muslims to their respective "home lands," combined with creating a constitution and government for an independent India, consumed the efforts of Nehru and India's leaders. Other issues were pertinent - homelessness, hunger, poverty and the continuing violence. Mountbatten, Nehru, Gandhi and the Congress Party were overwhelmed with the tasks at hand. Educational planning, while important to the nation's development, was not a crucial issue during the early years of Independence.

R. C. Paul, former Vice-chancellor of Punjab University, categorizes India's problems after Independence into five areas:

1. Demographically - the country had vast population and a very severe problem of rehabilitating lakhs (100,000's) of people as a consequence of partition;

2. Economically - poverty was looming large on people, the resources were not tapped to the extent of ensuring

employment to those who could be employed, and self-reliance in food was a far cry;

3. Socially - the country was an example of social inequalities shrouded in the mist of ignorance, superstitions and prejudices;

4. Politically - the awareness of functioning of democratic form of government was greatly handicapped for reasons of non-enlightenment on the part of the people;

5. Educationally - a major chunk of the Indian population was enjoying the deep slumber of illiteracy.[103]

Independent India's inheritance may have been potentially rich, but the obstacles to be overcome in order to utilize the wealth were enormous.

Writing the Constitution of the Republic of India required addressing many social and development issues concurrently. In a nation of several religions, cultural and linguistic diversity, and pride in continuous heritage, a statement of national integration was required. The ever-present social stratifications of caste and gender had to be eliminated. It was essential to set the nation on a course of economic and social progress, a monumental task given the poverty, hunger and fragmentation which existed.

The planners studied constitutions and charters from many nations as an effort to learn from the experience of other nations. They wished to include the necessary social, judicial, administrative and economic tenets needed for uniting the nation and avoid the legislative mistakes made by other countries.

The Preamble to the Constitution of India guarantees basic rights in areas of justice, equality, liberty and fraternity, assuring "the dignity of the individual and the unity and integrity of the nation."[104] Included among the Fundamental Rights accorded to citizens is the right to education.[105] Further articles contain provisions against discrimination on any grounds.

The Constitution included specific provisions addressing the importance of social integration with economic and educational development. Other provisions directed states to take measures to assure citizens of adequate means of livelihood, a raise in the standard of living, provisions for health, and a sharing of the common good. These provisions had major impact on national development and educational planning.[106] It should be noted that gender is not specifically stated in provisions against discrimination. As guaranteed by Article 326, women had suffrage in all areas as equal citizens of the nation.[107]

The new nation of India was faced with almost insurmountable challenges to meet her Constitution and development goals of self-sufficiency. In January 1950, in the President's address to Parliment, the intention to establish a Planning Commission was announced. This was followed by a Resolution of the Government of India on 15 March 1950, thereby instituting the first official planning body for the independent nation. This Commission, working diligently, produced a

draft five-year plan by 1951. While the final plan was not completed
for over a year, the draft enabled the nation to begin the much-needed
development, and set the stage for subsequent five-year development
plans.[108]

The central objective of planning in India was two-fold: to
attain self-reliance and self-sustained growth in order to raise the
standards of living and open to people new opportunities for richer and
more varied life.[109] Thus, a comprehensive mode of planning was
required over an extended period of years.

The Five-Year Plans

The First Plan (1951-1956)

The focus of the first Five Year Plan was planned economic
development. A major priority was on agricultural programs for food
production. This included the extension of irrigation and power to
rural areas. Additional programs in the rehabilitation and expansion
of a national transportation system were begun. Nationwide
communications was included in the document. The base for future
industrial development was also a significant goal of the First Five
Year Plan.

Social programs to correct the disequilibrium of economics, religion and race were combined with relief programs designed to rehabilitate those displaced by partition.

Objectives in the First Five Year Plan which pertained to higher education included the highest priority to the improvement and remodelling of existing institutions, on the right lines. Additional emphasis was placed on experiments and research to improve educational methods, the training of teachers and the preparation of literature (texts). Provision for basic and social education, technical and vocational education at the lower levels of industry and the development of facilities for training high-grade technicians in selected fields was viewed as necessary. Attention was also given to improvement of standards and the development of post-graduate research work in university education. Literacy and education designed to improve national integrity were also stressed.

While Desai comments on the simplicity and lack of sophistication of the First Five Year Plan,[110] it did establish a base line for future plans. A number of the programs were initiated, especially those relating to food production. Achievements were made more in the private than in the public sector. Educational targets were not met, primarily because fiscal resources were required to meet the basic needs of food, shelter and water.

There was little if any relationship between the national development goals and the educational goals. At this stage of India's planning, the two areas were seen as separate entities and not necessarily related. The nation needed a workforce that could read before integration of economic development and education could begin.

The Second Plan (1956-1961)

> For economic development to make its full contribution to the well-being of the mass of the people, programmes of education should be ahead of the economic plans. Modern economic development calls for a wide diffusion of the scientific temper of mind, a sense of dignity in labour and discipline in service and a readiness to adapt new techniques and new knowledge to the needs of the people. These values and attitudes will be realised in everyday life in the measure in which they are expressed through educational ideals and practice.[111]

It was on this base that the Planners set goals for the Second Five-Year Plan.

Establishing a socialistic pattern of society which distributed economic gain to the less privileged sections of that society was the main objective of the Second Five-Year Plan. The quantitative goal of this objective was a 25% increase in the national income. Through this attainment, a reducing inequality in income and wealth resulting in a more even distribution of economic power was to be achieved.

In order to meet the economic redistribution goals, rapid industrialization, emphasizing basic and heavy industries which expanded employment opportunities, was needed. Programs included increased production of iron, steel, heavy chemicals, nitrogen, fertilizers and the development of heavy engineering and machine-building industries. This period was considered the beginning of the heavy industry strategy, manufacturing the machinery necessary to further the development of the nation. It was also stated that employment would benefit from a diversification of economic activity.

Additionally, a number of public sector industries were initiated, such as transportation, mining, manufacturing of machinery and textiles, chemicals and the initiation of public sector service enterprises such as insurance, trading and marketing, retirement schemes, tourism and financial services.

Though all levels of education received attention in the Second Plan, emphasis was placed on literacy and k-10. Basic education, both for primary school and adults, was reiterated. Expansion of elementary education to many of the rural areas was needed. Diversification of secondary education to include more than the traditional humanities subjects was planned. Technical and vocational education facilities were to be expanded and coordinated with secondary and higher secondary education. Qualitative standards of colleges and universities were to be improved.

To implement the much-needed development of national integration, implementation of social education and cultural development programs was to be undertaken. This first mention in national planning of preserving the cultural heritage was a continuance of the goals of the Indian National Congress, perpetuated after Independence in the Congress (I) Party.

In 1957, implementation of The Plan was impeded because India encountered an unprojected depletion of foreign exchange, which was being utilized to fund the industrial projects. In addition, a food crisis occurred as a result of severe drought, requiring the remaining funds to be redirected toward purchasing food on the foreign market.

Worldwide inflation also began to take its toll in India. Having few resources to begin with, the restricted amounts available declined in value, causing major fiscal crises within the nation. India's foreign exchange ability declined significantly, causing direct impact on the nation's import capability. Concurrently, the rise in cost of domestic industrial production exponentially influenced the economic trauma of planners and implementers.

The Third Plan (1961-1966)

The Third Five-Year Plan was formulated in the midst of the government's shock at the increase of population between the 1951 and 1961 censuses. The actual growth in population was approximately 68 million (8.3%) in ten years.[112] A priority allotment to increase family planning education was a component of the Third Plan.

The major objective of the was Third Plan to increase the national income by 5% per annum while ensuring a pattern of investment to sustain this growth rate over subsequent planning periods. Achieving self-sufficiency in food-grains and increasing agricultural production to meet domestic industrial needs and contribute to the export factor was a means of meeting this objective. Expanding basic industries of steel, chemicals, fuel and power, in order to establish machine-building capacities further enhanced the economic programs. A quantitative goal of establishing domestic machine-building capacity from the country's own resources within the next ten years set targets for production.

The first mention of utilizing the manpower resources of the nation came in the Third Plan. It was combined with expanding the employment opportunities, a recurrent goal in planning documents. Additionally, the Third Plan also stated the continuance of economic equalization among its population.

Providing for universal education for the 6-11 year age group was a primary educational goal in the Third Plan. While not a higher education objective, the planners recognized the need to enroll the children of the nation in order to build an educated population base for future development.

Concurrent with the increase in primary education was the broad expansion of technical education. This was mainly reserved for the secondary and higher secondary levels. In the areas of university education, the improvement of science education and teacher training were desired.

Many difficulties occurred to impede the progress of the Third Plan. The Chinese aggression in 1962 required a substantial increase in defense spending. The growing problem of inflation was not offset by cash reserves, an impossibility in a nation still overcoming severe hunger and poverty. The last year of the Plan, 1965, brought a border war with Pakistan. Supplements to the military budget withdrew funds from industrial development projects. A severe drought in the same year followed by a continuance in 1966 led to suspension of foreign credits and a severe fiscal crisis. What projects were able to continue did so under the worst of conditions.

Educational progress, while not halted, was suspended in many areas, or substituted with volunteer programs. Funding was once again needed for basic human needs, and education waited.

Hiatus in Five-Year Planning (1966-1969)

The crises of the previous five years - two major military conflicts, two successive years of extreme drought and the crash of monetary values - necessitated a break in the cycle of five-year plans. Individual annual plans were initiated to meet the crucial economic needs and the non-availability of funds. The government undertook crisis intervention measures, including borrowing of funds from the World Bank and accepting the assistance of UNESCO and the World Health Organization, among other agencies, in order to survive. During this period, agriculture focused on ensuring the utilization of new high yielding varieties of wheat, assisting with a rapid increase in food production. A loosening of government controls and devaluation of the rupee produced major alterations in industrial production and trade export. Desai noted a cutback in public investment, causing an domestic industrial recession.[113] Action taken to offset this decline resulted in the initiation of engineering exports and the commencement of export diversification.

The Fourth Plan (1970-1975)

While economic growth continued to be crucial, programs that addressed distributive justice were accentuated in the Fourth Plan. While a number of programs had assisted the nation's population, large numbers and groups of people had been neglected in the development process. Equalizing the economic base and increasing employment opportunities through programs designed to promote exports while decreasing imports was a major thrust. Production of products which are consumed by populations throughout the world were increased - textiles, drugs, sugar, kerosene and paper.

Industrial development which led to increased agricultural production was supported. These projects included utilization of high yield seeds, production of fertilizers, insecticides, agricultural implements, diesel engines and tractors. Additional employment programs to assist the small and marginal farmers and agricultural laborers left behind in the nation's push for growth were undertaken. The distribution of implements, seeds and fertilizers combined with distribution of agricultural planning methods assisted this population.

A massive program of family planning was undertaken, though not without social criticism of methodology. Additional social services were undertaken to develop the human resource potential.

In overall educational goals, the expansion of elementary education with emphasis on facilities for rural (backward) areas and communities and for female students was a priority. The development of indigenous Indian languages and text book production were included in response to the growing demand that the nation meet its commitments in the Constitution.

Higher education received attention. There was a demand to raise the standards of postgraduate research and education. Consolidation of technical education, including reorganization of polytechnic education through closer linking with the needs of industry was desired. An orientation toward self-employment skills addressed the goal of increased employment opportunities for those neglected populations.

Improvement of curricula and text books was linked with in-service training for teachers. Research in teaching methodology was suggested for teacher-education programs. Overall enhancement of teacher education was stated as a primary need to meet the nation's education and literacy goals.

The Fourth Plan called for an increased use of educational technologies, including part-time correspondence courses and the inclusion of modern communication media as modes of transfer. These efforts were undertaken to promote expansion of education and development with a minimum of investment and without lowering

standards. The Plan was careful to warn that new tasks and projects in education should be undertaken only after careful preparation and implementation of pilot projects. This goal provided the initial impetus for a break from traditional modes of instruction in India.

At the turn of the decade, India's economic and agricultural situation had stabilized sufficiently to resume a program of five-year plans. While two events, the Bangladesh crisis and the drought of 1972, threatened progress, they did not take the toll on national development that previous occurrences had. The nation was able to make substantial gains in agricultural development and industrial production during this period. Significant increases in the enrollment of elementary age children added to the education base desired by the nation's planners.

Stabilizing the rupee and reducing fluctuations in agricultural production reduced the need to depend on foreign aid for sustenance. It was during this period that India was able to envision the repayment of her world fiscal debt during the next plan.

The Fifth Plan (1975-1980)

With the gains made in the previous five years, the Fifth Five-Year Plan was formulated during a relatively stable economic and

political time. Emphasis was placed on combining the Fourth Plan's goal of social justice with an accelerated program of industrial and energy development. The goal was once again achieving domestic self-reliance. Adoption of measures to raise the consumption standards of those living below the poverty line continued through expansion of employment schemes. Though the intent was to maintain the national planning process, the Fifth Plan continued in draft form until 1977, mainly due to the international oil crisis.

National programs to meet minimum human needs of food and water continued with extended projects in social welfare. To these ends, the previous agendae in agricultural development and the extension of key and basic goods-producing industries were continued. A vigorous program in export promotion and import substitution was undertaken.

By 1977, formulation of the Fifth Plan was completed, with renewed emphasis on irrigation projects and on the development of domestic energy resources. These projects were undertaken to protect the nation from the increasing effect of weather on the economy. Additional measures in energy production were developed to assure that an international energy crisis would not have the disastrous impact that the 1973 oil embargo had on India's domestic economy.

Concomitant with the National Development goals, ensuring equality of educational opportunities became an academic priority. The Fifth

Plan linked economic goals and educational goals for the first time.
The planners desired to establish closer links between the patterns of
education and the needs of development and the employment market. The
Plan requested involvement of the academic community, including
students, in the tasks of social and economic development. This Plan
also became the actualization of Gandhian goals for social equality and
mutual assistance.

The Fifth Plan again included a goal of improving the quality of
education all levels. Again, however, there was no specific plan as to
how this goal was to be achieved.

Crisis once again intervened during this planning cycle. At the
end of 1973 oil prices worldwide escalated, causing a near-collapse of
India's foreign exchange. The goals of the draft Plan could not be
met, as the rising domestic prices of goods, industry and trade
consumed all available resources.

In March of 1977 the Government experienced an unexpected change
of leadership. The Fifth Plan was terminated a year in advance due to
a collapse of Mrs. Gandhi's government, and new five-year plans were
developed for 1978-1982 and 1979-1983 by the new government. However,
neither were enacted, as they could not secure approval from the
National Development Council. Because the newly formed government
could not form a majority, elections were held again and Mrs. Gandhi

regained her position in January 1980. A new planning document was prepared for 1980-1985.

The changes in government disturbed the nation's leadership and direction. Though not all of the country was happy with Mrs. Gandhi's power and style, it was soon ascertained that steady leadership was far better than chaos and inability to direct. India lost several years' progress through internal political turmoil, but emerged to resume a positive direction.

The Sixth Plan (1980-1985)

The Sixth Plan reiterated goals of meeting the basic needs of the people and in eradicating poverty. However, divergence from the straightforward and unintegrated objectives of the earlier plans was noted in an emphasis on dealing with inter-related problems through a systems approach. Management-efficiency and intensive monitoring of all sectors was stressed. The Plan proposed strengthening an infrastructure for agriculture and industry, in order to create conditions for accelerated growth in investments, output and exports. Programs designed to specifically meet these purposes through increased employment opportunities were encouraged.

An accelerated growth of the economy was designed through the
promotion of efficient use of resources and improved productivity.
Strengthening of the modernization process oriented toward achievement
of economic and technological self-reliance was a priority. The plan
required speedy development of indigenous sources of energy, with
conservation and efficiency in the use of this energy.

Ecological issues entered the planning process for the first
time. The Sixth Plan required protection of the environment and
ecological assets. Reversal of the deforestation of recent years
became a primary issue, not only in terms of replenishing the supply of
woods but in the balance of nature and the retention of natural water
sources.

All sectors of the nation were requested to become actively
involved in communication, appropriate education and the utilization of
institutional strategies geared toward meeting the goals of national
planning. Cooperation among agencies and societal sectors, public and
private, was envisioned as the next step in achieving objectives.

Adult education programs became a priority issue in the Sixth
Plan. New educational programs were introduced which favored rural
education programs. A system of non-formal education and training at
all levels providing relevant technical skills through village and city
organizations was initiated.

Programs were included to sensitize the academic community to the problems of poverty, illiteracy and environmental degradation. The Sixth Plan again called for the involvement of academicians and students. The Plan called for volunteerism and for non-government expenditures to meet the needs of literacy education.

The Constitutional goal of universal elementary education became a reality during the Sixth Plan. Additionally, the Plan included a goal of ensuring minimum education to all children up to the age of fourteen within the next ten years. Emphasis was placed on vocational programs in the secondary education sector. Again, improving the quality of secondary and higher education were stated goals. Quality improvement in higher education was to by achieved, in part, through consolidation of existing higher education facilities and programs. Coordination of higher education with opportunities for employment, especially self-employment and projects meeting national development goals, was also stressed in an effort to reduce the numbers of unemployed, educated youth. Developing science education and a scientific attitude throughout all levels of education was to be attempted.

The final educational priority of the Sixth Plan addressed the need to support the growth of arts, music, poetry, dance and drama as instruments of cultural preservation, personal education and expansion of national integration. With the nation having made great strides in

economic programs, the planners now endeavored to address the social and emotional needs of the nation, as included in the Constitution.

The Sixth Plan made significant progress for the first years of its operation. Weather calamities were almost non-existent, permitting the increased development of agricultural production. The Green Revolution in the Punjab area allowed the nation to begin stockpiling supplies of grain for future need.

Economic indicators improved as industry flourished. By the end of the Sixth Plan, India enjoyed the benefits of nuclear energy, sophisticated domestic and international air transport, ground transportation throughout the nation, and a high technology industry rated among the top ten in the world. Scientific endeavors in fields of pure science and in medicine were admirable. Exports had increased to bring extensive foreign capital into the country. Tourism was beginning to prosper.

However, an industrial disaster and several political events during the Sixth Plan caused shifts in direction and resources. The Union Carbide plant catastrophe caused physical and emotional damage throughout the country. Allegations of neglect and dereliction of duty resulted in charges of corruption, which diverted funds to investigations and to the immediate treatment and comfort of the victims.

In 1983, uprisings between the Tamils in the southern reaches of the nation and the population in Sri Lanka engendered a crisis situation, both in Sri Lanka and in the Madras region. While that was contained, the northwestern corner of the nation encountered its own uprising from the religious community of the Sikhs in Amritsar. As political tempers erupted, Mrs. Gandhi took unpopular military action at the Golden Temple, the sacred shrine of the Sikhs. The action resulted in the assassination of Mrs. Gandhi at her home in New Delhi, October 1984. The nation, bereft of its leader and symbolic 'mother of India,' suffered. In short time, her son, Rajiv, assumed the role his mother and grandfather had held before him. The tasks ahead were ominous.[114]

The Seventh Plan, 1985-1990

On the subject of planning in India, and specifically The Seventh Five-Year Plan, Rajiv Gandhi notes:

> Over the four decades since the first efforts, India's planning process has grown in depth and sophistication, today being an integral part of the national economy. A national consensus has evolved on how to pursue the basic objectives of removing poverty, building a strong and self-reliant economy and creating a social system based on equity and justice. . . As the economy enters the Seventh Plan, it is in a strong position because of the successes of the Sixth Plan. Major gains have been made in agriculture, anti-poverty programmes and industrial development. . . Economic growth must be accompanied by social justice and by the removal of age-old social barriers that oppress the weak. This is the essence of our concept of socialism. . .

The Plan seeks to push toward economic and technological modernization, as that is the essence of building true self-reliance.

In the final analysis, development is not just about factories, dams and roads. Development is basically about people . . . The human factor, the human context is of supreme value. The Seventh Plan proposes bold initiatives and outlays in the areas of human resource development. Policies and programmes in education, health and welfare must be restructured to provide a fuller life for our people.[115]

It was this integration of technology with human factors that distinguished the Seventh Plan from previous planning initiatives.

The Seventh Plan addressed every conceivable area of economic and social development, commencing with a review of Sixth Plan targets, accomplishments and areas of continued need. Major goals of the Seventh Plan were:

1. self-sustained growth by the year 2000;

2. elimination of poverty;

3. creation of conditions of near-full employment;

4. satisfaction of the basic needs of the people in terms of food, clothing and shelter;

5. attainment of universal elementary education; and

6. access to health facilities for all.[116]

The Seventh Plan stated that attainment of these goals required:

1. action to sustain and enhance the momentum of economic expansion and technological development;

2. adoption of effective promotional measures to raise the productivity and incomes of the poorer sections of the population, poorer regions and poorer States;

3. expansion and qualitative improvement in facilities for health, education and other basic civic amenities; and

4. measures for bringing about a sharp reduction in the rate of population growth.[117]

As a means of defining the nation's assets, the resource base was demarcated as human resources, non-renewable natural resources, and renewable resources (which the nation can continuously create and expand through human efforts). While each area of renewable and non-renewable resources was specifically considered, it was the area of human resources which was the base for planning. Relating the need to develop the human resource base in order to build the necessary technology for economic development was the primary issue. The Plan stated that:

The technology revolution in India and the associated necessary changes in the social strata and the growth of human capital and communication have to keep pace with each other . . . to create sufficient surplus to generate resources for accelerated growth.[118]

To this end, programs in education, health, social welfare, science and technology were stressed in detail. In the area of education, the Plan stated that:

by the year 2000, illiteracy would be eliminated and universal elementary education up to age 14 would be achieved. Extensive provision would be made for continuing and recurrent education and use of modern communication technology. There will be substantial

vocationalization of secondary education. Non-formal education using a variety of means and methods, including video technology and computers, would play a significant role.[119]

Further, the modern media of communication would be used extensively for the education of the masses and for promoting programmes of health, family planning, education and culture.[120]

The Seventh Plan placed much emphasis on the need for "policies and programs which will accelerate the growth in foodgrains production, increase employment opportunity and raise productivity."[121] The Plan stated that the central strategy was the generation of productive employment through increased agricultural production, more effective rural programs, expansion of labor-intensive construction projects and expansion of education and health facilities. Expansion of employment was directly related to an improvement in the economic base, on both micro and macro levels.

A recurring theme throughout was the need to build upon the educational and technological bases, linking these to ensure the appropriate types of training and employment programs necessary to attain self-reliance. "The primary task now is qualitative improvements in curricula and teaching methods to ensure relevance and impart to students, workers and artisans the values, knowledge and the skills required for emerging developmental tasks."[122] Specific programs in all areas of development - agriculture, rural development, irrigation and flood control, energy, industry and mineral production, transport, communications/information/broadcasting, science and

technology, social services and miscellaneous areas of development -
were included within development through education and technology goals
of the Seventh Plan. Each of these areas was related to the impact it
would have on reduction of poverty and unemployment, with education
continually mentioned as a "major program in human resource
development"[123] designed to meet these goals. Suitable arrangements
and adjustment policies in terms of education, training and retraining
and re-orientation of workers in order to make the process of
technology adoption smooth was stated as a requisite.

Manpower planning and training was also accentuated in The Plan.
The main objective of manpower training was to ensure the proper
linkage of economic planning with manpower and educational planning so
that no plan program would suffer from a lack in the trained manpower
that might be needed. To that end, concepts of upgrading of skills and
on-the-job training/retraining were included. Specific fields of
employment, particularly in technical areas, related to the needs of
ongoing education, with special mention paid to the continual updating
of equipment. Additionally, "close coordination between educational
training institutions and industrial establishments is necessary and
teaching programmes may be arranged on exchange basis to keep the
faculty informed of the latest needs of industry."[124] In order to
accomplish the continued training of students and updating of faculty
information, institution/university relations and training centers must
impart training in advanced technologies through upgrading of existing

telecommunication training programs.[125]   The Plan cited the need to
use media, as it is the only means of reaching remote areas of the
country. In addition, using nationalized media would assure consistency
in the content of what is distributed throughout the nation.

An entire chapter in the Seventh Plan is devoted to education.
The following introductory paragraph succinctly summarizes India's
philosophy toward the importance and content of education:

> Human resources development has necessarily to be assigned a key
> role in any development strategy, particularly in a country with a
> large population. Trained and educated on sound lines, a large
> population can itself become an asset in accelerating economic
> growth and in ensuring social change in desired directions.
> Education develops basic skills and abilities and fosters a value
> system conducive to, and in support of, national development
> goals, both long-term and immediate. In a world where knowledge
> is increasing at an exponential rate, the task of education in the
> diffusion of new knowledge and, at the same time, in the
> preservation and promotion of what is basic to India's culture and
> ethos, is both complex and challenging. It is, therefore,
> appropriate that the commencement of the Seventh Plan coincides
> with a comprehensive review of the education policy.[126]

The Seventh Plan included a brief review of the educational gains
since Independence and concluded that "there is an urgent need for a
new design for education."[127] The Plan noted that in order to develop
the nation's human resources as a means of attaining self-reliance,
integrating plan goals with education was essential. The main goal of
educational reform in the Seventh Plan was "to provide for

reorientation of the education system so as to prepare the country to meet the challenges of the next century."[128] Main strategies included:

> decentralization, organizational reforms, promotion of non-formal and open learning systems, low-cost alternatives and optimum use of resources, establishing beneficial links between industry and education, and mobilization of community resources and societal involvement.[129]

The central focus of the provisions in the Seventh Plan related to university/college education and concentrated on consolidation of programs, improvement of standards, altering the system to be more responsive to national needs and linking higher education with employment and economic development. A primary means of promoting programs to meet these goals was described as a networking of open universities coordinated by a central university, correspondence courses and part-time education.

Restructuring university courses to be more relevant and useful to the nation's needs was stated as being urgent. Application, orientation, flexibility and diversification were documented as immediate needs for higher education reform. Teacher training in higher education was given special mention. Faculty improvement programs providing information in teaching techniques, learning and evaluation, teacher preparation for restructuring of degree programs, and development of a national value system curriculum were proposed.

The Seventh Plan specifically mentioned the IGNOU as a pace-setting institution. The Plan supported the IGNOU (to be described in greater detail in Chapter Seven), and stated that it should include:

1. offering of higher education courses through an open learning system;

2. training of personnel;

3. production of programs; and

4. development of materials for use through electronic media.

The IGNOU was charged with being the central resource center for programs, models, documentation and dissemination of distance education. Additionally, the IGNOU was provided with support for six educational technology centers for the production of educational technology and personnel training in distance education and correspondence courses for higher education.

The Seventh Plan also spoke to the importance of higher education for preserving the cultural heritage and enhancing national unity. Emphasis was placed on inclusion and diversification of music, fine arts and performing arts courses through the creation of Fine Arts Departments. It ordered that historical and cultural distortions in course materials be corrected. Cultural instruction was prescribed for science and technology programs. Extra curricular programs in culture and arts were encouraged, with additional gallery and performance space allotted. Networking with area schools and institutions as a means of

sharing resources and programs was mandated. The University Grants Commission was accorded a special role of organizing and promoting the arts in all institutions of higher education.[130]

At the day of Independence, the government of India faced an almost insurmountable task of rebuilding a nation. Poverty and malnutrition were the norm. No base for industrial development existed, except for outdated textile mills in a few locations. Religious wars continued on the borders of East and West Pakistan. The nation was functioning at least 300 years behind the modern world. Prospects for the nation's survival were grim.

Planners focused initially on meeting basic human needs through a carefully planned program in agricultural development, combined with the ancillary requisites - electrical power and transportation. Through the succession of development plans, India built the infrastructure for industrial development. The overall development policy centered on building the economic base to support the nation and bring it into the 20th century. Despite recurring natural disasters and border conflicts, almost incredible progress was made.

Manpower, as has been noted, was not considered as a resource until the Third Plan. Even at that stage, attention was given only to elementary education as a future investment in human resources. It was

not until the Seventh Plan that education for human resource development was integrated with economic and social development.

Chapter Five will present the evolution of the educational system in India. The parallel presentation of national development planning in Chapter Four and the development of the educational system in Chapter Five will provide a basis for an appreciation of the essential link between national development and educational goals that was realized with the establishment of IGNOU.

CHAPTER V

EDUCATION IN INDIA

Modern concepts of education in India are grounded in an ancient heritage, roots which are mentioned in every discussion of educational reform. Without exception, each Indian scholar interviewed referred to early Hindu educational thought as a basis for today's developments in Indian education. Thus, while the chapter may seem tedious, it is essential to include the material. Firstly, Indian tradition is based on the ancient heritage. Secondly, the roots of the culture are crucial in building the unity within the nation today. Thirdly, for any research on Indian education to be taken seriously in India, the scholar must document the heritage.

To provide the basis for understanding the current thinking on education, Chapter V begins with a brief description of educational tradition in ancient and colonial periods. This is followed by sections on educational planning and implementation from Independence to 1984, the beginning of the current reform.

Ancient Traditions

Acknowledged educational tradition in India spans 3200 years from 1200 B.C., the date associated with the basis of the Hindu religion, the Vedas. Hindu educational purpose was to:

> bring to the humblest man the highest products of human mind and heart - development of self, to enable the individual to lead the highest possible life in the circumstances in which he was placed.[131]

While the ancient texts were documented in script, the method of education was oral (gurukula tradition). Individualized education in a rural setting was the norm. Access was open to all, regardless of gender, race or economic status.

In the post-Vedic periods or the Upanishad period (1200 B.C. - 200 B.C.) and the Dharmasastra (200 B.C. - 500 A.D.), vast changes occurred. Education disappeared from the rural residential communities of the gurukulas and university communities developed.[132] The most famous of these were Taxila and Nalanda. Access for guild members (the forerunner of caste) and women declined as education became a privilege of the elite. While the curriculum of this period was rich and varied, it was guild (caste) specific, with segments of the population excluded from education altogether.[133]

During these periods, the major shift in Hindu education was in reduction of access, increasingly excluding women and specific caste groups from academic opportunity. Elitism perpetuated the elimination of increased segments of the society, especially in traditional Hindu education.

During this period Buddhism flourished, as a result of conversion from Hinduism. Buddhism, which did not recognize caste, permitted all segments of society access to education.[134] As in Hindu education, Buddhist students resided in academic communities. The curriculum again was varied and offered secular education as well as teaching Buddhist doctrines.

This trend -- decreased access to Hindu-based education and increased access in Buddhist-based education -- continued through the Puranic Period (500 - 1200 A.D.). Hindu education continued to teach an elite group, while Buddhist education gave rise to literacy among the masses.

A significant educational endeavor of the period was the formation of the Buddhist university at Nalanda. Instituted in Bihar in 450 B.C., Nalanda was a comprehensive and sophisticated residential academic complex enrolling over 10,000 students. Access was by open examination and so highly competitive that only one in five students was admitted to study.[135] The continued custom of free education

applied to Nalanda. Students were able to study a wide range of scientific and academic disciplines, including Buddhist and Hindu scripture.

In this quasi-religious manner, higher education continued to flourish for an extended period of seven to eight hundred years. The universities were so well regarded that they drew scholars from China, Tibet, Korea, and such European nations as Greece and Italy.[136] The resident scholar/preceptor mode of education appeared to be the forerunner of medieval Europe's academic communities.

Approximately 1000 A.D., Muslims invaded India, instituting absolute Muslim rule in 1200 A.D. The effect of these invasions on education was immense. As attackers plundered the land, education centers were destroyed. In time, as Hindu and Buddhist temples were destroyed, the Muslims prohibited education, language teaching and religious worship, reducing education as India had known it to virtual insignificance.[137]

Muslims developed their own educational system, taught in Arabic/ Urdu, and limited, until the mid-16th century, to Muslims. While the tradition of free education continued, the Muslim religion limited education to males. In fact, education was mandatory for all males.[138] Because education was valued in the religion, Muslim institutions flourished. Curriculum was varied but lacked

standardization. As no degrees and no exams were given, there was no need for uniformity in curriculum.

It was not until the reign of Akbar (1556-1605) that non-Muslims were allowed into educational institutions.[139] Akbar was known for his humanistic philosophies, which had great impact on all aspects of society. In addition to opening access to all segments of society and to all levels of education, he established colleges in each new capital that he constructed.

British Rule

The early 17th century brought many European traders to India, all of whom established colonies. During the next hundred years, while clashes between Muslims and Hindus eradicated the Muslim rule, the British East India Company, the French East India Company and several smaller Western European colonies thrived - generally untouched by the power struggles.

The first East India Company Charter giving colonial rights in India was enacted in 1600. Subsequent colonial charters simply renewed their 'right' to trade in India, under existing regulations.

Children of the merchants were not permitted into the existing
schools, nor did the Westerners wish to enroll their children in the
indigenous institutions. Instead, they created their own educational
system, designed to replicate the system in the home country.
Enrollment was limited to children of home-country employees.

The first British East India Company school, modeled on the system
in England, was established in 1673 in Madras, exclusively for the
children of East India Company employees.[140] Expansion of schools was
concurrent with expansion of trade, with initial access limited to
children of East India Company employees. Gradually, as Indians rose
to administrative posts within the East India Company, they demanded
access to the education system for their children. This privilege was
granted to a limited number of senior Indian employees.

Following several conflicts, the British assumed the governing
role in India. The schools of the East India Company then became
government schools. Enrollment was limited to the children of the
British traders and government (civil service) employees. Education
for non-employee Indian children was not considered necessary by the
British government.

Having little access to education, the Indian population began to
pressure for the establishment of free schools for their children. In
1792, when the British lost the United States as a colony, a spirited

debate on education, occurred on the occasion of the East India

Company's charter renewal. Wilberforce, a member of the British

Parliament, argued that:

> the United Kingdom had just lost America from the folly of having
> allowed the establishment of schools and colleges; it would not
> do for them to repeat the same act of folly in regard to
> India.[141]

Macauley, then Legislative Member of the Governor's Council, replied:

> Are we to keep the people of India ignorant in order that we
> may keep them submissive? Or do we mean to awaken ambition and
> to provide it with no legitimate vent? It may be that the public
> mind of India may expand under our system until it has outgrown
> that system, that by good government we may educate our subjects
> into a capacity for better government, that having become
> instructed in European knowledge, they may in some future age
> demand European institutions . . . These triumphs are the pacific
> triumphs of reason over barbarism.[142]

The charter renewal succeeded and contained a provision for

education, bringing all existing schools, colleges and universities,

both colonial and indigenous, under the central governance of the

Company. Thus, "government schools" were created in India.

The Colonial Act of 1813 (India), greatly influenced by Macauley,

had major repercussions on educational access for the Indian people.

In part it stated that:

> . . . learned natives could be as learned through English as
> through Sanskrit or Arabic; that science was non-existent in
> Indian languages and science was to be taught; that the Indians

preferred English education to their own; that English was easier
to master than Sanskrit and Arabic; that English would give the
Indians the key to all the riches of western science and
literature; and that even patriotic and enlightened Indians
admitted that their own languages possessed little that was worth
knowing and asked for western education.[143]

In spite of the inaccuracies and false assumptions of Macauley's
statement, English became the official medium of instruction in 1835 in
all government schools at all levels. Non-government schools, where
the majority of students was enrolled, utilized Hindi or Arabic as a
medium of instruction. The majority of learned students was prohibited
from progressing to higher education unless they could study English
independently. The impact of this action on Indian students was to
severely reduce access to higher education.

The Hardinge Proclamation of 1844 put a final seal on the demand
for education in English. The Act gave preference in employment to
those who had been educated in government schools.[144] While students
who had been privately educated could sit for the government service
exams, they had no access to government texts and English language
instruction. The disadvantage firmly established English as the
preferred instructional medium. In 1844, Government-controlled
education became the access route to higher education and to government
employment, a situation which exists today. While religious-based
schools continued to operate, they were excluded from the mainstream of
society.

The last East India Company Charter in 1857 contained two major directives. The first proclaimed that religion in government was neutral and, therefore, prohibited government funding for religious-based schools. While religious-based schools had not been receiving funds from the government, any hopes they might have had were eliminated.

The second directive stated that western-type universities were to be established. This directive established universities in Calcutta, Madras and Bombay in the traditional British mode. Universities were created for the administration of exams. Actual matriculation was through affiliate colleges, which provided instruction -- in English. This limited access to those who had studied in government schools and meant, as well, that the vast majority of the indigenous population was excluded from the very education which would provide significant employment and govern the nation.

By 1858, following many battles, the British had filled the power void created by the Muslim downfall a century earlier.[145] They controlled three fifths of the nation, and, thus, sixty percent of the nation's education. The remaining two-fifths of the nation were princely states with regal control over what little education that was offered.

In 1901 the Indian Universities Commission was appointed by Lord Curzon, Governor General of India, to review higher education and make recommendations for reform. At that time, India boasted four government universities (Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and Punjab), 203 affiliated colleges and several unrecognized missionary colleges.[146]

Though intended for Calcutta University, the reforms presented in the 1904 Curzonian Act (also known as the Indian Universities Act) were adopted by other universities as well. Pertinent reforms included:

1. provision for instruction, not existence only as examination boards;

2. the right for universities to freely appoint professors who were deemed proper for the dissemination of knowledge;

3. governmental power to make or alter ordinances for the university, in regard to its administration;

4. empowerment to the Governor General to define the scope of universities and assign colleges for affiliation to university syndicates.[147]

The Curzonian Act forced colleges and universities to reform. It mandated improved spending based on reports and inspections of institutions, required staff improvement at government colleges, and withdrew existing affiliations or refused new appointments if colleges and universities did not conform to the standards. Curzon expected qualitative as well as quantitative reform in the education system.[148] It should be noted that Curzon's Indian Universities Commission was the precursor to the University Grants Commission.

Governor General Curzon provided the mandated funding necessary to enact the reforms. He initiated agricultural education, technical education oriented toward national development, programs in art education, and permitted instruction in regional languages. Libraries, laboratories and hostels were constructed at every college.

While the Indian Nationalistic Movement had begun in 1885, it really had little effect until the years immediately preceding World War I. As other nations revolted against colonial rule, the movement gathered momentum in India. The resulting shift from acceptance of British Rule to demand for Indian involvement in governance created unrest. It may be said that Wilberforce's prediction came into being.

The resurgence of nationalistic spirit had a major impact on education. Gopal Krishna Gokale, Indian representative to the British Government, demanded educational reform in recognition of Indian nationalism. While he focused on the need for primary education, he advocated educational reform throughout the system. Few alterations came of his demands, however. The commencement of World War I diverted national priorities.

Following the war, British-governed India once again reviewed the status of education and took upon itself the task of reform. Sir Michael Sadler, Chancellor of the University of Leeds, was appointed chair of the Sadler Commission (1917) and was assigned the role of

investigating university education. The focus shifted as the
Commission became concerned with the educational level of university
entrants. Reform suggestions were aimed at the establishment of
intermediate colleges, either independent or affiliated with secondary
schools.

The Sadler Commission did recommend university reforms. Though
reforms once again were aimed at Calcutta University, they extended to
universities nationwide. The Commission recommended increased
university autonomy, faculty freedom, administrative reforms including
the hiring of a paid vice-chancellor, wider academic course offerings,
and the appointment of an Academic Board to manage examinations,
curricula, research and the awarding of degrees. Special provisions
were made for Muslims and women. A number of these reforms were
instituted.

Concurrent with the Sadler Commission, the National Movement led
by Mohandas Gandhi had a pronounced effect on education. Gandhi asked
the people to withdraw their children from the government schools, at
the same time requiring the government to establish national schools in
line with indigenous Indian heritage.[149] While this created chaos in
the educational system of the country, it did lead to the development
of many schools with a nationalist orientation, simultaneously aiding
the struggle for Independence.

The period from the Sadler Report to the Sargent Plan of 1944
produced little change in higher education. The nation was involved in
the Independence movement, which subsequently was overshadowed by World
War II.

In 1944, as the end of World War II approached, Sir John Sargent,
Educational Commissioner to the Government of India, was ordered by the
British Government to develop a post-war comprehensive educational plan
for the nation. The Sargent Plan proposed that India inaugurate a
national educational system comparable to western standards. Sargent
suggested the model with which he was most familiar, and the one which
he thought would be most universally accepted, a replication of the
British educational system. Recommendations pertaining to higher
education included:

1. Changing higher education from four years to three,
   adding the deleted year to the secondary programs;

2. Establishing highly selective admissions criteria
   (1 in 15 admitted);

3. Providing financial assistance to the qualified poor;

4. Establishing a University Grants Commission, based
   on the British model;

5. Providing technical education at both secondary and
   higher education levels;

6. Instituting mandatory social service schemes in upper
   secondary and higher education programs.

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In his plan, Sargent stated that the first five years should be devoted to planning, promotion and provision of institutions necessary for training the teachers needed to carry out the program. The remainder of the plan was to be divided into seven five-year plans, each segment focusing on one specific area for development. Unlike many of his predecessors, Sargent included a funding scheme in his plan, but it was hopelessly inadequate.

J. P. Naik, prominent educator and founder of the Indian Institute of Education, critiqued the lack of program components and the inadequate attention to funding in Sargent's Plan. Naik also referred to the educationally unsound principle of focusing on only one aspect of the plan while the other factors wait, and the absurdity of 40 years for implementation. He continued to note that educational planning was done in a vacuum, having no interaction with other agencies or societies, and that it made no provision for population growth. Naik also stated that planners should define the goals of national development and prepare an educational plan to meet these goals in the best manner possible, in the shortest amount of time, at the least expense.[151] Sargent's Plan did none of these things.

The reconstituted Central Advisory Board on Education (CABE), originally formed in 1921, played an important role at this time. The CABE included the Central Education Minister, the State Education Ministers and the Directors of Education. The CABE formulated

educational policy for the nation. The Board reviewed Sargent's Plan
and recommended implementation in sixteen years rather than the
proposed forty years.   However, no action was ever taken on the Plan.
A primary reason for ignoring Sargent's ideas was that prevailing
Indian sentiment felt that the plan was the product of an alien
government and the nation was on the road to Independence.[152] The Plan
was too close to the British model to be effective in India and it
failed to relate programs to the national aspirations for education and
development. The Gandhian social order was the nation's philosophy,
while the Sargent scheme maintained the elitist educational system.

Despite the initial rejection of Sargent's Plan, the principles
were eventually accepted and implemented to form the beginning of a
comprehensive system of education for India. With a few modifications,
the British model was replicated, from primary through higher
education.

By Independence, 419 higher education institutions existed. This
included 19 universities and 400 affiliated colleges, with an
enrollment of 250,000 students.[153]

Education in Independent India

India's Constitution contained a number of provisions relating directly to education.   These provisions state:

1.   Though responsibility for education is shared between the nation and the States, States are primarily responsible;

2.   Any geographic area having distinct language, script, and/or culture has the right to preserve and utilize them;

3.   No citizen can be denied admission to any educational institution maintained by the State or receiving state funds, on grounds of religion, race, caste or language;

4.   In awarding aid, there shall be no discrimination based on religion, race, caste or language;

5.   All minorities have the right to establish and administer educational institutions of their choice;

6.   Free and compulsory education is to be available in the nation by 1960;

7.   Hindi is to be adopted as the National Language by 1965;

8.   A new social order is to be developed based on justice, elimination of poverty and cultural and religious freedom.[154]

From the very beginning, the writers of the Constitution established access, governance and content provisions that would affect subsequent educational planning.

As noted in the previous chapter, after Independence, India initiated a process of five year planning for national development.

Educational planning was not structured into successive five year plans. Though educational objectives were contained within the Five-Year Plans, educational planning and national development planning were not coordinated. It was not until the Seventh Plan that national goals and educational planning were viewed as components of a whole.

Since Independence, a number of Commissions have been established by the government to examine education and make recommendations. The first body appointed to investigate higher educational reform was the University Educational Commission, designated the Radhakrishnan Commission for its Chairman (Dr. Sarvapalli Radhakrishnan, who later became President of India). The Commission was established in 1949 and addressed the commonly preferred principle that education for India must be Indian, not British or western, though it wished to have the contributions of western educators for its planning.

After touring the country in August, 1949, the Commission identified general objectives that the nation needed to address. Among them were: the aims and objectives of university education and research; desirous and necessary changes in the constitutional control, functions and jurisdiction of universities; the finance of universities; the standards of admission and the maintenance of qualitative academic and examination standards; the discipline and welfare of students; the medium of instruction; and the qualifications, privileges, functions and conditions of service for faculty. The

Commission argued that education must be based on the history, culture, and traditions of the nation. Education should not just be oriented toward employment but should also nourish the soul and spirit.[155]

Recommendations from the Radhakrishnan Commission Report that were specific for higher education reform included: merging of material resources and human energies; meeting the public demand for access to higher education; combining professional education with practical application, to meet the needs of national development; improving the conditions of service for faculty; unifying the system into a 12 + 3 configuration; reducing the emphasis on examinations; and creating a University Grants Commission.[156]

After having been recommended by the Sargent Report (1944) and the Radhakrishnan Commission (1949), a University Grants Commission (UGC) was appointed in 1953 by the Central Government. Its responsibility was to ascertain and meet the needs of universities; advise the government on allocations of grants from public monies to central universities and to other universities and colleges; and to advise universities on any higher education question.

By Act of Parliament in November, 1956, the UGC became a statutory body, and was granted expanded functions. Originally limited to oversee only the central universities and advise other universities and the government, the UGC now had responsibility for coordination and

determination of standards for all of higher education. The agency was
the fiscal disbursement agent for the total budget of the central
universities and for block grants for the remaining universities and
colleges throughout the country. It also was accorded the power to
withhold funds. In addition, the UGC was authorized to order an
inspection of any department in a university. Section 20 of the UGC
Act requires the UGC to act in accordance with national policies.
Though contradicting the state authority over education, a 1972
amendment to the Act stipulated that states must consult and receive
UGC approval to establish new colleges. This mandate continues to be
ignored.[157]

Many of the recommendations of the Radhakrishnan Commission
Report, in addition to the formation of the UGC, were discussed by
government officials. Some action was taken in specific areas, though
no coordinated, comprehensive program was implemented to address the
major reforms suggested for universities.

Over time, several additional bodies began to assume control in
specific academic areas. This led to conflict within higher education
as to who set standards for education. The Indian Medical Council
imposed standards on medical training. The Chartered Accountants
reviewed commerce education. Advocates supervised legal education.
The All India Council of Technical Education regulated technical and
vocational education.[158] Thus, the UGC did not have absolute

coordination of standards and was often helpless in standardizing and improving the nation's education.

Mudaliar cited many problems that the UGC had to address in its early years. Among them:

1. The UGC was inadequately funded.

2. Medical, agricultural and veterinary institutions had "unrelated" status and, thus, the UGC had no control over them.

3. Professional boards interfered by setting university standards.

4. Permanent advisory committees needed to be established.

4. Matching grants created problems, especially when the matching funds came from states that were underfunded or wanted control over their own institutions.;

5. Only central universities received full funding through the UGC and no funding criteria had been established. Non-central institutions were given block grants, with states contributing the remainder of the budget.

6. Universities had to be financially and philosophically autonomous, if they were to be a refuge for the truth.

7. Problems were created when the UGC overrode a university board on policies and procedures.

8. Other problems existed when universities ignored national unity issues.

9. Commercialization of education through private establishment of colleges and advance payment for seats in a college or university undermined the system.[159]

These were but a few of the thirty-nine problems which Mudaliar noted in his research on the origin of the UGC. Though the UGC had

difficulty from the beginning, it functioned reasonably well as the buffer between the central government and the universities.

By 1961, the social milieu of the nation had become explosive. Issues of discrimination based on caste, language, religion, ethnic heritage and culture created sufficient unrest for the Government to appoint a Committee on Emotional Integration (Sampurnananda Committee). The Committee was charged with studying the problems and recommending educational measures to rectify the conflicts and unify the country in the process.[160]

Although the Sampurnananda Committee focused on elementary and secondary education, some of the recommendations had impact on higher education. Among the recommendations to emerge from the Sampurnananda Committee was the 10+2+3 concept of unifying the educational system. Ten years of public school was to be followed by two years of junior/community college (terms which the committee used) to be completed by three years of upper college for a Bachelor's Degree. The concept behind this recommendation was to institute a uniform pattern of education followed by a common curriculum for all the states. The concept was endorsed by the All India Secondary Teachers Federation and the Vice-Chancellors Conference, both in 1962, but was rejected by the Ministry of Education. The report was developed on the educational system in New Delhi. The Ministry, acknowledging the disparity of

needs and systems within the nation, recognized that the plan was inappropriate for many other segments of the country.[161]

In 1965 J. P. Naik stated that India had no long term comprehensive educational plan. His recommendations at that time consisted of a lengthy set of national priorities for education, with an underlying unity of purpose and beliefs of the nation.[162] A. B. Shah noted at the same time that a developing nation had several general problems in the realm of education: balance between quality and quantity; balance between educational sectors; inappropriate training of teachers; and unproductive organization of educational administration and finance.[163]

Naik's and Shah's national reputations as innovative and responsible educators may have been the impetus for the next major report. The Government appointed the Educational Commission, known as the Kothari Commission, from 1964-1966. Its function was to review education at all levels, ascertaining its effectiveness in meeting national objectives and equality, and propose links among education, national development and prosperity.[164] A lengthy list of thirty-five recommendations emerged from this Commission, which became the basis for the first National Policy on Education in 1968. The primary objective of the report was to transform the educational system to relate to life and the needs and aspirations of the nation, creating a

comprehensive system. Suggestions were made to improve the quality of teaching and teachers, and liquidate illiteracy. [165]

In the area of higher education, the Kothari Commission emphasized the development of six 'major' universities where post graduate education and research could be accomplished. Additionally, the Commission recommended that outstanding colleges be accorded autonomous status, that the system be expanded in a manner that related to manpower needs and employment opportunities, that a selective admission process be established, that technical colleges, polytechnics and vocational schools be created, and that the overall quality of higher education be improved.[166] The Committee also advised the UGC that a university Vice-Chancellor should be appointed for a maximum of two five-year terms at one institution, as a means of stimulating university development through a change of chief educational officers.

The Kothari Commission suggested combining national unity with industry. It recommended that work experience be required at all levels of education. The Committee felt that a redefinition of the Gandhian approach would launch the nation on the road to industrialization and promote work values, while sharing the burden of development among all classes of people. Additional inclusions addressed women's issues and education of the handicapped, both new concepts of education in India.[167] The Kothari Commission Report was the first such document to be considered seriously by the Government and was the basis for the

National Policy on Education, 1968. It thus holds a significant place in the history modern-day education in India.

The National Policy on Education instituted in 1968 from the recommendations of the Kothari Report put forth the first comprehensive policy combining education and national development. Proposals which addresses the system as a whole included:

1. Reaffirmation of the policy of free, compulsory education to age fourteen, fulfilling Article 45 of the Constitution;

2. Developing languages and literature through the promotion of regional languages as the medium of instruction; strongly promoting the learning of Hindi as the national link language; creating a three- language formula of regional language, Hindi and English as a progression of acquisition;

3. Stressing strenuous efforts to equalize educational opportunity through correcting regional imbalances and providing good facilities, especially in rural and backward areas; promoting social cohesion;

4. Increasing facilities and programs of academic and vocational education at the secondary level, in a wide array of fields;

5. Involving industry and society in a mass campaign to eradicate literacy and promote adult education programmes;

6. Promoting and protecting the educational rights of minorities;

7. Adopting the 10+2+3 educational uniformly throughout the nation.[168]

In the area of higher education, the National Policy included specific proposal. Among them were:

1. Coordinating admission of students to the limits of the system (in terms of facilities and faculty);

2. Developing part-time and correspondence education at the university level, maintaining the standards and status of on-campus attendance, to promote access;

3. Emphasizing the development of science and technology programs, integrating technical education and practical training as integral components of education;

4. Increasing support to research activities;

5. Directing special attention to postgraduate education.

6. Promoting examination of the university curriculum, standards of training and research, strengthening centers of advanced research, exercising care in the establishment of new universities and evaluating the laboratory, library, facilities and faculty needs of students with reference to provide adequate resources for learning;

7. Placing special emphasis on the development of education for agriculture and industry, creating at least one agricultural university in each state, and reviewing the agricultural and manpower needs of the nation as a means of continuously maintaining a balance between education and development needs;

8. Instituting complete examination reform to assist the student in achieving competency rather than certification.

This ambitious National Policy outlined goals for educational reform for the next twenty years. While the National Policy proposed reforms on five-year intervals, numerous interim commissions were appointed to assess progress and accomplishments. Subsequent reports indicated that very few goals were achieved during that period of this Policy. As this was the hiatus period in national planning, the most probable causes for lack of action were due to the Indo-Pakistan conflict, two successive years of drought, and fiscal problems within the nation.

In 1972, the Central Advisory Board of Education again recommended adoption of a unifying 10+2+3 educational system and the implementation of vocational education.[169] Additional contributions were made by planners in 1975. Bhattacharya challenged the nation to replace the current educational system with one that was functional, practical and development oriented.[170] Verma supported this by noting that at least four different educational systems exist in various states.[171] Kurrien, in analyzing the Indian reluctance to implement reform, noted that a universal system had yet to be adopted, nor had the nation addressed the massive issue of its citizens' need to work for a living. The lack of part-time education and vocational training were serious detriments to the development of the nation.[172]

A Government of India document in 1975 reviewed several recommendations for reform, among them: a 10+2+3 system; a curriculum to include a 3-language concept; a comprehensive curriculum; a compulsory work experience/ community service component; and an overwhelming need for examination reform.[173] The report continued with a restatement of all previous recommendations for work experience, vocational training programs, a unified educational system with opportunity for all citizens, inclusion of values and attitudes in the curriculum, and a link between education and national development.[174]

In May of 1975, the central government formally adopted the 10+2+3 system of education. The sixty years' investigation and recommendation

of the 10+2+3 system indicates the pace of change in India. With educational authority granted to the states and financial and human resources limited, the unifying educational system was not implemented.

A 1975 Ministry of Education and Social Welfare publication citing India's educational developments noted several higher education reforms. These reforms include: autonomy to select colleges, implementing a lead college concept; a revision of the pay scale encouraging talented teachers to remain in the profession; an improvement of the quality of instruction and curriculum at affiliate colleges; and a standardization of post-graduate courses and colleges.[175]

In 1979, the majority party introduced a Parliamentary bill to reform education. The National Policy on Education (1979) was designed to provide education which was consistent with Hindu philosophy and the aims of the party. The proposal put considerable responsibility on man's duty to society (Hindu principle), to individual growth in all domains, and to concepts of national unity.[176] The Policy was not adopted because of party conflicts and the impracticability of its concepts. However, the bill documented the importance of ancient Hindu tradition in modern Indian thinking.

A 1982 UNESCO publication indicated that India had eighty-eight conventional universities and technical universities and twenty

agricultural universities.[177] Additionally, 4,700+ affiliate colleges existed.[178] Within the large number of institutions, there were many program duplications and a proliferation of degrees that had no relevance to the employment market. Technical education was outdated and the skills of technical school graduates were insufficient for the twentieth century workplace.

A 1983 report on technical education from the Ministry of Education noted significant development in industrial training institutes. Close to 5000 such institutes offered education in over 200 technical and vocational areas. The Report noted that admissions standards varied from 8th standard to 10th standard matriculation exam, thus requiring substantial educational completion for access to trade education. A number of schools had programs for girls, offering training in traditional female occupations.

The 1983 Report also stated that advanced technical and vocational training in engineering and technology was offered in approximately sixteen institutions. Several of these institutes provided "continuing education" in selected fields. These institutions have been responsible for a number of innovative rural and village development projects. They have also instituted some industry/education cooperation, extension programs and course diversification.[179]

In 1985, Prof. G. Ram Reddy, then the Vice-Chancellor of the Andhra Pradesh Open University, publicly challenged the nation. He cited Article 39 of the Constitution which grants equal pay for equal work and an equal right to livelihood. He continued that this is only an illusion of opportunity. In several papers, he cited the disparity of opportunity, the lack of literacy education for women and the poor quality of educational offerings in many geographical areas. His criticisms of the system included references to the educational system as elitist, rigid, conservative and expensive, with false assumptions pervading reform.[180]

Prof. Reddy's critique adequately summed up the attitudes of educational reformers by the mid-1980's. By then, many educational planners in India were highly critical of the educational system. They argued that although the number of institutions had increased, the system was rigid, outdated and unrelated to the national development needs.[181]

General Reform Trends in Independent India

As can be noted from Table 1, several themes appear consistently in the major commission reports and national policy. The first is the theory of coordinating educational reform and revision to meet national

Table 1

Higher Education General Trends Summary

The Radhakrishnan Commission Report recommended:

1. coordinating material resources and human energies;
2. meeting public demand for access;
3. reducing emphasis on exams'
4. improving conditions of service for faculty;
5. combining professional education with practical application,
    to meet the needs of the nation;
6. establishing a 12 + 3 system;
7. creating a UGC.

The Kothari Commission Report recommended:

1. transforming and expanding the educational system to meet the
    nation's needs, including manpower needs and employment;
2. developing major universities for postgraduate education and
    research;
3. according autonomous status to outstanding colleges;
4. establishing a selective admissions process;
6. developing technical colleges, vocational schools and
    polytechnics;
6. improving the quality of higher education.

The <u>National Policy on Education, 1968</u>, recommended:

1. coordinating admissions with system limits;
2. establishing part-time and correspondence programs for access;
3. emphasizing science and technology programs, with attention to theoretical application;
4. increasing support for research;
5. directing special attention to post-graduate education;
6. examining the curriculum, and exercising caution in establishing new universities;
7. developing agricultural universities to meet national needs;
8. institution examination reform that addresses competencies.

SOURCE: Summarized from A. Biswas & J. C. Aggarwal. <u>Education in India</u>. (New Delhi: Arya Book Depot, 1972), pps. 49-53, 99-103, 147-154; F. E. Keay & Sukumar Mitra. <u>A History of Education in India</u>, 5th ed. (Calcutta: Oxford University Press, 1978), pps. 236-245; Dr. S. N. Mukerji. <u>History of Education in India (Modern Period)</u>. (Baroda: Acharya Book Depot, 1961), pps. 250-261.

development needs. The Radhakrishnan Commission emphasized the need to coordinate material resources and human energies; the Kothari Commission specifically requested the nation to transform and expand the educational system to meet the nation's economic, manpower and employment needs; and the National Policy on Education, 1968, emphasized science, technology and agricultural development to meet national development needs. Thus, India was aware of the need to revise the educational system so as to improve the nation.

Each report also emphasized the need to broaden access to higher education, but the recommendations were divergent. The Radhakrishnan Commission recommended meeting public demand for access. However, the Kothari Commission, while recommending expansion of the system, particularly in the areas of technical and vocational education, urged that a selective admissions process be established for higher education. The National Policy suggested establishing part-time and correspondence educational opportunities to improve access. However, in the National Policy, the Commission also advocated that admissions be coordinated within the limits of the system. There appears to be an acknowledgment that access was a major issue in higher education but disagreement centered on how the system should respond, given that it was overburdened in its present format. The result was establishment of a selective admissions process in each institution of higher education.

Practical application of course material emerges as a third theme. The Radhakrishnan Commission included combining professional education with practical application. The National Policy emphasized practical application in science and technology programs, as well as instituting examination reform to include competencies. The Kothari Commission, while not stating specifically that education should have an applied component, implies this aspect through the priority of meeting economic, manpower and employment needs.

A fourth theme is noted in the Radhakrishnan Commission and the National Policy. Both documents address the need for increased support for research and attention to post-graduate education. Many academicians as well as those interviewed for this research noted that only through education would the nation meet its national development goals. They indicated that attention must be given to developing the research and post-graduate components of education in order to have a sufficiently trained body of educators to promote quality higher education within the nation. The underlying premise of a trickle-down effect was noted by many individuals.

Though India appears to value investigative commissions and reports, implementation did not always follow the issuance of reports and recommendations. Numerous reform plans had been generated, resultant action was inconsistent. From the Kothari Commission, the UGC was created and access was expanded with the establishment of many

higher education institutions. The Kothari Commission recommendation
of major university establishment was implemented with the creation of
several new institutions, including Jawaharlal Nehru University), Tata
Institute of Social Sciences and Birla Institute of Technology and
Sciences.

Although the National Policy on Education 1968 was not implemented
as a whole, several of its proposals were enacted independently.
Correspondence education was created and expanded. Agricultural
universities were established in Bangalore, Hyderabad, Jorhat (Assam),
Hissar (Haryana) and Patna. Science and technology programs received
attention, as can be documented by the current level of technological
advancement currently existing in the nation.

Despite several reforms at the margins, the system of higher
education in India remained a non-indigenous modified colonial system,
and many believed that it was generally unresponsive to the culture, to
tradition and to development, and to the various reports and
recommendations. Many educators and policy personnel, however,
continued to believe that change was imperative.

Chapter Six will present the status of the higher education system
in 1984 and review three major national documents calling for reform of
that system. These documents include the mandate for the creation of a
unique higher education institution, a national open university for

India. As a prelude to IGNOU, the chapter will conclude with a section
on the 15 years of open university investigation.

CHAPTER VI

HIGHER EDUCATION REFORM: 1984-1986

The Bhopal disaster, religious uprising in the Punjab area of
Amritsar and the assassination of Indira Gandhi in October, 1984,
caused India to halt its quest for progress and development. The
traumas to the nation occurred in quick succession and forced
suspension of all existing plans in order to examine the future
direction of India's progress.

Higher education had had many critics, many reports and
suggestions and little reform. The crisis in 1984 once again brought
reform planning. Unlike previous educational plans, these efforts
appeared to be comprehensive and were designed to meet national
development goals.

Status of Higher Education, 1984

Admission

Each university academic council establishes admissions criteria for college and university admissions in coordination with an appropriate professional agency. As will be seen in Figure 1, students must generally have had eleven or twelve years of education for university entrance. All states have a secondary school exit exam, based on common curriculum within the state. This exam is required for university entrance.

Admission to a university or affiliate college is selective, based on academic record and examination scores. It should be noted that disparate curricula at the secondary level do not permit students from one state to attend university in another state. Students from the entire nation may attend the central universities. A percentage (unpublished) of seats in all universities and affiliate colleges is reserved for applicants who have minimal qualifications, are members of scheduled castes/tribes, members of disadvantaged classes, and women.

College and university admission is directly from secondary school. A student is permitted to take an additional year of education after completing secondary school, if exam grades are less than

satisfactory. University entrance exams may then be retaken one additional time, with entrance scheduled for the following term. There is no provision for university entrance at a later date.

Enrollment

Between 1950/51 and 1983/84, the number of colleges in India grew from 498 to 5246[182]; the number of professional schools rose from 208 to 727; the number of universities increased from 27 to 140. Ten higher education "institutions of national importance," and fifteen higher education institutions "deemed to be universities" were created during this period and enrollment in higher education increased from 360,000 to 3,500,000.[183] The most recent statistics 1983/84) indicate that the enrollment in higher education was 4.8% of the relevant age group (approximately 17-21).[184]

Thus, a very small proportion of the population in India is able to enroll in higher education. Further, in the areas of engineering and technology, those current programs considered to be relevant to national development, the 1983/84 enrollment was 115,000.[185] Despite some significant developments in research, the higher education impact on society and on employment in engineering and technology is quite minuscule.

Courses, Degrees and Pedagogy

Undergraduate courses of study leading to a BA, BS or BCOM are offered in major disciplines of natural sciences, social sciences, business. Undergraduate professional degrees are offered in agriculture, engineering, law, technology, medicine, and veterinary science. Degrees are 'classed' in a manner similar to the U.S. 'cum laude' basis and the 'class' becomes part of the official transcript.

Pedagogy is consistent with the British system. Students enroll for a specific course of study and focus on that discipline for the duration of the degree. They 'read' according to a standardized syllabus and sit for comprehensive exams at the end of the academic year. While class lectures are given by faculty at the undergraduate level, class discussion is not the norm. Students generally take copious notes, engage in rote memorization, and complete college/university wide examinations. Students pass or fail for the entire year, based on the examinations. In most institutions, there is no mechanism for cumulative course credit.

Post-graduate degrees at the Masters and Doctoral levels are offered in the humanities, business, sciences, technology, social sciences and professional areas. Masters degrees require instruction and research. Masters degrees are also 'classed' in the same manner as undergraduate degrees. Doctoral study is available to all students

possessing at least a Class II Masters Degree. Coursework generally is not required for an Indian doctorate. However, qualifying papers and examinations plus a dissertation are necessary for a doctoral degree. Doctoral degrees at this level include Ph.D. or D. Phil. A higher level doctorate, D. Litt./D.Mu./D.Eng., is granted to Ph.D. holder's who have published their research. This degree is not one in which students enroll, but is awarded to a university's graduates or faculty upon completion and recognition of scholastic contribution.

Courses of study in ancient methodology and subject discipline are offered in select institutions. Examples include study of Sanskrit, Ayurvedic medicine, oriental languages and literature.[186]

Faculty

University faculty must have earned a minimum of M.Phil. for teaching positions. In the affiliate colleges, often a Bachelor's degree is sufficient for teaching. The more prestigious universities employ distinguished professors with doctorates on their faculties.

Faculty salaries are low, with the exception of the central universities. As states vary in university funding, salaries also vary, and teaching is not a valued profession. Only at the central

universities and other noted institutions is salary commensurate with the position.

Following a probationary period, faculty are generally employed by a university or college for the duration of their professional life. A tenure system is utilized in Indian higher education.

Fiscal Control and Accountability

Educational authority rests with state Ministries of Education, as contained in the Constitution. However, a Constitution amendment grants power to the national government to direct education when it appears to be in the best interest of the nation. The result is a duality of authority in higher education. In the absence of national control, many systems result. While over 90% of higher education is state controlled, nine central universities have been established: Aligarh Muslim; Banaras Hindu; Delhi; Indira Gandhi National Open University; Jawaharlal Nehru; North-Eastern Hill; Pondicherry; University of Hyderabad and Visva-Bharati.[187] These universities are funded directly by Parliament and are responsible only to the central government.

Non-central universities and colleges are financed by the states, student fees and tuitions, grants from the UGC, and private trusts.

The major portion of financing comes from the state governments. As
states vary in fiscal resources, this funding system permits wide
disparity among institutions, in academic and student resources.

The University Grants Commission is the central agency which
coordinates higher education. Among its mandates include authority to:

1. inquire into the financial needs of universities, to
   allocate and disburse maintenance, development and special
   funds provided by the Central Government and by other
   agencies and institutions;

2. recommend necessary measures for improvement to any
   university, including implementation plans;

3. advise the Central Government or any State Government on the
   allocation of funds for universities;

4. advise authorities, if asked, on the establishment of new
   universities or any other question put before it;

5. collect information on all matters relating to university
   education in India and any other nation, and to make the
   information available to all universities; and

6. require any university to furnish financial information as
   needed.[188]

While the UGC does not 'control' institutions of higher education
in the academic sense, it does control a substantial pool of discretion-
ary funding. Through financial control, the UGC is powerful.

Financial aid is available to students through national
scholarship and loan programs. Each student from a scheduled tribe is
granted scholarship aid. Students from scheduled castes are eligible

for scholarships for overseas study. While tuition is low and scholarship aid is available, higher education remains beyond the reach for many students who qualify for admission. Funding for scholarships is from the central government.[189] (Financial aid statistics were not available.)

The Association of Indian Universities (AIU), a membership organization, functions much as accrediting bodies do in the United States. Higher education institutions apply for membership and must undergo intense scrutiny on all levels to be admitted to the AIU. Membership permits institutions to receive UGC, state and federal funding necessary to provide adequate facilities, equipment and resources for their programs. In 1986, 149 institutions comprised the AIU membership. The AIU often rejects applications for membership. The rationale for rejecting an institution's petition for membership is that AIU membership confers "official" recognition on institutions, and AIU maintains strict standards.

Many other specialized agencies and organizations exists which have specific coordination and accrediting functions in higher education. Among them are:

1. National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration;
2. Indian Institute of Advance Study;
3. Indian Council of Social Science Research;[190]
4. Indian Council for Historical Research;
5. All India Council for Technical Education;

6. Institute of Vocational Studies;
7. Indian Medical Association;
8. Indian Nursing Council;
9. Institute of Engineers;
10. Institute of Chartered Accountants of India;
11. Institute of Cost and Works Accountants of India;
12. Indian Merchant's Chamber;
13. Institute of Company Secretaries
14. Bar Council of India;
15. Dental Council of India;
16. Pharmacy Council of India;
17. Indian Council of Agricultural Research.[191]

The AIU is represented on the boards of several of the above-listed organizations and attempts to coordinate standards.

Governance and Administration

Internal administration of the universities follows the British system of a Chancellor, who is the President of India, a Vice-chancellor, who is equivalent to a U. S. college president, and a Registrar, who is equivalent to a U.S. position of vice-president. A Dean of Faculty is often appointed, but the position is primarily administrative. Various committees are involved in university administration. The Senate meets yearly to review operations. An Executive Council or Syndicate meets often and conducts the business of the institution. An Academic Council approves curriculum and academic matters and forwards recommendations to the Senate for approval.

Types of Institutions

There are five categories of higher education universities: affiliate, unitary, agricultural, institutions deemed to be universities, and institutes of national importance. In 1984 there are 149 institutions which comprise the university categories. There are also 5040 colleges affiliated with these universities.[192] In addition, a system of correspondence colleges exists.

Affiliate universities do not teach at the undergraduate level. They establish syllabi, control standards, dictate conditions of operation, provide exams and confer degrees on affiliate college graduates.

The affiliate universities annex colleges and instruction is provided at these colleges. Colleges which affiliate with a university, as can be noted from the above description, have little control over what they teach, how they are governed, and how they administer their institutions. They are often privately funded.

Affiliate universities do offer graduate instruction directly. Examples of affiliate universities are the Universities of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras.

The unitary universities do not affiliate colleges, but offer their own instruction and examinations, and conduct research. They are self-governing. There are very few unitary universities. Jawaharlal Nehru University, some agricultural institutions and specialized institutions, Banaras Hindu University among them, comprise this group.

Agricultural universities are generally state controlled, offering instruction and research in agricultural areas. Twenty- one agricultural institutions comprise the group.

Additionally, there are fifteen institutions deemed to have university status, which permit them to award degrees. These represent a small and specialized component of the higher education system. Generally these were established by various organizations or trusts. Parliament granted 'institutions of national importance' status to the Indian Institutes of Technology and five other scientific and medical institutions, including the Institutes of Technology at Bombay, Delhi, Kanpur, Kharagpur and Madras. These institutes provide instruction and conduct research.

There is also a system of technical colleges and polytechnics. Education at this level may be within the +2 level or may occur within the affiliate college programs. A number of these institutions are privately owned and operated, though this does not prohibit them from being affiliated with a college or university.

The open university concept, long discussed, resulted in the founding of the Andhra Pradesh Open University in 1982 in Hyderabad, a unique component of the Andhra Pradesh University, and several other small open university appendages to universities. The Indira Gandhi National Open University is the only autonomous, non-traditional institution of higher education, and is a unitary university.

Systems of Higher Education

With education exclusively controlled by the states for forty years, a variety of systems developed. In 1984, twenty-two states and nine union territories exist. This aggregate of thirty-one governmental units results in seventeen different systems of higher education, as shown in Figure 1. With disparate systems, transfer between institutions is not possible.

The requirement of 10 years' education for college/higher secondary school admission is consistent from state to state. From that point on, the systems diverge. With the exception of the central universities, degree consistency is non-existent. Content, requirements, and length of time for degrees depend on the ministry dictates in the various states, although the UGC and AUI provide some 'guidance' on curriculum.

INDIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM MODELS, 1985

AGE	SCHOOL YEAR								
25	20	Ph.D.						Ph.D.	
24	19			Ph.D.	Ph.D.				
23	18		Ph.D.			Ph.D.	Ph.D.		Ph.D.
22	17	MA/MS/MCOM			MA/MS/MCOM			MA/MS/MCOM	
21	16		MA/MS/MCOM	MA/MS/MCOM		MA/MS/MCOM	MA/MS/MCOM		MA/MS/MCOM
20	15	BA/BS/BCOM			BA/BS/BCOM			BA/BS/BCOM	
19	14		BA/BS/BCOM	BA/BS/BCOM		BA/BS/BCOM	BA/BS/BCOM		BA/BS/BCOM
18	13								
17	12	HSSC/INTER	HSSLC or PRE-UNIV	INTER	HSC	PRE-UNIV	HSSC 2	PRE-UNIV	
16	11						HSSC 1		HSC
15	10	SSC	HSLC	SSC	SSC	SSC	SSC	SSC	SSC
14	9								
13	8	PRIMARY					PRIMARY		
12	7		PRIMARY	PRIMARY					
11	6								
10	5								
9	4								
8	3								
7	2								
6	1								

LEGEND
SSLC - Secondary School Leaving Certificate
HSC - Higher Secondary Certificate
PRE-UNIV - Pre-University
HSSC - Higher Secondary School Certificate
HSSLC - Higher Secondary School Leaving Certificate
INTER - Intermediate
HSLC - High School Leaving Certificate
SSC - Secondary School Certificate
PRE-PROF - Pre-professional (Medical, Engineering, Agriculture)
BA/BS/BCOM - Bachelor Arts, Bachelor Science, Bachelor Commerce
MA/MS/MCOM - Master Arts, Master Science, Master Commerce
Ph.D. - Doctorate

Adapted from: Leo J. Sweeney & Valerie Woolston, eds. *The Admission and Academic Placement of Students from South Asia: Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka* (Washington, D.C. American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers & National Association of Foreign Student Affairs, 1986), pps. I-3 - I-5.

<u>Figure 1</u>

Parallel Programs -- The Correspondence Colleges

The Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) has had a long planning history and a prelude of widespread correspondence education. The first correspondence college was founded at Delhi University in 1962. Some correspondence colleges are separate entities, such as the affiliate institutions, and some are departments within the university administration.

The main aim of the correspondence colleges, as designated by the University Grants Commission, was to "enable those sections of society which could not avail themselves of a formal system of education and those who could not join the university earlier but who would now like to pursue their higher studies to receive higher education according to their own convenience and at their own pace."[193]

In 1984, 33 universities and institutions deemed to be universities offered degrees by correspondence. Courses of study include a full spectrum of Bachelor's degrees and several Masters degree programs. Many diploma courses are also available via correspondence. The curriculum of correspondence education replicates the traditional system. Students follow the same syllabi and sit for the same exams as university students enrolled through the conventional system. The one difference is that correspondence students come to the university only to take final examinations. In 1984, the enrollment in

correspondence higher education was approximately 5% of the total

higher education enrollment or 168,000.[194]

Problems and Concerns, 1984

The issue of access raises many questions. Though the number of universities and affiliate colleges has increased significantly, the percentage of the relevant age group enrolled in higher education is 4.8%. Compared to the United States, where it is reported to be in excess of 50%, the relatively low percentage gives rise to real questions of access. Who can attend and how many can the system accommodate?

The original British system of higher education has taken on various configurations as a result of state control granted by the initial Constitution. While the methodology of the British system remains, there is no overall unification of the system. As noted in Figure 1, education in India represents such a diversity in structure, curriculum and degree requirements as to prevent mobility across state and institutional lines.

The number of years of study for each level and degree is diverse, leaving degrees in a state of unequivalency. In some states and regions, no higher education is available. As these tend to be the

poorer states, attainment of higher education is generally insignificant. Students do not have fiscal resources to leave their home states and study at a distant university - if they are even aware of the opportunity.

Facilities for higher education vary greatly in maintenance, classroom size and space, library facilities and acquisitions, laboratory availability, and equipment for student and faculty use. Resources for maintenance and improvement are scarce and are generally allocated to other fiscal demands.

Quality of education varies from state to state. Issues of quality vis a vis funding have already been mentioned. These topics were often stated in interviews with the Indian participants. Rigidity and poor quality of higher education are freely discussed among Indian academicians. Additional issues of quality are reflected in the lack of equipment, especially modern technology, in laboratories, resulting in student inability to conduct adequate experimentation.

Funding adds a discriminatory aspect on quality. The remote states and regions with few resources have few programs and those are of questionable quality. Central universities are relatively well funded by Parliament, as are the 'prestigious' institutes deemed to be universities and those of national importance. Thus, competition for

enrollment in the better schools is keen, as university is viewed as the route to good employment and a good life.

Issues of quality relate to faculty as well. A structured tenure system exists, both within affiliated colleges and the universities. Indian critics continually refer to the outdated knowledge base of faculty resulting from the tenure system and the lack of any requisite to maintain current in one's field. The need to conduct research and publish is not present in most institutions. Thus, the job-for-life is cited often as a cause of poor teaching and irrelevant education. Additionally, disproportionate funding also causes a discrepancy in teaching quality. The better the funding, the higher the level of faculty. There is much unrest in faculty ranks throughout the nation, due to lack of funding for salaries, equipment and facilities, and faculty strikes are not uncommon.

From this competition for funds and students emerged corruption. Because higher education, especially at the better colleges and universities, is seen as a societal and economic value, parents and students alike desire admission to those institutions. Stolen exam schemes and bribery of faculty and officials for 'good grades' is rampant and has been the subject of numerous scandals.[195]

The issues of funding, lack of quality education and corruption were directly mentioned by more than half of those interviewed in

India. Most of those interviewed were quite candid about the higher education system, and were seriously concerned about the issue of quality. They expressed a desire to learn how other nations had dealt with these difficulties.

External professional agencies impose standards on curriculum development and degrees. Thus, higher education institutions not only have no standards from state to state, but must consider professional organiztion sanctions as well.

The system is rigid, in curriculum and in admission, as was stated by a number of Indian participants. It is difficult for colleges and universities to alter their current curriculum or systems. There has been little demand to do so until recently. There has also been no incentive to change. The proposed changes are not minimal; they are overwhelming. Motivation, incentives and demand have to be present to effect the required overhaul of higher education in India.

Many of those interviewed noted that the university system yields thousands of graduates who have studied an unmodified and irrelevant curriculum. As the nation's goals shift, this group of graduates finds itself untrained for existing employment, as they have no skills or knowledge relevant to current needs.

Irrelevancy of education is described in <u>Challenge of Education:</u>
<u>A Policy Perspective</u>. The document summary includes a statement noting
that there is little link between higher education and both the
realities of life and the world of work. It indicates a need to
accomplish the following: revise the curriculum to include more
technical education and pride in national heritage; relate theory to
real life situations; relate higher education programs with research
and development; remove the emphasis on rote memorization and
restructure the process to stress the development of mental abilities
(reasoning, logic, application); and expand technical education,
developing college programs in such areas as catering, tourism,
pollution prevention, plant nursery development, urban planning,
transportation management, office management, public administration,
forestry/land/water development and environmental issues.[196]

There is little provision for meeting the needs of society or
national development within the traditional curriculum. There is
almost no provision for students to enter the higher education system
at any time other than the immediate period following secondary
school. There is little to no continuing education provision within
the system.

The lack of continuing education has great impact on the quality
of teaching as well. Only research scholars keep abreast in their
disciplines. Professional development is relatively non-existent. As

faculty at affiliate colleges are employed for life, they do not need to return to the learning environment as students. They teach from prescribed curricula, and there is no incentive for them to be creative, to update their knowledge, or to engage in pedagogical pursuits. This issue emerged in several interviews and has been recently addressed by the Central Department of Education, the UGC and the AIU, with forthcoming plans to update faculty knowledge and skills.

There are also many criticisms of correspondence colleges. Few of the colleges and universities follow the guidelines put forth by the UGC for correspondence education. Prof. Ram Reddy cites correspondence education as "unwanted adjuncts," with institutions having no freedom to organize their programs, teach or guide students or assume responsibility for their education. Students have been permitted to enroll in course work and sit for exams, thus rendering the correspondence schools little more than examination bodies.[197] Dr. (Mrs.) Madhuri Shah, former UGC Chair, equated the correspondence system as one of the most unreliable and corrupt systems in the country, as quality was inconsistent and degrees could be purchased for the 'appropriate fee.'[198]

Professor Reddy's criticism went further to compare the correspondence system to the exploitation of India by the British: "Many universities treat their correspondence institutions as colonies; the revenues generated by the latter are ploughed into the former and

the unwanted and disinterested academics of the formal system are
posted to work with the latter."[199]

Several Indian educators cite additional problems with the
correspondence colleges, such as untrained staff, underfunding from
state and national resources, a lack of standardized curriculum,
replication of the traditional - and irrelevant - syllabi, and the
desire for most correspondence colleges to produce a profit by selling
materials rather than focusing on quality education. One educator
stated that most of the correspondence colleges are useless.[200]

Despite the criticisms of correspondence colleges, Chib's research
documents the fact that Indian correspondence students' examination
scores compare favorably with those of the students of regular
colleges. He continues to note a number of universities where
correspondence students placed in the top ten of all students who sat
for exams in a given year.[201] Further, several educators indicate the
appropriateness and success of correspondence education in English
composition. Despite these research results, enrollment in Delhi
University's Correspondence Unit has dropped from 15,000 to 6,000 in
the last decade.[202]

Following the assassination of Mrs. Gandhi, when the nation was
undertaking a self-study, education was scrutinized. This evaluation
resulted in the Challenge of Education - A Policy Perspective, the

forerunner of the <u>Seventh Five-Year Plan (1985-1990)</u> and the <u>National Policy on Education -1986</u>. To the problems and concerns identified above were added the need for trained personnel in national priority areas and the need for a cohesive national unity program to re-unite India. The central government chose to propose a complete revision of higher education linked with national planning.

<u>Challenge of Education - A Policy Perspective</u>

In January, 1985, while in the throes of calming and re-directing the nation following the assassination of Prime Minister Indira Gandhi, the Government announced that a new Education Policy would be established. A comprehensive evaluation of the existing system was accomplished by the Ministry of Education, resulting in a document entitled <u>Challenge of Education: A Policy Perspective</u>. The Ministry reviewed twenty years of historical documents on education, noting the lack of reform because of funding restrictions and/or implementation measures.

<u>Challenge of Education - A Policy Perspective</u> was published in August 1985. Its introductory statement, "this document represents an important stage in the process of reviewing and reshaping the education system to enable it to meet the challenges of the future and also improve its efficiency and quality,"[203] indicates the importance to the

nation of education and of the process of planning. K. C. Pant, then

Union Minister for Education, concluded the Foreword by stating that:

> Education is concerned essentially with the future.
> It has a holistic character. Therefore, everyone capable of
> contributing to it has a duty and responsibility to do so.
> If the new generation entering the 21st Century finds itself
> ill-equipped, it will hold the present generation responsible
> for its inadequacies. It will not accept the alibi that the
> shortcomings in their education and training stemmed from the
> constraints of a particular framework of Centre-State relations
> or departmental responsibilities. Education is a national
> responsibility.[204]

Challenge presented a summary of education, society and

development since the commencement of the five-year planning process.

As was previously stated, Challenge was written after reviewing the

educational component of the five-year plans. Challenge examined the

relationship between education and national development, the role of

education in society - with particular emphasis on Indian society - and

the role of education on an individual basis.

The document cited the importance of education on all levels. In

the area of higher education, Challenge stated that:

> Higher education has been given a place of special
> importance because it can provide ideas and men to give shape
> to the future and also sustain all the other levels of education.
> The quality of life and pace of development of any nation depends
> on the ideological climate; the widespread perceptions of history,
> culture, tradition and values; and the feeling of confidence in
> human capability to overcome material, social and spiritual
> problems of living. Higher education, and the intelligentsia
> nurtured by it, have a special role in determining the quality of
> the overall environment.[205]

Furthermore,

> The single most important factor of a country's future may well be the state of its higher education.[206]

The overall importance of higher education in the nation's development was stated in terms of the responsibility of education to provide training and research, and the ability to foresee, plan and execute the activities necessary to keep India in time with the world. Thus, the significance of reform in higher education was essential to the country in order to attain its goals.

While the review noted the considerable increase in higher education opportunities and the improvement of quality of scientists, scholars and engineers produced since Independence, it also noted the failure to realize the full potential of the nation's human resources. The paper criticized higher education for failure to promote abilities for self-study, for failure to teach language and communication skills, and for the absence of a sense of social or national responsibility. It noted that higher education promoted a highly limited world-view. A denunciation of the examination system in Indian higher education supported the criticism "that degrees and grades do not generally command credibility in any strata of Indian or world society, and the system produced a large number of unemployable men and women. Further, the whole process of higher education has become warped, disoriented and dysfunctional."[207]

Considerable attention was given to the erosion of values through-
out the country, particularly evidenced in schools, colleges and univer-
sities. Additional comments for strengthening the national unity
through the educational process were made. The paper noted the unity
of the nation which was forged through the struggle for Independence,
but with no long-term effort to maintain the cohesion. Education was
cited as major lapse in the area of promoting equity, equality and
national unity. Continuing in the social vein, national pride and self-
confidence needed re-building. The tradition of thousands of years and
the accomplishments of the heritage place India as an equal among
nations, yet the honor is little-known among her residents. The
educational process must be the vehicle to instill the values and pride
in a rich heritage.

Quoting former Prime Minister Nehru, Challenge stated that "(he)
. . . declared that if all is well with the universities, all would be
well with the Nation. Despite the key role assigned to higher
education, however, the developments in this field have been extremely
uneven."[208] Major accomplishments in the establishment of world-class
institutions and programs have been made, but "the general condition of
the universities and colleges is a matter of great concern to the
nation."[209]

The report stated that since Independence, the number of higher
education institutions had risen to 5000+, with wide variance in

qualitative standards and many programs of unacceptable academic

viability. In many institutions, the report noted, , the minimum

standards established by the University Grants Commission (UGC) have

not been met. While the UGC was empowered to deny grants to

substandard institutions, this rarely happened for many of the usual

political reasons. The document was highly critical of:

1. limited access, despite the expansion, in numbers, of universities and affiliate colleges;

2. the role and lack of accountability of vice-chancellors;

3. the insufficient number of effective working days in the academic year;

4. the poor quality of faculty training;

5. the poor quality of course instruction and the high number of students who pass the examinations with 'third class;'

6. the corruption in the examination system;

7. the lack of quality research done in the universities, most being accomplished in the private sector;

8. the lack of standardization in the system, in operation levels and in program content;

9. the refusal of the system to update the curriculum and methodology;

10. the overwhelming lack of extra-curricula programs and facilities;

11. the poor quality of the present physical facilities;

12. the lack of adequate resources; and

13. the interference of outside agencies into the running of the universities.[210]

Additionally, much emphasis was placed on the need for relevant technical education at the post-secondary level. Obsolete equipment; the emigration of qualified and trained personnel; inability of institutions to attract quality faculty; poor work ethos; lack of interaction between education and industry; lack of exchange of personnel or common contribution to projects; various types and levels of technical education institutions; and non-existent industrial contribution to technical education were problems over and above those stated for higher education.[211]

The critique examined teacher education and management education at all levels, finding that very few institutions had the capability to address the needs of both of these crucial instructional and operational sectors. Both have multi-faceted impacts on all segments of economic development, from agriculture to industry, and both are ignored within the traditional and non-traditional higher education system. Addressing the training needs, the report stated that the educational process must relate to the needs of the country.[212]

Challenge continued with an examination of general issues relating to the overall functioning of the education system in India. Among them are:

1. the discrimination of resources, with favor given to urban areas, despite the 75% rural population;

2. additional discrimination in locating 'quality' institutions in urban areas;

3. the disparity in regard to gender enrollment;

4. the disparity in scheduled caste and scheduled tribe enrollment;

5. the spending gap among state expenditures for education;

6. the lack of linkage between education and employment, despite the basic aim of education for development of human potential through employment;

7. the lack of relevant education, if any education at all, for a great number of the employed sector;

8. the great number of educated unemployed.[213]

Challenge delineated the components and restrictions concomitant with a major new policy endeavor. The problems of planning, the social/economic/political objectives, economic/technological/ legal/financial constraints, and realities of planning were addressed in terms of the comprehensive objectives attributed to education. Reference was made to the fact that India is now planning on a basis of strength of achievement and attainment of specific technological advances. In addition to the gains in agriculture, the extensive television network and space satellite operation could lend support to specific changes in educational modality.[214] Directly mentioned was the creation of the Indira Gandhi National Open University, designed to make a qualitative difference in the process of developing manpower and putting new educational technologies into more effective use.[215]

The concluding section of <u>Challenge</u> addressed the need for social relevance and diversification in higher education. The introductory paragraph recommended restructuring the current British system of higher education to one which utilizes modules and credits in a manner similar to the United States. It continued to propose that modules which related to the real world, as well as theoretical and humanistic modules, be required in a program of study. Additional priority inclusions were:

1. a moratorium on further expansion of the traditional pattern of higher education;

2. improvement of 'quality' in higher education to produce people who have the attributes of functional and social relevance, mental agility and physical dexterity, efficacy and reliability, confidence and capability to communicate effectively and exercise initiative, innovation and experimentation in new situations;

3. a complete restructuring of the evaluation process, preceded by a radical transformation of curriculum and instruction;

4. improve the calibre, work ethic and pedagogical skills of faculty;

5. significantly improve the management system of higher education, both in its operation and in its ability to effect positive impact on other institutions;

6. change the curriculum of teacher training institutions to include the relevant values and pedagogy; and

7. create a program of on-going education and re-training for teachers, concurrent with an appropriate evaluation system.[216]

Final comments urged India to depoliticize the educational system and to address international cooperation as a means of maintaining a position of world importance, sharing progress and promoting peace.[217]

With this intensive critique of education, the Central Government set upon the task of defining the Seventh Five Year Plan.

National Policy on Education - 1986

Publication of Challenge of Education - A Policy Perspective was followed by a country-wide debate on the various components of the proposed new policy. Examining and synthesizing the input resulted in the National Policy on Education - 1986 published in May, 1986.[218]

The socio-economic climate of India and the world were contributing factors in the development of the Policy. Referring to the wide variation, from urban technology to rural agriculture, of the national population and the rapid changes occurring worldwide, the Ministry formed a policy addressing all issues contained in the Challenge.

The philosophy upon which the Policy was developed supported the Seventh Plan and acknowledged that education is essential for the all-round material and spiritual development of a nation's citizens. It noted that education's role is acculturation, refining sensitivities

and perceptions that contribute to national cohesion, a scientific

temper and independence of mind and spirit, furthering the goals of

socialism, secularism and democracy. It continued to state that

education develops manpower . . . for the economy, develops the base

for research and development and is the ultimate guarantee of national

self-reliance. Education is a unique investment in the present and the

future.[219] Reiteration of the rationale of Challenge supported the

resulting policies and established in direct relation to the critique

of the earlier document.

The central focus of the Policy was the creation of a national

system of education, oriented toward not only unifying the systems from

state to state but consolidating the nation's unity. Highlights of

this proposed system include:

1. A guarantee of access to education of comparable quality to all, up to a certain level, irrespective of caste, creed, gender or geographic location;

2. A common system of 10+2+3 implemented throughout the nation, with divisions of an elementary system of 5 years of primary followed by 3 years of upper primary, followed by 2 years of high school;

3. Institution of a common curriculum core based on the history of the freedom movement, constitutional obligations and content to nurture national identity, to promote values of common heritage, egalitarianism, democracy and secularism, gender equality, protection of the environment, removal of social barriers, observance of the small family norm and development of scientific 'temper;'

4. A continuation of India's promotion of world peace and understanding;

5. Equality of access and conditions for success, not only in programmatic administration but in curriculum components;

6. Establishment of minimum levels of learning to include not only academic subjects but an understanding of the diverse cultures and social systems of the nation;

7. Establishment of a link language, accompanied by the translation of texts, dictionaries, glossaries and audio-visual materials to other languages;

8. The re-design of higher education to ensure mobility and access;

9. Promotion of research and development, science and technology; establishing network arrangements to efficiently and effectively provide resources for educational reform and national development;

10. Development of comprehensive programs to address the needs of life-long education, in all sectors of society, through distance education and the expansion of the open university;

11. Strengthening and integrating the planning of seven major educational organizations.[220]

The _Policy_ addressed a shift in educational responsibility from state liability to a shared accountability, . . .

> a 'meaningful partnership,' between the states and the national government, with the national government assuming the lead role to reinforce the national and integrative character of education, to maintain quality and standards; to study and monitor the educational requirements of the country as a whole in regard to manpower for development, . . . and to promote excellence at all levels of the educational pyramid throughout the country.[221]

Higher education was accorded a special role in the total development of the educational system. Acknowledging that philosophy, research and training promoted at this level affected all levels and elements of education, the _Policy_ advocated:

1. emphasis on consolidation of and expansion in facilities in the existing institutions;

2. immediate attention to prevent further system degradation;

3. development of autonomous colleges concurrent with decreasing the number of affiliated colleges, to encourage freedom and autonomy;

4. redesign of courses and programs to better meet the needs of the specializations, with emphasis on linguistic competence;

5. regulating admission to an institution's capacity;

6. introduction of audio-visual aids and electronic equipment;

7. development of science and technology curricula and material;

8. revision in teacher training and systematic assessment of faculty performance;

9. delinking of degrees from jobs, where appropriate, to eradicate the continuance of education for government service; and

10. a complete reform in the evaluation and examination process.

11. emphasis on interdisciplinary programs and research was to be established as a means of synthesizing knowledge.[222]

To augment opportunity, promote access and democratize education, the policy called for the establishment of the Indira Gandhi National Open University. It admonished IGNOU staff to proceed with programs cautiously, as the institution had been accorded much authority and responsibility. The Policy called for IGNOU to be chartered by the Legislature and be one of six higher education institutions accorded autonomy and authority to operate on a national basis.[223]

According to the Policy, a nationwide program of Adult Education was to be expanded, especially in continuing education in skill areas.
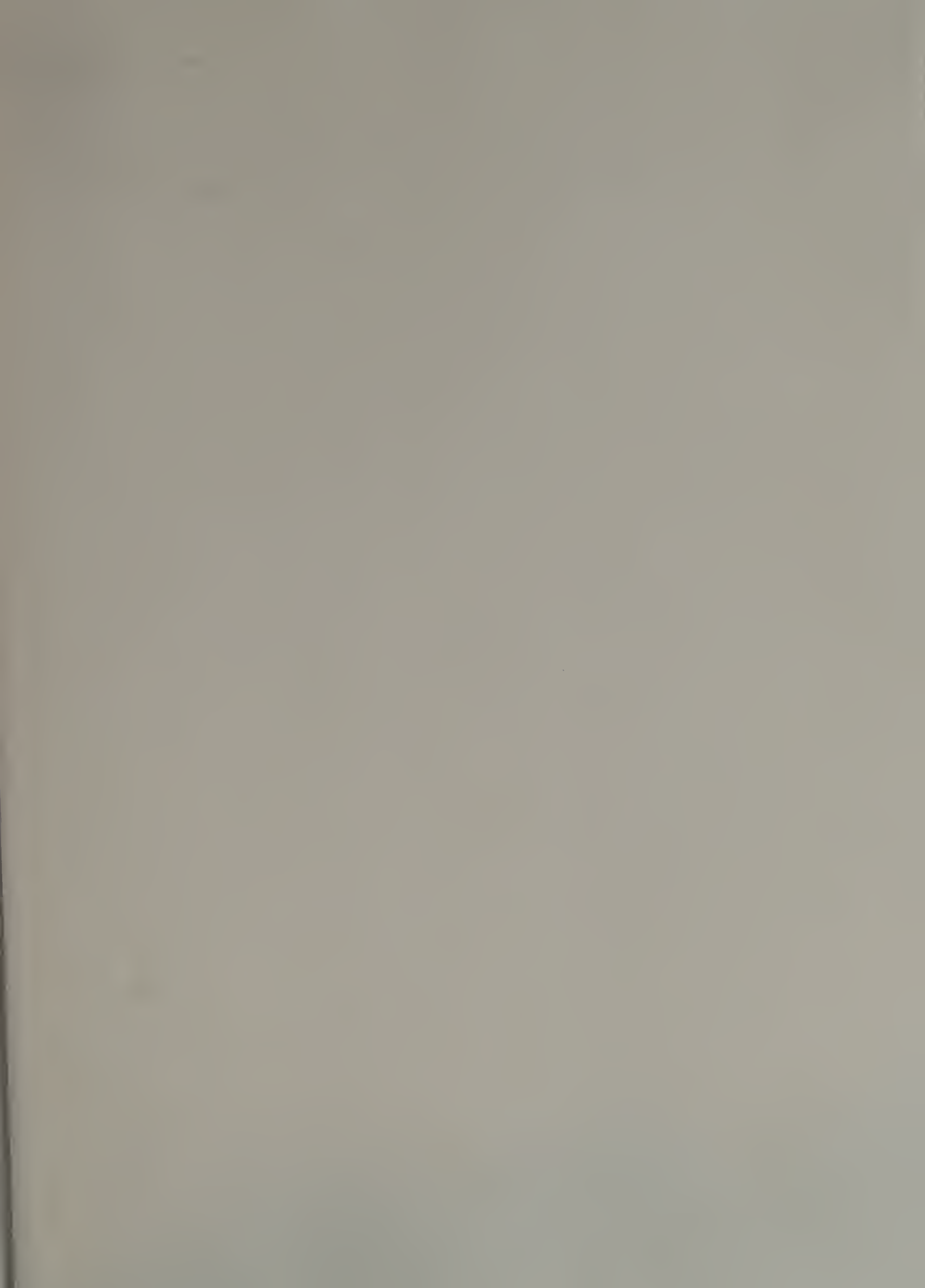
Content related to agricultural development and population control, alleviation of poverty, women's equality and national unity were to be components. A significant pledge to eradicate illiteracy through a variety of programs, methodology, use of media, distance education and inclusion of volunteers was addressed.

Special topics such as work experience at all levels of education, delinking degrees from jobs, education for women's equity through many policy issues and programs, education of scheduled castes with many accompanying incentives and provisions, education for the unique needs and preservation of culture of the scheduled tribes, provisions for backward sections of society, minorities, and handicapped were all referred to in the Policy.

The Policy document continued to denote needs in professional development, management, technical education, administration and funding, faculty and teacher issues. A unique section defined a management plan for implementation of the Policy and ensuring its success. Continued five-year reviews of progress were mandated.

National Policy on Education 1986 - Programme of Action

The final document in reform of education is the Programme of Action, published in November 1986. A publication of 200 pages, it

outlines priorities in 24 segments of education and accompanies each
priority with a plan of implementation. Funding, of necessity, is not
included, for the planners note that the intent was exceptionally
broad and required much reconstruction. Different agencies would have
to establish their own sequence of implementation, depending on many
conditions. They suggest that

> implementation of the <u>National Policy on Education</u> begin now -
> wherever possible, in whichever way possible. . . Time is of
> essence, and unless we act now, we stand in the danger of once
> again missing the opportunity of educational reform, so critical
> not only for the development of our nation, but for our very
> survival.[224]

Ten priorities for higher education are established in the
<u>Programme of Action</u>: consolidation and expansion of colleges and
universities; development of autonomous colleges; complete redesign of
courses; teacher training; university research; efficiency improvement,
creation of machinery for co-ordinated development; creation of a
national apex body; accreditation and assessment of higher education
institutions; and student and faculty mobility.

<u>Consolidation and expansion</u> of colleges and universities is
identified as the the initial task, and is noted with a disclaimer that
"it will not be possible to eliminate all the accumulated deficiencies
immediately."[225] The Programme notes that the 149 universities and
5000+ colleges present an overwhelming problem in numbers and that no
new institutions can be created without careful planning and assurance

of adequate physical plant. For the existing institutions, a plan was developed to provide funding for courses in order that they may meet the norms for quality established by the UGC and provide a plan for equipping institutions on a phased-in basis. Guidelines for granting new college affiliations include minimum standards in physical plant, academic standards and equipment, including technological teaching aids. The mandate for coordination and consolidation is given to the State Councils of Higher Education.

Development of autonomous colleges is the second priority to be implemented with a goal of 500 to be reached by the end of the Seventh Plan. Mandates to initiate the requisite legal action and provide assistance, especially in remote areas, are included. This priority is to be fully funded by the Central Government for the first five years.

Complete redesign of courses involves all segments of higher education. The action plan indicates that programs should be redesigned to encompass course credit, inter-institutional mobility, and credit accumulation in a wide variety of academic disciplines. Interdisciplinary programming was stressed. The standards and guidelines for this priority are to be set by the UGC. Programs are to be linked with development grants.

The priority of teacher training addresses the lack of status accorded to teachers, the inability to utilize professional

development, the lack of initiative for innovation and creativity, and poor motivation. Thus, new programs to impart pedagogy, methodology, and educational psychology are to be added to teacher training courses. Coordination of existing institutions is ordered to bring colleges together to share the task. Refresher courses every five years and participation in seminars, symposia and additional professional development programs is stressed.

University research programs are to achieve coordination with the non-university sector and among themselves, to attain maximum utilization of resources and reduce duplication. Modification of curricula and methodologies to encourage problem solving, creativity and relevance is proposed. The Programme calls for a National Research Foundation to be established as a coordinating agency.

The priority of efficiency improvement for the universities calls equipping every university with a computer to manage records and accounts. Establishing a national computer network to enable sharing of library resources, data banks, computation resources and information is proposed to enhance the interaction between academicians and researchers.

Creation of machinery for co-ordinated development is proposed to coordinate the planning of higher education. State councils of higher education, statutory bodies with administration structures established

by the UGC, would serve as the primary vehicles. Similar structures in all states would create a comprehensive and unitized planning mechanism in the nation and enable the standardization of programs, funding, and monitoring for higher education.

The eighth priority in the Programme called for the establishment of a <u>national apex body</u> to deal with national policy, integrate planning, reinforce programs of post-graduate education and promote interdisciplinary research. The apex body is charged with the coordination of medical, accountancy, legal, agricultural, etc. agency activities. It is also charged with developing policies oriented toward interagency cooperation.

<u>Accreditation and assessment</u>, while in infancy planning stages, is proposed as a means of establishing and maintaining quality among higher education institutions. Self-assessment mechanisms are to be created as a prelude to external assessment and accreditation of colleges and universities. Establishment of an autonomous Accreditation and Assessment Council is recommended.

<u>Mobility</u>, for students and for faculty is the final priority included in the <u>Programme for Action</u>. Equal access for all students, ensuring an 'all-India' character of institutions, and strengthening of faculty are given as important reasons for creating programs of mobility. It is recognized that mobility is now impossible for both

students and faculty, and is contingent upon the redesign of courses. The admission and provision of scholarships for academic merit and not domicile or nativity is suggested as a method to enhance student mobility.[226]

A separate section on <u>Evaluation Process and Examination Reforms</u> proposes that examinations be continuous throughout the higher education process, rather than at the culmination, with student performance indicated by letter grade and overall performance noted in a cumulative grade point average. This is predicated by course design reform to include modularization. Further recommendations suggest the decentralization of examinations and a complete overhaul of the administration of examinations to stress integrity among students and exam administrators. New laws relating to examination corruption are to be enacted with stiff and "unbailable" consequences. Basic exam "innovations" to prevent copying and cheating on examinations are indicated.

A continuous research and development agency to monitor and coordinate evaluation methodology and procedure is proposed, either to be a component of the Association of Indian Universities or an independent body. A National Testing Service is the final recommendation.[227]

Summary and Trends of Reform Recommendations

Table 2 summarizes the major issues and proposed activities of

Challenge and National Policy on Education, 1986, the proposed

activities of Programme of Action and the goals of the Seventh Plan.

Themes of access and mobility, consolidation of institutions, expansion

of existing facilities, curriculum revision, examination reform and

revision of faculty training are common to all documents through the

Programme of Action. The three education publications indicate a

concerted effort to coordinate problems, policy and programs. They all

appear to be designed to meet the national development goals in the

Seventh Plan.

Comparing the themes of 1986 with the trends of 1968, as gleaned

froom the Radhakrishnan Commission, the Kothari Commission and the

National Policy on Education, 1968, recurrent topics emerge.

Restructuring the educational system to meet national development goals

is the most prominent theme. Access continues as a prominent theme

with specific suggestions ranging from developing additional programs

and institutions to meet demand to limiting individual institutional

admissions according to capacity. The demand for relevant education

occurs in both periods. Issues of examination reform corresponding

with curriculum revision persist.

Table 2

1984-1986 Educational Reform Recommendations

Issues, Challenge of Education

1. Limited access opportunity;
2. Lack of relevant social, economic and employment education;
3. Lack of link between education and employment;
4. Lack of standardized system;
5. Inadequate and unequal distribution of resources;
6. Poor quality of faculty training;
7. Poor quality of instruction;
8. Lack of quality research;
9. Corruption in the examination system;
10. Refusal to update curriculum and methodology;
11. Poor condition of physical facilities.

Recommendations, National Policy on Education, 1986,

1. Admission according to institutional capacity;
2. Curriculum design to meet the needs of specializations, specifically science and technology curriculum development;
3. Utilization of audio-visual and electronic equipment in administration and instruction;
4. Development of programs for lifelong education, especially through the use of distance education and the open universities;
5. Redesign of higher education to assure access and mobility;
6. Promotion of research and development, especially in science and technology;
7. Consolidation of institutions and expansion of existing facilities;
8. Revision of teacher and faculty training, including implementation of an evaluation system;
9. Complete revision of the examination system;
10. Development of autonomous colleges;
11. Standardization of the system.

Activities, Programme of Action

1. Development of access and mobility strategies;
2. Creation of an assessment and accreditation system;
3. Development of an apex body to coordinate policy, planning and implementation of higher education, to include the various professional organizations;
4. Complete redesign of courses, including strategies for credit accumulation and redesigned methodology;
5. Creation of an evaluation process and examination reform, to be coordinated with methodology and include assessment of competencies;
6. Consolidation of institutions and expansion of existing facilities;
7. Establishment of autonomous colleges;
8. Complete revision of teacher and faculty training programs;
9. Strengthen university research programs;
10. Develop efficient methods of university management.

Goals, Seventh Plan

National Goals:

1. Self-sustenance by the year 2000;
2. Elimination of poverty;
3. Near-full employment;
4. Satisfaction of basic needs for the total population;
5. Attainment of universal elementary education;
6. Access to health facilities for the total population.

System-wide Education Priority:

1. Redesign the educational system to prepare the country to meet the challenge of the next century.

University/College Goals:

1. Consolidate institutions;
2. Expand existing facilities;
3. Develop relevant programming to meet national development goals, with emphasis on applied knowledge and skills;
4. Develop the open university to promote low-cost educational programming which promotes optimum use of resources and meets national development goals, linking business and industry with education;
5. Restructure the traditional system to include applied principles, flexible scheduling and mobility;
6. Provide programs for lifelong and continuing education;
7. Promote national unity.

SOURCE: Summarized from A. Biswas & J. C. Aggarwal. Education in India. (New Delhi: Arya Book Depot, f 1972), pps. 49-53, 99-103, 147-154; Government of India. Indira Gandhi National Open University Project Report. (New Delhi: Educational Consultants Limited, 1985), pps. 52-53; Government of India. National Policy of Education, 1986. (New Delhi: Ministry of Human Resource Development, 1986), pps. 1-15; Government of India. National Policy on Education, 1986: Programme of Action. (New Delhi: Ministry of Human Resource Development, 1986), pps. 38-48; Government of India. Seventh Five Year Plan, Volume II: Sectoral Programmes of Development. (New Delhi: Government of India, Planning Commisstion, October, 1985), p. 259; F. E. Keay & Sukumar Mitra. A History of Education in India, 5th ed. (Calcutta: Oxford University Press, 1978), pps. 236-245; D. S. N. Mukerji. History of Education in India (Modern Period). (Baroda: Acharya Book Depot, 1961), pps. 250-261.

While some progress has been made in the areas of science and technology, reports and interviews suggest that substantive progress toward educational reform has yet to be attained. It should be noted that much of the progress in science and technology has been made in the private sector, generally through business and industry. Thus, the commissioned reports and action programs of 1984-1986 are perhaps as pertinent as the National Policy on Education, 1968, which was not enacted.

The 1984-1986 documents contain additional provisions for distance education, lifelong and continuing education, and national unity concepts. These issues, in particular, pertain to the creation of IGNOU.

The final chapter in the Programme of Action outlines a management plan for education. It fully recognizes the lack of a linkage between education and manpower development and suggests establishing mechanisms for assessing development needs, concomitant educational and training needs, and modifying/creating programs to meet those needs.[228]

To accomplish many of the 1986 objectives, the authors of the Programme envisioned the need for a new institution of higher education - one which was not mired in the rigid system; one which was not enmeshed in national, state and education politics; one which was willing to innovate, that had a fresh vision. The consensus was that

existing institutions had too many problems to undertake the radical change needed, and the time required for any existing institution to obtain its internal approval for change was unacceptable. Thus, the Programme of Action called for the creation of an entirely new and different institution, the Indira Gandhi National Open University. IGNOU was a small part of the larger agenda, but one with hope because it was perceived as feasible.

According to the Programme, the Indira Gandhi National Open University is to be an autonomous university, funded directly by Parliament and responsible only to Parliament. Its goals are to develop educational programs and degrees relevant to Seventh Plan needs, utilizing media and non-traditional scheduling. It is to employ a cumulative credit course system. It is to coordinate open university education throughout India, expanding to bring higher education to all parts of the nation over time.. It is to be an independent institution, with national authority and a heavy challenge.

Precedents to India's Open University

The mandate to initiate an open university in India was not without precedent, though nothing of the scope of a national open university existed. Extensive planning based on research was

undertaken, resulting in legislative authorization for a dynamic,

innovative institution, the Indira Gandhi National Open University.

Initial Planning for an Open University

During the 1970 Delhi Seminar honoring International Education

Year, a national open university was proposed. The nation was in the

midst of controversy over higher education and correspondence colleges.

This suggestion was made as a possible solution to unifying non-

traditional education programs in the nation.

In 1971, the Union Minister of Education, Shri Hassan, proposed

expanding higher educational opportunities in response to growing

demand, and suggested that the British Open University might be a model

for India. Hassan sent the Director General of All-India Radio and

Rais Ahmed, Vice-chair of the UGC, to England on a fact-finding

mission. Following their return, they submitted a report proposing an

open university in India. The report documented the fiscal and human

resources required for implementation of an open university in India.

As a result of their report, Prime Minister Indira Gandhi appoin-

ted a Working Group in 1972 to survey higher education in the nation.

Her mandate was to propose revisions which would meet citizen demand

and national goals. The Committee was chaired by Mr. G. Parthasarathi,

then Vice-chancellor of Jawaharlal Nehru University. Mr. Parthasarathi

had visited the British Open University in 1969. The Committee

reported that:

> . . . where the expansion of enrollments in higher education
> continue at a terrific pace and where available resources in terms
> of men and money are limited, the obvious solution, if proper
> standards are to be maintained and the demand for higher education
> for different sections of the people is to be met, is to adopt the
> Open University system with its provision of higher education on a
> part-time or own-time basis. The Group, therefore, recommends
> that the Government of India establish, as early as possible, an
> Open University by an Act of Parliament. It should have jurisdic-
> tion over the entire country so that any student, even in the
> remotest corner of the country can have access to its instruction
> and degrees.[229]

The Parthasarthi Report, published in 1975, suggested that an open

university be established within the context of the higher education

system and the economy in India. The report states that an open

university could have major influence on the traditional education

system and could cause it to improve its quality. The report continues

to suggest a phased open university implementation catering to the

'normal' open university population and to teachers who need refresher

courses. Courses of study, methodology, access and financing were

addressed. An extended consultation and planning process was

recommended prior to establishing an open university.[230]

Though this report was only nine pages in length, it contained all

of the crucial topics essential for the initiation of an open

university. Professor Reddy indicates that a draft bill, based on the

Parthasarthi Report, proposing an open university was written. Prof. Nurul Husan attempted to introduce open university legislation in 1976.[231] However, the proposal remained dormant because education was a state responsibility. In order for an institution to have national jurisdiction, seven states had to ratify the proposal. Mrs. Gandhi's government was not stable at this time. The proposal for a national open university was not put to a state vote, as opposition to any central government initiative was strong. Subsequently, Mrs. Gandhi's government fell and the proposal was shelved.[232]

In 1976, education became a concurrent subject. Educational responsibility shifted from state control to a shared responsibility between the central government and the state, with the central government assuming the coordination role. The means to implement a national institution was now in place and the concept of a national open university was reconsidered.

In 1978, Prof. Ram Reddy visited the British Open University, writing yet another report on how a national open university could be established in India. While the Union Education Minister supported the proposal, the Prime Minister's Cabinet did not accept the idea. After a year of effort, the proposal was abandoned by the Union Government.

The Pilot Project - Andhra Pradesh Open University

Prof. Reddy did not give up his quest, however. In 1980, he proposed an open university as part of Osmania University, the Andhra Pradesh State institution. At this time, Prof. Reddy was Vice-Chancellor of Osmania University and in a position establish his dream, if on a modified scale. The Executive Council of Osmania University deliberated for two years, finally approving the concept of an open university as an autonomous unit within Osmania University and approving a dynamic administration for the new institution. Within a short time, the Andhra Pradesh government changed, and the Education Minister became the Congress Chief. He appointed an open university committee with Ram Reddy as chair. They produced a report within two months and a bill was introduced in the Andhra Pradesh Parliament. The bill was approved in record time, establishing the Andhra Pradesh Open University in 1982 and appointing Ram Reddy as its first Vice-Chancellor. Opponents included the minority government and academics who doubted the entire concept of this type of education. However, pressure from employers and students for expansion of higher education prevailed.

Within one month of Reddy's appointment as Vice-Chancellor of the Andhra Pradesh Open University, the supportive government fell. The opposing new government examined the open university with suspicion, as the new Chief Minister was not convinced that an open university was

viable. However, a campaign was launched to convince the Chief
Minister, who had been a movie actor. Through the use of audio and
visual components, the 'actor' was re-awakened in the Chief Minister
and he approved the new institution. (Today this Chief Minister is the
most important supporter of open universities in all of India.)

The Andhra Pradesh Open University functions in much the same
manner as the British Open University. Its courses are taught through
a variety of media, with course modules and instruction in regional
languages. The Andhra Pradesh Open University has become a most
popular higher education institution, enrolling 28,000 students by
1985,[233] and is the domestic prototype for the national open
university.

As a result of the Andhra Pradesh success, the State Governments
of West Bengal, Maharashtra, Kerala, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Madhya
Pradesh and Bihar undertook studies investigating the viability of
creating open universities within their state institutions.[234] The
1984 enrollment in state open universities was 28,000.[235] (n.b. The
statistics on the Andhra Pradesh Open University enrollment and the
overall enrollment appear to be conflicting.)

National Initiatives

Concurrent to the Osmania University Executive Council's investigation, the concept of a national open university was re-introduced in Delhi, when Mrs. Gandhi's government returned to power in 1981. In 1982 Dr. (Mrs.) Madhuri Shah, UGC Chair, was appointed Chair of the Committee to Enquire into the Working of Central Universities. This Committee again recommended the immediate creation of a national open university.

During 1983 and 1984, the open university concept was envisioned as an inexpensive way of expanding higher education. The Andhra Pradesh Minister of Education, Narishma Rao, was brought to the Union Ministry of Education. He proposed an open university for the nation as a means of off-setting the pressured and crumbling traditional system. He referred to the success of the Andhra Pradesh Open University and suggested that the concept be nationalized.

However, the central government officials could not visualize an open university, either in structure or operation. Their view was limited to imagining it as an extension of correspondence colleges. They also noted that young students were not mature enough to handle open university instruction and needed the human contact of a teacher. The central government also cited the multitude of languages in India as a major difficulty.

In October, 1984, Mrs. Gandhi was assassinated, throwing the nation into turmoil.

Conclusion

After many years of reports and reform planning, India finally has coordinated efforts of educational planning and national development into a comprehensive plan. Over several decades, many directives were issued, most of them reiterations of prior reports. The most dramatic alteration of the recent endeavor is the holistic nature of planning, the integration of economic, social and educational objectives into a comprehensive plan for national development. Orienting higher education toward the future needs of the nation - in economic and human resources - is the central thrust.

The one new initiative to be implemented and funded is the Indira Gandhi National Open University. Its charge is to undertake many of the goals of Programme of Action, circumventing the existing system's problems by creating a new autonomous institution of higher education. The Indira Gandhi National Open University has come into existence with a weighty challenge.

Chapter Seven will begin with the initial proposal for an open university and will continue with the planning and educational research

conducted prior to legislative action on its creation. The third section will present the specifics of the legislative bills presented to Parliament. The chapter will conclude with implementation of the Indira Gandhi National Open University to date.

THE INDIRA GANDHI NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY, 1987

Initial Research and Proposal

At the national level, the open university concept did not progress beyond discussion until 5 January 1985. During Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi's first address to the nation, the open university was included among his policy statements, reviving again the creation of a national, open access/open learning institution. Rajiv acknowledged that the education system of the nation had to be restructured if national development goals were to be met. Objectives in educational progress had not been attained and were the root of employment problems. The open university was to address these issues.

Some prominent Indians feel that the open university was a monument to Gandhi's mother and her commitment to education. Others comment that it was an a political vehicle to promote national unity following the crisis. Still other comments refer to its being response to frustration with a proliferation of unaddressed reports and thoughts that IGNOU would be positively received by those who desired access to higher education and training. One comment referred to IGNOU as being

a method to ensconce the new government. Nonetheless, IGNOU was announced with top-level support and the national government proceeded to bring it to reality.

In March 1985, the Ministry of Education authorized the writing of a comprehensive report on open university feasibility and awarded the contract to Educational Consultants (India) Ltd. (Ed. CIL.). The first section of the research report discussed open universities worldwide and reviewed objectives and goals, systems, administration, courses and functioning of open universities. The study also included a survey conducted in selected Indian cities of program preferences, course preferences, use of media, fee suggestions and other supportive information on which to base a course of action for the IGNOU. The final section of the report outlined a proposed national open university for India.

Concurrently, the Ministry of Education appointed Prof. G. Ram Reddy as Officer on Special Duty for a two-year period to assist with the research on the open university. Ed.CIL. requested that Prof. Reddy be the chief consultant for their report. The request was authorized and Prof. Reddy, the open university expert in India, became the facilitator for the nation's feasibility study to establish an open university.

The Ed.CIL. study surveyed 49 finance, industrial, education, agricultural, transportation and commercial institutions, public and private, and 111 households in three cities - Delhi (north), Madras (south) and Bhubaneshwar (east). Institutions were selected for their relatively large employment base, their need for on-going education for employees, and their employees' preferences for education. Household respondents were selected by choosing every 5th, 7th or 10th home in each geographic quadrant of the cities until the desired sample number was reached. Some institutions were interviewed more than one time.[236]

The following summarizes the institutional responses (N=49):

1. a desire to offer diploma programs of six to twelve months (83.8%);

2. a strong desire to have the IGNOU offer degree programs (56.6%), averaging 24 months;

3. a preference for offering certificate courses (46.9%) with duration ranging from three to nine months;

4. certificate course preferences of computer programming (37.3%), secretarial practice (27.5%), foreign languages and marketing management (21.5% each), accountancy (15.7%), agriculture (13.7%), operational research and tourism (9.8% each) and various other scattered programs;

5. diploma preferences of computer programming (48.2%), business management (41.0%), marketing management and engineering (33.7% each), accountancy (13.3%), personnel management (9.6%), and other programs;

6. degree preference of business administration (51.4%), computer science (29.7% BA & 23.4% BCom), engineering (23.4%), education (7.8%), accountancy and law (6.3% each);

7. a preference for contact programs to be held in June (34.5%) followed by December (23.0%);

8. a preference for evening radio time (61.0%), followed by morning transmission (55.8%);

9. a preference for evening television time (59.3%) followed by night broadcasting (50.4%);

10. an overall preference for television (58.4%) over radio;

11. and a suggested fee scale for all program offerings.

A summary of household responses included (N=111):

1. a desire to have IGNOU offer diploma courses ranging from nine to 24 months' duration (84.3%);

2. a desire to have IGNOU offer degree programs (56.6%) of 36 months' duration (with the range from nine to 48 months);

3. a desire for certificate programs (78.3%) of six to nine months;

4. certificate course preference in computer programming (42.5%), marketing management (24.1%), tailoring (19.5%). secretarial practice and business management (18.4% each), foreign languages (17.2%), electrician (16.1%), carpentry and accountancy (11.5% each), radio & television/banking law/painting (5.7% each);

5. diploma course preference in computer programming (63.1%), business management (39.3%), engineering (38.0%), marketing management (23.8%), secretarial practice/hotel management/ catering (10.7% each), and other scattered responses;

6. degree course preference in BA (50.0%), BCom (22.6%), business administration (37.1%), engineering (17.7%), computer science/marketing management and BSc (14.5% each) agriculture (12.9%), accountancy/nursing/hotel management (9.7%) and other responses;

7. preference for contact programs to be held in December (28.8%) followed by January (25.2%) and June (24.3%);

8. desired radio transmission in the morning (81.0%) followed by evening (69.4%);

9. desired television broadcasting in the night (74.8%) followed by evening (73.9%);

10. preference of television (72.0%) over radio broadcasting;

11. a suggestion of fees charged for all programs.[237]

Additional topics in the survey noted a desire for post-graduate diplomas and degrees, generally in the business, computer science and liberal arts disciplines. Research was the final academic topic. Respondents indicated the need for research in several business areas, computer science, medicine, electronics and agriculture. Both post-graduate and research data included a reference to defense studies.

Specific item-by-item statistics were included in the report, which provided the planning commissioners an indication of the desired programs, presentation format and fee structure delineated by target population and geographical area.

Based on the comprehensive review of the academic programs and operations of seventeen national open universities and the domestic research data, Ed. CIL. prepared a Project Report on the IGNOU. The complete report was presented to Anand Sarup, Secretary, Ministry of Education, in September 1985, several weeks after the introduction of the open university legislation in Parliament. Sarup accepted the report and utilized its contents as the planning document for the open university.

Union Government Approval of the Indira Gandhi National Open University

During the late summer of 1985, Minister Sarup travelled to Thailand for a conference and went to the Thai Open University. During his visit, he viewed a videotape on distance education prepared by the Thai Open University which described the philosophy, administration and operation of their open university. Sarup brought a copy of this videotape to India, intending to utilize it to convince others of an open university's viability. The opportunity to make use of this videotape presented itself shortly, and in a manner that Sarup had not envisioned.

Prior to introducing a bill to Parliament, Sarup made a presentation on the open university to the Prime Minister's Cabinet. Sarup and others were not sure that the Cabinet could envision an open university in any dimension. While they recognized the need to restructure education and improve access, the Cabinet members were not familiar with innovations in education. Sarup brilliantly conceived of using the very medium of open university, the Thai videotape, to succinctly introduce the open university to the Cabinet. This was the first time that a videotape had been shown to the Cabinet. The result was a very positive reaction and total support from the Cabinet for the open university bill.

On 5 August 1985, K. C. Pant, the Minister of Human Resource Development, introduced the Indira Gandhi National Open University Bill in the Rajya Sabha. The five-hour debate was lively, with support well documented.

During the debate M. S. Gurupadaswamy (Karnataka) provided the rationale for an open university, linking it with development goals:

> I believe that social change and economic development and moral regeneration can only be brought about by education and by appropriate education. But this priority has been overlooked by the planners and administrators for these thirty years. If you look at the world and if you look at the developing society, you will find that there is an inextricable link between education and development. Where education enjoys top priority, where manpower development is given topmost importance, there you find socio-economic changes taking place rapidly.[238]

This philosophy was supported by subsequent speakers. Prof.(Mrs.) Asima Chatterjee suggested that the open university remain flexible to meet the manpower requirements of overall national development.[239] Dr. Mohd Hashim Kidwai stated that the open university's main objective was to strengthen and develop courses related to the needs of employment and necessary for building the economy of the country.[240] Vithalrao Madhavrao Jadhav supported this objective by stating that the university shall endeavor . . ." to play a positive role in the development of the country . . ." and take special measures to promote and advance the culture of the people and the development of the human resources of India.[241]

Not all comments were positive. Many challenges were forthcoming by opposition parties. A common misconception on the part of several legislators was that an open university was dependent on television in order to function. These individuals thought that an open university would not be a good idea, as television is unavailable to many areas of the nation. Supporters argued that the open university was not dependent on television. A second objection concerned the limited socialization aspect of individualized study. Parliament debates also included comments on the book-learning aspect, and several legislators were unable to envision a link between the proposed methodology and people and the environment.

The Opposition recommended that the bill be referred to a Select Committee for further investigation. V. Gopalswamy, mentioning the failure of Jawaharlal Nehru University to fulfill its promise, the constraints of broadcast time, the lack of infrastructure for the open university, and power crises in most of the states, suggested that the legislation be referred to a by the Select Committee for investigation.[242] S. W. Dhabe supported this view.

Shri Pant refused to accept referral to committee and received much support for his action from Parliamentary members. Several M.P.'s indicated that the Andhra Pradesh open university had shown that the concept was viable, that the background research had been completed, that a pilot project had demonstrated success, and that delaying the

commencement of an open university was delaying much-needed,relevant higher education.

The debate brought out many other issues. It was recognized that the open university's success would depend on the quality of its courses. Thus, it was advised that the open university enlist the assistance of top scholars and teachers to prepare material. Funding for programs was seen as the basis for maintaining the quality, with more than one M.P. suggesting that perhaps the funding ought to be increased. Program and curriculum coordination among higher educational agencies and organizations was deemed crucial if the institution was to attain its goals of revision in other segments of higher education. Utilization of existing facilities, on campuses and in other agencies, was stressed as a means of economy.

Many M.P.'s objected to the radical and lean administrative structure proposed for the open university. The proposed administrative structure referred to eliminating many redundant positions found in the traditional university. Though specifics were not stated, an efficient administrative organization was proposed. Administrative autonomy was guaranteed. While the complete governance structure had not been determined, Pant defended the innovative aspect of administration as necessary to the functioning of the non-traditional institution. He argued that the administrative pattern would emerge naturally over the next few years of operation. He also

noted that the bill provided for an annual report to Parliament on open university progress. Parliament was the supervising body for the open university and the M.P.'s would be apprised of both governance structure and operation. The Parliament would have an opportunity to view and critique its progress.[243]

After the extensive debate and a vote on amendments proposed by the opposition, the Indira Gandhi National Open University Bill passed the Rajya Sabha intact. No changes were made in the presented legislation, and on 5 August 1985, exactly eight months after it had been mentioned by Rajiv Gandhi, the Open University Bill was sent to the Lok Sabha for consideration.

Three weeks later, on 26 August 1985, the Indira Gandhi National Open University Bill was presented by K. C. Pant to the Lok Sabha, the Lower House or People's Assembly of Parliament. The debate, more pragmatic than the philosophical discussion in the Rajya Sabha, extended for 6 1/2 hours. Pant presented the goals and objectives of the Bill, stressing the need for quality, for relevance and for national integrity. The immediate response from Saifuddin Chowdhary was to propose delaying action, referring the bill to a Select Committee, with a report due in the next session of Parliament.[244] Anand Gajpathi Raju responded with a well-documented statement on the success of the Andhra Pradesh University and its role in establishing a precedent in India for an open university.[245] Debate on the total bill

continued, and when the Chowdhary amendment was put to a vote, it was defeated.[246]

The Lok Sabha discussed the relationship of the open university to correspondence education and the lack of status which correspondence degrees carried in the nation. Further items which were mentioned included the need for quality, the need for quality instructors for materials development and tutoring, the location and number of study centers, the need for provision and maintenance of equipment, the flexible course modularization and credit accumulation, agency and correspondence college coordination, and the need for adequate funds. Challenges to the governance system were again presented. K. C. Pant was comprehensive and convincing in his rebuttal. All of the opposition's amendments were quickly defeated and the Bill passed the Lok Sabha.[247] On 20 September 1985 the Indira Gandhi National Open University became a reality.

The timing of this bill was crucial. The Parliament Consultance Commission for Education was concluding its work, having produced the various educational reform documents. The Commission was about to disband. Prof. Reddy's tenure on Special Assignment had terminated. If the bill had not passed during this session of Parliament, the open university recommendation most probably would have been relegated to the collection of unheeded reports.

Sources of Opposition

At the time of its establishment, several factions opposed its creation. Correspondence colleges saw the open university as a threat to their existence, citing specific issues in their criticisms. One major correspondence college voiced strong opposition to the open university. It cited its own lack of consultation in the development of the new institution and viewed it as a threat to its own existence. This college claimed that it was not opposed to competition, but argued that the IGNOU design, cumulative credit structure, transfer opportunities and relevancy of open university education threatened its future survival. The college projected the open university's appeal to student's needs and demands as the greatest danger to its own existence.

Correspondence college representatives also complained that the IGNOU would be autonomous and much better financed than the correspondence colleges, both true statements. The IGNOU had national authority, autonomy and much funding. It also had a vice-chancellor who had experience with distance education methods. The IGNOU could hire its own staff and train them in distance education methodology. A mandate for IGNOU was to develop relevant education which was demanded by the public. The open university does not have any of the fiscal constraints that pertain to a component correspondence college. The IGNOU was given funds for equipment, which correspondence colleges are

unable to obtain. The role of the UGC in funding, in course approval and in the operation of correspondence colleges inhibits their progress.

It was clear that the direct funding of IGNOU was a sensitive issue for the correspondence colleges. These colleges view IGNOU as receiving large amounts of funding and resources, and they are jealous and resentful. If the IGNOU succeeds, they feel they will either be forced to cooperate and join IGNOU or close their operations.

Correspondence colleges had no national network to share programs and resources. This lack of network gave them no power base from which to oppose the creation of a national open university. The correspondence colleges feared loss of enrollment if the open university succeeded. Their fear was well founded.

Educational traditionalists have also opposed the new university. The IGNOU is so different from what exists that it is perceived as a threat to the current system.

Another group opposing the open university was the Communist-based government of West Bengal. The objection was more political than educational. The West Bengal government has a long history of opposing Union Government initiatives, on principle. Additionally, West Bengal had a monopoly on its statewide education, and the open university

disrupted their control. The West Bengal government thought that an
open university could be an instrument to control national ideology.
They also felt that an open university was second-class education,
substandard to traditional university education. This attitude arose
from their expertise with correspondence education and their inability
to envision how an open university could be different from
correspondence education.

The Communist parties in India have opposed almost everything that
the Congress (I) Party (majority party) proposes, including the IGNOU.
The Communist Parties view themselves as parties of the people. One
would expect that the Communist Parties and the Communist-ruled states
would back a venture that addressed the needs of the masses. Yet these
are the groups that initially provided the greatest opposition and
refrained from 'joining the movement.'

Opposition to IGNOU was also argued on social grounds. Opponents
asked what would happen when everyone has access to higher education.
They argued that the elite status symbol of university degree would be
eroded and the Brahmin tradition gone.

Additional sectors and states objected to the centralization of
the IGNOU role. It was felt that it abridged states' rights in
education, and some refused to cooperate in any manner.

IGNOU Becomes a Reality

On 19 November 1985 the foundation stone was laid and inauguration ceremonies were held for the open university. To celebrate the commencement of the IGNOU, a special seminar, International Seminar of Distance Education: Experience of Open Universities, was held at the India International Centre, New Delhi, from 20-22 November. Some 60 government and academic people attended the three-day event.

The inaugural address was presented by K. C. Pant, who had introduced the IGNOU Bill to both houses of Parliament. The key-note Address was given by Dr. (Mrs.) Madhuri Shah, Chair, UGC, who had been a proponent of an open university for India for many years.

Open universities in ten nations outside India attended the seminar, with each nation contributing to the presentations and discussion. The seminar forum offered India's planners an opportunity to examine the research report from Ed.Cil., consolidate the gathered information from various overseas visits to open universities, and present their plans to those who had instituted open universities on a national scale.

IGNOU Purpose, Goals and Objectives

The role assigned to the IGNOU is to establish its own programming and at the same time coordinate open university and correspondence education throughout the nation, determining standards and imposing statutes for state open university development. Additionally, a network of open university courses is to be developed, allowing for the sharing of resources and the mobility of students and faculty. All other open universities are commanded to establish their programs in coordination with the IGNOU, eliminating duplication where possible and sharing resources and production to the benefit of the nation.[248] The intent is to establish an open university system so that everything is available to all institutions and individuals.

In line with the stated purpose, the objectives of the IGNOU encompass more societal and economic goals than any other national open institution. The IGNOU shall:

1. strengthen and diversify the degree, certificate and diploma courses related to the needs of employment and necessary for building the economy of the country on the basis of its natural and human resources;

2. provide access to higher education for large segments of the population, in particular the disadvantaged groups such as . . . rural dwellers, working people, housewives, any other adults;

3. promote acquisition of knowledge . . . and continually offer opportunities for upgrading knowledge, training and skills in the context of innovations, research and discovery in all fields of human endeavor;

4. provide an innovative system of university level education, flexible and open, in regard to methods and pace of learning, combination of courses, eligibility for enrollment, age of entry, conduct of examination and operation of the program with a view to promote learning and encourage excellence in new fields of knowledge;

5. contribute to the improvement of the educational system by providing a non-formal channel complementary to the formal system, encouraging the transfer of credits and exchange of teaching staff and utilizing texts and other software developed by the University;

6. provide education and training in the various arts, crafts and skills of the nation, raising their quality and improving their availability to the people;

7. provide or arrange for training of teachers required for such activities or institutions;

8. provide suitable post-graduate courses of study and promote research;

9. provide counselling and guidance to its students;

10. promote national integration and the integrated development of the human personality through its policies and programs.[249]

Further, the University was instructed to fulfill these goals through distance and continuing education, in cooperation with existing universities of higher education, utilizing the most current scientific knowledge and technology to provide high quality education concurrent with contemporary need.[250]

To accomplish these goals, IGNOU was invested with much authority. Among the twenty-eight powers granted to IGNOU were:

1. to provide for instructions in such branches of knowledge, technology, vocations and professions as the University may determine . . .;

2. plan and prescribe courses of study for degrees, diplomas,
    certificates, refresher certificates, seminars and other
    programmes for any other purposes; holding examinations and
    conferring such degrees or academic recognitions;

3. to determine the manner in which distance education . . . may
    be organized;

4. to establish the administrative structure and operation
    necessary to operate distance education programs;

5. to provide for research and development in educational
    technology and related matters;

6. to enter into carry out, vary or cancel contracts, demand and
    receive fees, borrow funds with the approval of the Central
    Government;

7. to recognize any institution of higher learning or study and
    to withdraw such recognition, including institutions outside
    India;

8. to determine standards and specify conditions for the
    admission of students to courses of study.[251]

Thus, IGNOU was granted significant autonomy beyond the powers

generally granted to a university.

Proposed IGNOU Structure and Operation

Administrative Structure and Governance

In keeping with India's higher education administrative tradition

the IGNOU has a Visitor, who is the President of India, a Vice-

chancellor, two Pro-vice-chancellors, and several Registrars. A

committee structure includes a Board of Governors (entitled Board of

Management), an Academic Council, a Planning Board, a Board of
Recognition, and a Finance Committee. Schools of Studies, rather than
traditional academic departments, complete the organization of IGNOU.
The administration of the university was established to eliminate
duplication in positions and encourage cooperation and interaction
among various factions through a participatory committee structure.

The Board of Management is the policy-making and management body
of the IGNOU. Appointments are made by the Visitor. There is no
published criteria for selection of its members. Legislation includes
a provision for fifteen appointees. Currently there are ten members on
the Board of Governors, including distance educators, business
executives, women, the Education Secretary and the Information and
Broadcasting Secretary. The Board of Governors meets at least every two
months and exercises administrative control over funds, appointments,
programs, fellowships, and faculty.

The Academic Council is limited to a membership of twenty and
appointments are made by the Visitor. Appointments to the Council are
made by the Visitor, and include senior administrators from IGNOU and
representatives from educational institutions, the media, industry and
commerce. The Academic Council supervises academic policies, methods
of instruction, evaluation processes, academic standards and academic
research.

The Planning Board, comprised of ten members, advises the Board of Governors and the Academic Council in matters of academic and development initiatives. The activities of the Planning Board are not to duplicate existing committees but to function as a "think tank" for the Board of Governors and the Academic Council. Its main function is advisory. The Planning Board was initially appointed by the Visitor. This Board is unique in the Indian higher education system.

The Finance Committee oversees all fiscal accounts, expenditures and budgets. It is comprised of seven members. The Finance Committee presents its annual accounts to the Board of Management. Again, the official appointment to the Committee is made by the Visitor.

The Board of Recognition, also unique to IGNOU, reviews applications for affiliation to IGNOU. (Affiliation refers to the annexing of an established institution to IGNOU, for the purpose of offering courses developed by IGNOU or by another recognized open university whose courses have been accepted by IGNOU.) The Board establishes policies and regulations regarding affiliation, investigates institutions prior to granting affiliation status, and reviews institutions prior to renewal of affiliation. Affiliation is granted for a five-year period.

IGNOU's Policies, Programs and Activities

Unlike some other national other Open Universities, the IGNOU
hires full-time faculty and staff. It was thought that part-time
personnel would not have the commitment nor adequate time to ensure the
quality of education desired by the institution.

As was mentioned in the legislation, admission to the IGNOU is
essentially unrestricted. A minimum age of eighteen years for
enrollment in degree programs has been established to secondary school
graduates to enroll in the University's programs. For non-degree
programs, there is no age requirement. The University requires an
orientation course for degree programs, in much the same way as other
open universities. However, it is considering the British Open
University's system of distributing reading material four months prior
to the start of classes, permitting students to self-select for
registration based on their personal assessment of ability. Particular
attention is paid to the recruitment of women, handicapped persons and
the segments of the population deemed disadvantaged.

The open university's initial mandate was to institute
undergraduate degree and diploma programs. A diploma in distance
education and a second in management were the first to be offered,
commencing in early 1987. They were followed by programs in rural
development, computer science and creative writing. The undergraduate

degree commenced in early 1988. Courses relevant to the needs of women and teacher training are being developed.

Programs of study at Masters, Bachelors and Diploma levels are envisioned. University-level degree programs, including the graduate level, are planned in Languages, Agricultural Science, Legal Studies, Health Science, Engineering, Technology, Fine Arts, Humanities, Social Science, Sciences, Education, Management and Commerce. Vocational and continuing education programs are also intended. Under the rubric of continuing education, the IGNOU planning document proposed to address rural development, agricultural development, management, technology, industrial development and management, population control, nutrition, social medicine, nature conservation and rural energy. Individual course offerings as well as certificate and diploma programs are contained in the planning documents. Refresher and orientation courses for professions, craftspersons, and tradespeople are also envisioned.

The Times of London Higher Educational Supplement, in July of 1986, discussed the initial thrust of the IGNOU as providing job-related courses for the population. It further mentioned that the Open University will start a program to train professional teachers in distance education methods, providing adequately trained staff for its own needs and those of other distance universities in the country. The overall intent is to improve skills, bring new knowledge and avoid obsolescence in all spheres of knowledge and employment.[252]

Courses in degree programs and as many other areas as possible are conceived in an interdisciplinary mode to promote national integration. Credit for life experience and course exemption by examination are included in the plan.

Within the context of higher education reform throughout the system, individual course credit such as that in United States colleges is proposed, permitting transfer within IGNOU Schools and with other open universities in the nation. Courses themselves are designed in a modular format. The benefits of this system are considered as vital to the open university concept. Students will be encouraged to transfer between universities, as the need arises. This method of credit accumulation will ensure recognition of courses throughout the nation. Enrollment through a credit system will allow students to register for one or several courses as their time permits, building credits toward a degree. It will also permit students to interrupt their higher education, returning at a later date, without loss of course credit. The present British system of higher education does not permit this flexibility.

The commitment to scheduling flexibility is strong. It is believed that courses and assessment should not disrupt family life or occupational commitments. Further, India is located in a monsoon climate, which can disrupt any schedule. Additional constraints of various religious holidays, slow transportation, delayed postal

service, geographical obstacles involved in travelling, and the
haphazard nature of Indian time are included in the planning process.
Therefore, the IGNOU has arranged for non-structured study time, as
much as is possible.

Utilization of media is crucial to the IGNOU planners.
Discussions with the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting for
provision of separate radio and television channels have been initiated
by IGNOU's staff and committees. To meet the goals of distance
education for all aspects of educational programming and for all open
universities, a directive to establish a dedicated educational
television channel by 1991-2 has been issued. However, recent comments
document the failure of one of India's two broadcasting satellites,
redirecting efforts from design of an additional dedicated to repair of
an existing satellite. Thus, funding for broadcast development and
obtaining actual broadcasting time are a challenge for IGNOU.
As radio and television are government-controlled, the question of
government interference in the educational process was raised by
legislators and academicians.

Direct interaction between IGNOU and all other Indian open
Universities is stated in the planning documents. Training facilities
and programs related to production and dissemination of programs are
also intended. State governments, the UGC and other statutory bodies
are directed to coordinate programs, both technological and academic,

and to provide the infrastructure for the advancement of media technology.[253]

The original IGNOU plan called for a variety of educational methods to be used, including correspondence texts, television and radio broadcasting, audio visual equipment, both hardware and software, libraries, computers, tutors and counselling. Telephone tutoring will be considered when there are sufficient telephones in the nation and the system has been upgraded to a consistent working order. Several of these methods are in the developmental stages.

Regional centers have been established, with an extensive network of study centers operating from these bases. Study centers are intended to be located in existing colleges, universities, government buildings and community locations. The incorporation of existing laboratories, libraries and media centers is planned to maintain efficient use of fiscal resources and eliminate duplication. Under-utilization of equipment and facilities has been a major issue in higher education. With available time in the evenings, weekends and holiday periods, the open university plans to maximize what already existed to supplement distance education programming. Scheduling short seminars and work periods during the above-mentioned off-hours will not only permit utilization of existing facilities but will encourage enrollment, as students will not have to leave employment to engage in educational pursuits.

Medium of instruction is a constant question in educational and Parliamentary discussions. As there are some 15 nationally recognized languages in India, what shall be the medium of instruction in a national university? Initially, programming is planned in Hindi and English. Those languages will permit the majority of the population to participate in the proffered courses. As regional centers become operational, it is intended to translate courses into regional languages. It is envisioned that televised courses must be designed for ease of translation, not only to spoken language but to the various written scripts.

Though individual states are responsible for funding their own open universities, the IGNOU is directed to assist with funding for development purposes.[254] There is debate on a tuition fee structure and of various other revenue-producing activities. The planning committee delayed action on fee structures, stating that the natural development of systems and processes would indicate the necessary fee policies.

Research in the disciplines and in distance education is planned for the future. The nation is also under challenge to upgrade its data base in education, as statistics are unreliable, inconsistent, outdated and often not available. The IGNOU will have an opportunity to centralize and maintain statistics on education through computer applications.

The Status of IGNOU, 1987

Administrative Structure and Governance

Professor G. Ram Reddy is the first Vice-Chancellor of the IGNOU. As has been previously stated, Professor Reddy has visited the Open University in Britain, has studied open university concepts and operation in many countries, and has established the Andhra Pradesh Open University in Hyderabad. He is India's expert in open universities and distance education. Professor Reddy was the logical choice to lead the innovative national open university.

The administrative structure and governance designed in the Open University bill is in operation. This departure from the traditional system permitted the establishment of the innovative institution with a minimum of bureaucracy and a maximization of the democratic process.

Shortly after the inauguration of IGNOU, the senior administrative staff designed a structured, sequential action plan aimed at implementing the suggested administrative structure, programs of study, media of instruction, and facilities utilization. Much effort was expended in this venture, and target dates were set for each segment of the plan. In October, 1987, all target dates had been met, many ahead of schedule, with the one exception of campus construction.

Each of the proposed Boards is functioning according to the plan. The Board of Governors meets regularly to continue with the policy decisions and direction of the IGNOU. The Academic Council has implemented several new programs and continues to supervise all academic issues. The Planning Board has succeeded in advising the IGNOU on additional programming. The Board includes several representatives from business and industry, providing the IGNOU with relevant guidance on program development. The Finance Committee engages in its designated function. The Board of Recognition has reviewed several institutions accepting a few institutions as affiliates.

The line of responsibility is to Parliament through the Ministry of Human Resource Development, which includes Education. An annual report containing achievements, financial status and future directions is presented to Parliament. The IGNOU is evaluated against its own objectives and plans, in much the same manner as its students are evaluated against course objectives.

Staff and Faculty

Many of the senior administrators at IGNOU have come from the Andhra Pradesh Open University. Those with extensive open university

experience and records of excellent involvement at Andhra Pradesh were invited to join the IGNOU in Delhi.

In Fall, 1986, 60 full-time senior academic educators were hired to prepare course materials. Those hired came from the faculties of existing colleges and universities. Thus, they were credentialed faculty teaching in their respective disciplines. A criteria for hiring included: ability to envision the open university concept; a willingness to innovate; and stated desire to learn distance education methodology. Many faculty are experienced in other forms of distance education. Additional faculty have been hired as programs were added. Housing, a traditional accompaniment for faculty and staff in Indian universities, has been secured from the village built for the 1982 Asian Games.

Staff, both administrators and faculty, employed at the IGNOU are highly committed to change and to the success of their 'brainchild.' Thus far, there has been strong cooperation among IGNOU personnel to implement the open university. A number of the IGNOU staff are 'converts' to a new type of education for India. As sociological research demonstrates, converts are generally dedicated to the cause, often zealous in their pursuits. This is certainly the case with the staff at IGNOU.

Admissions and Enrollment

Students learn of IGNOU's programs through advertisements in the national newspapers, business and industry announcements and word of mouth. Publicity materials have been distributed throughout educational and industrial institutions (Appendix D). Additionally, numerous interviews and articles have been published in journals, magazines, newspapers and broadcast on the media. A student can call and/or write for the prospectus and application forms.

A student may make written application for admission. Students are generally interviewed at the study centers. Enrollment in programs of study depend on the criteria for that program. Contingencies include necessary levels of reading, writing and computation skills, program requisites such as related, current employment required for the application component of the program, and course availability.

The proposed admissions ages and criteria have been initiated. For diploma and certificate courses, working experience in the related discipline is a determinant for admission. Additional factors may include employer nomination and student desire, rather than pervious academic achievement. Some programs have pre-requisite academic achievement levels, such as the diploma program in Distance Education, which requires a Master's or professional degree.

For degree programs, the 18 year old age requirement is mandatory. Admission to a Bachelor's degree program requires 10 + 2 or entrance examination. The degree programs are quite recent and are in the exploratory stage.

The current student body includes those faculty who are enrolled in the distance methodology diploma program, adults who are employed in management positions in business and industry, and adults who are taking introductory courses in the Bachelor of Arts program. They are, for the most part, non-traditionally aged students, especially within the Indian education system.

Enrollment at IGNOU far exceeds the plans. At the end of the second year of operation, enrollment is 30,000+ students. In selected courses, there is currently a waiting list for enrollment. The target enrollment at the end of the fifth year of operation is 100,000, with a goal of 200,000 at the end of the Seventh Plan (1990).

Academic Programs

Just two years after its inauguration, the IGNOU is offering several diploma programs. Management, Distance Education, Rural Development and Creative Writing are available for enrollment.

Courses in Computer Science and Nutrition are being written. The Bachelor's Degree is scheduled for implementation in early 1988.

The IGNOU is utilizing the expertise of its own staff to train its future employees. The program in Distance Education Theory and Methodology is well underway, with study center administrators enrolled in the program. An additional source of student enrollment in Distance Education is a body of educators wishing to join the new university staff. At the beginning of 1988, fifteen hundred (1500) students were enrolled in the diploma program in Distance Education.

To date, the courses offered are designed to augment the skills of students. Life-experience is not only recognized but desired and often necessary in order to complete the course work. In several programs students are employed full-time in related positions, so that academic programming and employment are integrated.

Initial ventures into teacher training are addressed through the diploma course in Distance Education. This course provides the ground-work in course design and presentation for future courses aimed at ele-mentary and secondary teachers, especially those in remote locations. Coordination with study centers brings the students (teachers) together for the much-needed sharing and discussion.

Each course of study has a published Programme Guide. A sample guide includes information on: course design committee; course preparation panel and staff; descriptive material on the open education approach; and specifics that pertain to that program. The Programme Guide for the Diploma in Management includes sections on target participants, program structure, delivery channels, course blocks and audio-visual programs, information on how to use blocks of study, assignments, evaluation system, study centers, enquiries and counselling support.[255]

Design, Scheduling and Methodology of Courses

Diploma and degree programs are designed in modular format, with programs of study containing required courses and elective courses, in the U.S. definition of 'courses.' Students may take a single course and return a year later to take another course, completing a degree or diploma at an individual pace. Courses carry uniform credit, allowing the accumulation of credits toward a degree.

For each course, a comprehensive study booklet is produced. Courses are divided into units, with behavioral objectives, text, supplementary required readings, required application activities, summaries, self-study exercises and questions, and key word listings. Courses such as Managing Men, an introductory course in the Diploma in

Management, include activities that are applied directly to the student's work environment.[256]

Each course is self-contained and includes a final exam. Examinations are offered continuously. Students are expected to complete assignments throughout the course and to sit for a final examination. Letter grades of A, B, C, D and E are given, on a five-point scale. Generally an overall grade of "C" or better is required for successful course completion.

Courses are designed by course teams consisting of eminent scholars and practitioners in a specific discipline. The issue of quality, in both content and design, is stressed in the development of courses. A behavioral objectives methodology is utilized in the print materials, enabling students to learn new study methods and habits while mastering course content.

Students generally study print materials in their homes and travel to the study centers on alternate weekends for ancillary instruction. Weekend instruction is designed to utilize prepared video materials. Discussion seminars integrating course content and application are also components. Course-relevant library materials are stocked in all study centers. In-person and telephone tutorials and counselling are available at study centers. The weekend seminars are mandatory.

Exceptionally low cost government accommodation is offered on a shared basis. Students do not need to take time from their work to attend these weekend sessions. Attendance has been very high, as would be expected from more mature, motivated students.

Although course production has been limited because of the two-year time span since the inauguration of the open university, each program has issues of cultural heritage and national integration woven into the print material. Aspects of Indian history and cultural relevance as they relate to the specific course topic are included.

Television and radio production have not accelerated at the rate which was originally intended. System constraints of time and availability are accentuated by the failure of a communication satellite. While the IGNOU is producing video materials which it is utilizing at study centers, it has not been successful as yet in efforts to accomplish widespread video and radio production. When the national system is once again working, energies will be redirected to large-scale media production.

Administrative Offices and Study Centers

Administrative offices are leased in central New Delhi, with additional space leased in Hauz Khaz for office, library and faculty

locations. Television and radio production space is also leased in a separate facility.

Building the campus at Saket was temporarily suspended because of funding. At this time, major efforts are being channeled into course production, not into facilities construction. The Vice-chancellor's priority is on course production and training rather than on physical facilities.

Five Regional Centers and 66 study centers are established and are operating in existing facilities. Regional centers coordinate the study center programs in a geographic region. Each study center is equipped with furniture, telephone, television and VCR, library and classroom space. Each study center is staffed with a trained coordinator. A Study Center Operational Manual has been prepared and published for use by the coordinators.

Concerted effort was expended to place study centers in facilities which would enhance the academic effort, which meant utilizing college, university and educational centers with existing libraries, laboratories and hostel accommodations.

One Study Center is completely accessible to the handicapped, with a coordinator who had earned a degree in special education from Boston University. The coordinator of this Center is blind, and understands

and promotes the needs of handicapped individuals. It was the coordinator's idea to establish this Center and he has made it a most successful venture in a period of months.

Another Study Center is located in an international student facility in New Delhi. This Center was already equipped with classrooms, a library, hostel, dining facilities, and audio-visual equipment. This Center doubles as an Elderhostel facility, and integrates students from India with visitors from all over the world.

Medium of Instruction

Courses are currently offered in English and Hindi. Expediency is the motivation behind this decision. These languages were chosen because they are the most widely spoken in the nation and afford the largest number of potential students to enroll.

Other languages are being utilized as additional regional centers join open university programming. In the northwest, course materials have been translated into Gujarati and Rajasthani for use in those states. Additional languages are being integrated into course production.

Funding and Tuition

The promised funding from Parliament was forthcoming, enabling the objectives of the IGNOU to be implemented. No cuts were made in the legislated budget.

Minimal fees are charged to students. These may include accommodations and meals fees for weekend participation. A majority of instructional materials is provided to students directly from IGNOU.

Research

The mandate to conduct research in the field of distance education/open universities is being facilitated through precise record-keeping of the administration. Obviously, there is little data available; however, the objective is not being neglected in the infancy of the IGNOU. Statistics on every course enrollment, student attainment, attendance, study center operation, library usage, etc. are being maintained, providing a baseline for future comparison and research.

Credentialing and Recognition

The IGNOU is a member of the Association of Indian Universities, credentialing the institution from its infancy. The AIU has been involved in advisory capacities from the inception of IGNOU, and thus had no difficulty with academic review and an offer of membership. Professor Ram Reddy was the President of the Association of Indian Universities in 1987/1988.

As there is no unified standard within the higher education system, the IGNOU is in an advantageous position. Its courses are consistent throughout the nation, placing it in a unique position of being the one standardized unit within higher education. Its courses are recognized in all open university institutions. However, its link with the traditional system of higher education has yet to be established.

The programs offered through IGNOU are recognized by business and industry. Early statistics indicate significant improvement in job performance and promotion by those who have taken courses through the open university. This has led to increased admissions applications from those individuals already employed.

Coordination Efforts

Coordination with open universities throughout the nation are well established. The state open universities of Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, West Bengal and other states were establishing study centers in cooperation with the IGNOU. The sharing of curriculum and course materials is in full operation, with translations from language to language being initiated.

A Coordination Council of Open Universities is comprised of the Vice-Chancellor of IGNOU, the Vice-Chancellors of the Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthani Open Universities, the Secretary of the UGC, and the Joint Secretary from the Ministry of Education. It is envisioned that membership in this Council will increase as open universities are formed.

The Council examines inter-institutional relations, eliminates duplication, maintains uniformity of academics and operation, establishes a network of programs, and pools resources of all open university offerings, enabling students to cross-register for courses.

Perceptions of the IGNOU, 1988

Interviews with leaders in India produced many supportive comments and several critiques of the open university. Three individuals stated that the IGNOU is the prima donna of the educational scene in India at the moment. It is fashionable to have an open university! IGNOU is receiving public and governmental attention and funding. The nation now looks forward to what is coming next from the open university. Even some of the correspondence colleges have inquired about joining the open university structure.

Others who offered supportive comments emphasized the central role IGNOU now plays in the system, despite its relatively small size in comparison with other universities. They have invested in IGNOU hope for the future and anticipate that this university will bring about the change in higher education so needed and that it will meet the development needs of the nation. There seems to be an emotional investment in the institution.

Several participants stated that no academic institution in India has the potential power and control that is accorded the IGNOU. No institution has authority to operate throughout the nation. Originally, this power was a perceived threat to many groups. The threat seems to have dissipated.

The fear of mind control, originally perceived as possible from the power vested in IGNOU has not developed. Most of those interviewed indicated that IGNOU has been most careful in developing courses so that the perceived 'brainwashing' effect does not occur. At the same time, IGNOU has included social content in course material that promotes national unity. Those who opposed IGNOU because of its potential power have so far not objected to course material. In fact, they have adopted IGNOU's programs.

The initial success and development of the study centers and the courses in two brief years has caused those who opposed the centralization of the open university to reconsider. Even the most reluctant of state governments is acknowledging that IGNOU can benefit its constituency. IGNOU has the best academic material. These states acknowledge the quality and success of IGNOU and do not wish to be left out or left behind when progress is being attained. In fact, the very institutions that opposed the open university have now joined it. The Governments of West Bengal, Kerala, Karnataka and Orissa have abandon their plans for state open universities and are annexing their programs to IGNOU.

One area of impact on the traditional system is observed among its student body. IGNOU's current students include a university Vice-Chancellor, a Union Minister and several Major Generals in the Indian military. Students in the conventional system are eligible to enroll

in IGNOU's courses, but have not availed themselves of this opportunity as yet. They seem to prefer the peer interaction in the traditional universities.

Those interviewed identified economy of education, flexibility in course development and implementation, the opportunity to invite prominent faculty from foreign institutions, drawing on worldwide resources, as IGNOU's strengths. The ability to adapt programs to what works, what is relevant, the ability to translate course material into regional languages, the ability of people to participate in educational programs even if they cannot come to the institution and IGNOU's ability to reach every corner of the nation were stated as additional strengths. Assurance of uniform course content throughout the nation and contribute to a sense of national unity were supplementary observations.

Additional comments included the relevancy of IGNOU's programs to national development needs. One scholar stated that India has never had a responsible agent within the higher educational system and proposed that IGNOU could be that vehicle.

Central Government Planners recognized that change of the present educational system would not come from within. Too many groups - faculty, students, administrators, politicians, unions - at all levels either had a vested interest in maintaining the status quo or were

afraid of the unknown system components that would emerge. The catalyst had to be external, and the IGNOU may assume that function.

To date, those interviewed see little impact of the IGNOU on traditional methodology and course content of the correspondence colleges. If the IGNOU is successful in its modularization and its relevant course offerings, in the recognition of its degrees, if it attains a status role in higher education, the correspondence colleges will have to choose between joining an entirely new higher education venture or closing their doors. IGNOU staff recognized this potential and discussed it as a factor motivating change in the higher education system. Correspondence college staff were more threatened by immediate issues and did not appear to have considered the long-term impact of the open university.

An interesting dichotomy arose within one major university that offered correspondence degrees. A senior administrator of this university was a very strong proponent of the open university, viewing it as a catalyst to facilitate the necessary change in a 'dead' system. The correspondence unit within that same university was highly intimidated - even angry - about the IGNOU, and felt it should be closed. This university's faculty has a history of maintaining the status quo and being the last institution to accept change, even when it is a mandated change.

Many cited as a strength the uniform quality of content vis a vis the uneven quality in the traditional system. The average standard of IGNOU's courses was considered higher than the average standard in the traditional system.

A final comment on IGNOU's benefits addressed the quality of its Planning Board. The Planning Board includes a number of individuals from the traditional system, which encourages dialog between the conventional and non-conventional institutions. This inclusion preempts some of the suspicion of IGNOU's academic quality. It also leads to discussions of mobility between systems.

Two persons identified as a weakness insufficient funding and manpower resources to develop as they wish. Additional weaknesses that were mentioned in the interviews included insufficient television support and the general inefficiency that pervades India. Inefficiency and the Indian tendency to routinize all development were seen as possible deterrents in future years. These observations were followed by a caution that IGNOU must continue to do unconventional things and not permit itself to become mired in the ineffectual bureaucracy and apathy that exists in the nation.

All those interviewed regard the success of IGNOU as attributable to Prof. G. Ram Reddy, the Vice-chancellor. Not only does he have the vision, but he has the ability to conceptualize how an open university

can work in such a diverse nation as India. He is a scholar with a gentle charismatic personality. His gift for bringing together the best people and motivating them to facilitate change is seen as the root of the IGNOU success. Each and every person mentioned him as the single reason for IGNOU's prosperity, progress and quality, and each accords him the greatest respect. Even the opposition factions regard Ram Reddy with esteem.

IGNOU Relation to Planning Documents

Table 3 summarizes the major goals for higher education for the period 1949-1969, drawn from the reports described in Chapter V, the goals for 1984-1986 as drawn from the reports reviewed in Chapter VI, and the goals for IGNOU described in this chapter. It is clear that IGNOU is intended to respond to many important goals identified over 40 years. Access is a continuing theme. IGNOU does address the early proposal of establishing part-time education. Each of the earlier periods contains factors relating to program creation to meet national development goals. This is also noted in IGNOU goals. Research and post-graduate education occur in all three periods.

New issues of innovative educational methodology, lifelong and continuing education and national unity are apparent in the more recent documents. However, some consistency of issues throughout an almost

Table 3

Trends and Goals Comparison

1949-1969 Trends

1. Coordinating educational reform and revision to meet national development needs;
2. Improving access through part-time and correspondence programs while limiting admission to existing institutions according to their capacities;
3. Combining professional education with practical application;
4. Increasing support for research and attending to post-graduate education.

1984-1986 Trends

1. Improving access and mobility;
2. Consolidating existing institutions and expanding existing facilities;
3. Revising the curriculum to relevant, applied programming designed to meet national development goals;
4. Reforming the examination system;
5. Revising the training of faculty and teachers;
6. Providing for lifelong and continuing education;
7. Providing research opportunities and post-graduate education;
8. Establishing educational programming utilizing distance education methodology.

IGNOU Goals

1. Increasing opportunity and access;
2. Strengthening and diversifying programs of study which are related to the social and economic development needs of the nation;
3. Providing for the training of teachers;
4. Promoting research and providing post-graduate education;
5. Providing a cost-effective, innovative system of education;
6. Promoting national unity through policies and programs.

SOURCE: Summarized from A. Biswas & J. C. Aggarwal. Education in India. (New Delhi: Arya Book Depot,f 1972), pps. 49-53, 99-103, 147-154; Government of India. Indira Gandhi National Open University Project Report. (New Delhi: Educational Consultants Limited, 1985), pps. 52-53; Government of India. National Policy of Education, 1986. (New Delhi: Ministry of Human Resource Development, 1986), pps. 1-15; Government of India. Seventh Five Year Plan, Volume II: Sectoral Programmes of Development. (New Delhi: Government of India, Planning Commisstion, October, 1985), p. 259; F. E. Keay & Sukumar Mitra. A History of Education in India, 5th ed. (Calcutta: Oxford University Press, 1978), pps. 236-245; D. S. N. Mukerji. History of Education in India (Modern Period). (Baroda: Acharya Book Depot, 1961), pps. 250-261.

forty-year period indicates that India's planners acknowledge that original goals have not been met as yet. IGNOU was their proposal to further the progress toward meeting those goals.

Conclusion

Overall, the interviewed educators and government officials strongly regarded and supported the open university. After two short years of existence, IGNOU appears to have garnered the respect of many prominent individuals. It also appears to be making progress toward meeting the national development goals.

Chapter Eight will provide a summary analysis of the current status and likely future for IGNOU. It will analyze its viability as a change agent. The second section of Chapter Eight will examine the IGNOU's relevance to the National Development Goals of the Seventh Plan. Replication potential for other less developed nations will be examined. The chapter will conclude with a summary of future research issues.

CHAPTER VIII

IGNOU'S VIABILITY FOR INDIA'S NEEDS

Creating an open university mandated to meet Seventh Plan goals
through relevant programs, coordinate open university curriculum and
courses nationally, and be a catalyst for higher education reform
carried with it an ominous challenge. The plan was not without its
critics, as has been noted. However, its early success and future
accomplishments do warrant examination by other less developed nations
as an example of integrated, purposeful higher education.

Analysis of IGNOU's Development

Initial Proclamation

The unexpected announcement of IGNOU during Rajiv Gandhi's
inaugural address appears to have capitalized on a number of factors
which were crucial to IGNOU's establishment. The nation was in chaos
and needed positive and innovative proposals to redirect thoughts and
energies. Gandhi's gentle and caring personality may have been a key

factor as well. He is quite unlike his mother and brother, Sanjay, whom his mother was grooming as a successor. He was not viewed as volatile, but as a person who cared for humanity.

Timing of the announcement also played a part. In addition to unifying the nation in chaos, India had had several years of agricultural and economic prosperity. Funding was available to initiate new projects. Education was a priority for many people. Rajiv chose a project that was of interest to the population at a time when funds were available and the nation needed new vistas.

The Constitutional change giving the central government authority to override state control in issues of national interest provided the vehicle for Gandhi's bold venture. A national open university could not have been established before this Article. Thus, a number of circumstances supported the timing of IGNOU's creation.

Attainment of Purpose and Goals

Summarizing K. C. Pant's introduction of the open university bill in Parliament, the purpose of the open university is to:

> . . .establish and incorporate an open university for
> introduction of distance education systems within the
> educational pattern of the country and for determination

and coordination of standards in these systems. Further,
. . . the open university should promote acquisition of
knowledge in a rapidly changing society, offering opportuni-
ties for upgrading knowledge, training and skills in the
context of innovations, research and discovery.[257]

Review of IGNOU's development after almost three years of

existence demonstrates the attainment of its purpose. The open

university has indeed been established, utilizing distance education

methodology. Through the Council, it has established a network for the

determination and coordination of standards in distance education.

This is further assured by the large network of Regional Centers, the

sixty-six Study Centers and the various state universities which have

annexed themselves to IGNOU.

IGNOU has developed its first programs to meet the basic needs of

its own operation and the need for continuing education in business and

rural development. Its programs in computer technology and nutrition

address additional needs. The open university has also implemented a

degree program, utilizing a structurally non-traditional organization.

Goals and objectives of IGNOU include:

strengthening various academic programs relating to the
employment and economic needs of the country; providing
access to higher education; providing a flexible, open and
innovative system of university level education; contributing
to educational improvement through a non-formal channel
complimenting the traditional system; providing education
in the various arts, crafts and skills of the nation;
training teachers; providing suitable post-graduate courses;

promoting research; providing counselling and guidance to students; promoting national integration through programs and policies.[258]

IGNOU has met a number of stated goals and objectives in its brief existence. Programs relating to employment and economic needs have been initiated, with additional projects in development. Students in the open university are different from those in the traditional universities. IGNOU has provided access to students who would not have attended university. Utilizing a credit-based, cumulative course system of degree attainment meets the goal of establishing an innovative system for India. The non-formal channel of programming is accomplished through programs designed and offered to its own staff as well as programs for business and industry. IGNOU has trained its own teachers and has thus created a teacher training model for use with other education programs. Counselling and guidance are offered to all students through trained study center coordinators. All courses and programs contain national integration and unity components.

Education in the arts, crafts and skills indigenous to India has yet to be implemented. It is premature to offer post-graduate programs, and IGNOU has wisely not ventured into this area. Its focus on diploma and certificate courses, then degree programs, permits the staff to build courses and programs sequentially, addressing the most crucial areas of educational need before embarking on more advanced and esoteric programs. The research component of the open university is just beginning. There has been insufficient time to gather

appropriate date for research on their own operation. Further, at this time, emphasis must be placed on developing programs needed for employment and economic development. The IGNOU staff recognizes the importance of research, especially to document their own progress, and has made provision for future research project development.

As previously stated, timing was crucial to the successful establishment of the open university. All of the requisite social, political and educational forces were in alignment when the open university bill was presented to Parliament. The nation was ripe for a positive, innovative recommendation following the crisis. Surely the current state of higher education contributed to the government's willingness to consider an innovative institution. The fact that an open university had been successful in other nations documented its possibility for India. The pilot project at Andhra Pradesh supported the concept. Funding was available, as the nation has not endured national disasters in recent years. Many factors appear to have contributed to its success.

The numerous comments attributing the IGNOU's success to Prof. Ram Reddy cannot be ignored. The institution has been fortunate to have a dedicated leader, one with experience in distance education and a thorough knowledge of and love for the nation. He seems to be the 'right' person, with the requisite knowledge, charisma, integrity and political awareness to facilitate IGNOU.

An overall assessment indicates that the IGNOU staff should be commended on accomplishing so many of their goals and objectives in a very short time. Given the general reputation for inefficiency in education, government and employment in India, their success is remarkable.

IGNOU Viability as a Change Agent

The IGNOU is viewed seen as an agent of change, both in education and opportunity. It has been accorded a tremendous amount of power and responsibility. The institution has succeeded in meeting, even exceeding, its planning goals. Program development is ahead of schedule. Enrollment has astounded even the Vice-Chancellor. Business and industry have accepted IGNOU's programs, and government agencies are enrolling students in management courses.

The IGNOU has implemented a modular, credit-based system of education permitting the accumulation of credits toward certificates, diplomas and degrees. In this manner, it has employed an entirely different structure within the higher education system. It is possible that this structure may be adopted by other institutions in India and, if so, it will allow students much greater flexibility it attaining relevant higher education.

Lifelong education is a current mainstay of IGNOU. With the exception of the poorly regarded correspondence colleges, IGNOU is the only formal means for learning new skills, upgrading existing knowledge, and meeting the stated desires for education as an adult. IGNOU's programs are the backbone of education outside of the traditional lock-step system. The current IGNOU programs and those planned for immediate implementation are meeting the nation's needs and the population's desires, as relates to the pre-implementation research, filling a country-wide void.

Noting the high enrollment, India's population does not seem to question the viability of IGNOU's programs. This acceptance man be due in part to the national status, funding and sanction by the Prime Minister. It may also reflect the nation's desire for education, especially job-related programs which lead to direct economic benefits for the individual. Economic opportunity has created a growing middle class in India. Education is viewed as the means to upward mobility. Students who have had no previous opportunity for higher education now have a chance, and may see this as a means of joining the middle class. Social attitude, therefore, may support enrollment regardless of viability.

As noted in the previous section, IGNOU was charged with coordinating open university education throughout the nation. It has been successful in accomplishing this task, not only within its own

study centers but with the state open universities. While this took considerable time and much diplomacy to enact, even the most reluctant of state open universities has joined the IGNOU 'family.' Thus, it has been effective in promoting change within its own category of higher education.

The structure of IGNOU does not lend itself to the same kinds of educational corruption found elsewhere in Indian higher education. Course modules and credit accumulation do not facilitate buying of degrees. Further, a unified standard of course objectives combined with discussion seminars and assignments related to the work-place make it difficult to 'buy' a course instructor. The student desiring to 'buy' a degree would have to engage in corrupt practices with many faculty, not just one examiner. Additionally, the deceptive practices would be quickly discovered, as the student would be unable to apply the coursework in the workplace.

A number of those interviewed in India felt that IGNOU can be an agent of change, given a sufficient amount of time. People will have to see how the new institution works, how it is translated into action, and how its students progress academically and professionally. If the institution delivers what it promises, the population will be more inclined to enroll in IGNOU than in the traditional system. Should this happen, the traditional system will need to examine itself and alter its methods in order to survive.

One scholar mentioned that IGNOU will generate change if it has advantages over the traditional system. If IGNOU is responsible and accountable within the higher education system, it should be rewarded by increased funding and enrollment. Maintaining its political backing is essential.

Another academician noted that IGNOU is recruiting faculty from the traditional system, and these people bring 'mind baggage' with them. Teaching in the IGNOU requires that people change, and not all may be successful in adapting to the new methodology. This individual also noted that the best faculty may not wish to move to a new university. Faculty wishing to join IGNOU must be risk-takers and have faith in the open university.

Comment was also made that IGNOU must publicize its programs through the use of literature, the media, and information within the traditional system. Utilization of publishers, journalists and distributors is required at this time, to assure that its success is made known throughout India and the world.

Historically, many proposed educational reforms for India have not been achieved. There is great optimism for this innovative undertaking, however, because of its national authority, funding and implementation. Whether or not the IGNOU can alter or force the

traditional system to change drastically is a question that can only be answered in the future.

IGNOU Relevance to the Seventh Five-Year Plan

An initial mandate for IGNOU was to provide relevant education in coordination with India's national development goals. The traditional higher education system in India, for a variety of historical reasons, seemed unable and/or unwilling to match programs to national development goals.

Reviewing the current programs offered by IGNOU, even the earliest courses meet the needs of the nation. The first program implemented was a training program in distance education, designed to train educators in open university theory and methodology. The fact that over 1500 students enrolled in the first session indicates the faculty desire to learn innovative educational methodologies. The students themselves are engaging in the educational methodology that they will subsequently utilize, providing them with the experience of non-traditional learners translated to non-traditional educators in their field. The concept of training for IGNOU need seems to be a brilliant course of action. This also meets the stated national development goal

of continuing education for teachers, while allowing those who will
utilize the system to refine the process before implementing it.

Providing management education in a continuing education format
related to actual employment was the second course of study developed.
This type of education is not available in any other segment of higher
education, especially in a format utilizing direct job application.
The relationship between management education and industry needs,
fostering national development goals, fulfills a stated goals of the
Seventh plan.

Open admissions policies have addressed the goal of access to
higher education. As previously stated, enrollment, double the
projected figure, documents not only the ease of access, but
substantiates the research data on demand for higher education.

The flexibility of scheduling, permitting students to retain their
employment while furthering their education, has also increased
access. The only other means for accomplishing education outside of
the traditional route is through correspondence education, and the
correspondence course offerings are irrelevant to employment and
national development.

The nationwide status of IGNOU permits students even in rural
areas the opportunity to further their knowledge and skills. As the

Plan focused on developing human resources crucial to the national development, the wide reach of IGNOU provides opportunity to the entire country. Utilization of media and self-study methodology combined with the resources of study centers and telephone bring the programs to most of the nation. When video broadcasting time becomes a reality, virtually every citizen will be able to engage in open university education, as television is available in over 90% of the nation.

Given the enrollment and the potential multiplier effect in education, a standardized curriculum implies that the nation can achieve some unity in education and in training. Neither exist with the state-run systems. Currently students in the IGNOU business curriculum, regardless of residence, are studying the same material. A unified curriculum also permits diploma-holders to seek employment in other geographic areas, as the standardization of education gives universal skills in a job category. This is a first for India, and provides the forum for nationwide training, enabling the country to educate for the twentieth century.

National development goals stress the need for transmittal of cultural goals and objectives in an effort to unify the nation. India's heritage and tradition are interwoven into current courses, and this content will extend to future programs. With the extensive network of study centers combined with the central development of curriculum, this goal is being addressed. Additionally, IGNOU's

programs reach rural areas, carrying the national unity message to populations which perhaps have never considered the topic. The multiplier effect will also have impact in transmitting the messages of India's culture and unity.

The IGNOU has demonstrated that it can respond rapidly to nationally defined development and educational goals. It has initiated its own operation and offered diploma courses far ahead of its own target dates. It has produced quality materials related to the needs of the nation and to the associated areas of employment. There is no other component of higher education able to respond in this manner.

Challenges to IGNOU's Future

IGNOU's future existence is dependent on many factors: maintaining political and governmental support; obtaining required funding; dissipating any threat from the autonomous universities, correspondence colleges and the traditional system as a whole; maintaining positive relations with the UGC and the Association of Indian Universities; maintaining academic standards; acquiring recognition of its degrees; securing adequate broadcast time and facilities; meeting the challenges of its own progress and success; and maintaining distance from the unrest rampant among faculty in the traditional system.

The greatest threat to IGNOU lies in the possibility of national
political change. IGNOU is linked with the current government and the
majority Congress (I) party. There is considerable unrest in the
nation's political arena. A new coalition party is providing Rajiv
Gandhi and the Congress (I) party with its own challenge. Elections
are due in the Spring, 1989. Should the government change, IGNOU could
suffer loss of crucial backing and financial support. It is possible,
however, that a government change might not harm IGNOU. It is
supported by the Communist governments of West Bengal and Kerala.
Should a communist government come into power, it might support IGNOU.
IGNOU's training programs that promote national development may be
appealing to a new government. Popular support from current students
may help as well.

The IGNOU's one-source funding could place the institution in
jeopardy if a fiscal crisis occurs. However, Indian scholars project
that reduction in funding is unlikely. IGNOU is exceeding its
enrollments and its course production schedules. Students and the
workplace are benefiting from IGNOU's programs. IGNOU has achieved
many of its goals. As Parliament does not have a history of reducing
central university funding, it is improbable that IGNOU's funding will
be cut. In fact, continued enrollment strength and demonstrated
success should increase funding.

If the IGNOU continues to progress at the current rate, the time will come when it may challenge the current higher educational system. The first to be threatened will be the correspondence colleges. As the correspondence colleges have no coordinating organization to support a united campaign, it is doubtful that their opposition will have any impact. In fact, if IGNOU continues its success, it is conceivable that IGNOU could absorb the correspondence colleges. This prospect was mentioned by several scholars. If the population acknowledges IGNOU's success in training for employment and advancement, enrollment will naturally shift to programs which will benefit the learner.

IGNOU also presents a challenge to the traditional higher education system. While there are some prospects for reform within the traditional system, it is more likely that reform will occur through IGNOU. In the traditional system, it is difficult to alter the status quo, for faculty unions and staff fear any change. It may be that the national autonomous universities will alter their programming over time, especially Jawaharlal Nehru University which has a history of innovation. If the open university grows to a point of siphoning student enrollment from the traditional system, or if funding is withheld from traditional institutions, pending more relevant education, the traditional system will address reform.

It appears that the traditional system is beginning to consider some modifications. A recent nationwide strike by faculty was unsuccessful. The UGC and the AIU, as well as university administrations, refused to accede to faculty demands for higher salary until the unions agreed to examine higher education reforms, especially the lack of academic accountability and responsibility to society. The UGC, the AIU and most university Vice-chancellors recognize the irrelevancy and poor quality of conventional universities. They also are frustrated with faculty opposition to change. Perhaps by linking raises and promotions to accountability and change, as was initiated at the end of 1987, progress may be made in reform efforts.

In the traditional system, the central universities and their correspondence colleges are overseen by the UGC. The IGNOU is the authorizing and coordinating agency for open university education. A conflict could emerge from this dual authority which could potentially cause problems for IGNOU. An attempt to circumvent this situation has already been made by including the UGC on the IGNOU Board and by IGNOU's achieving membership in the AIU. Both organizations are significantly involved in IGNOU's planning and operation, rendering them vested partners in IGNOU's development. Furthermore, AIU membership guarantees acceptance of IGNOU's programs throughout the educational system.

As IGNOU proposes to utilized the media for course transmission, the lack of television production facilities and dedicated broadcast stations and channels will have an impact on the institution's development. Additionally, the dedication of a single radio station and an individual television channel for educational programming places significant time availability restrictions on each segment of the educational system. With rebroadcast scheduling necessary to meet the population's varying time available for viewing, the reality of limited broadcast time must be addressed by the IGNOU administration.

How the IGNOU administration will cope with its own progress and success remains to be seen. Despite the rapid development of a study center network and course production, there is a limit to the number of students which can be accommodated in facilities. Already there is a waiting list for one program! Funds are limited and faculty time has constraints. Study centers, though appearing to be equipped, are not large facilities. Only limited numbers of students can utilize the facilities at one time. A long-range plan for program, course, staff and facilities growth must be developed, even at this early stage. Otherwise, IGNOU will not be able to meet the expectations of its own staff and certainly not those of the public. It may have strains on academic quality as well.

The final challenges to IGNOU are related, those of degree validity and recognition and maintenance of academic standards. A

comment was made that IGNOU must not dilute its standards. Its existence is questioned on many grounds. Only by maintaining high quality can it achieve recognition of its degrees and courses. Furthermore, IGNOU does not wish to incur scrutiny because of inferior programming. By maintaining its integrity, it will gain the domestic and international reputation it desires.

The most realistic prognostication is that a dual system will continue to exist. Two prominent educators stated that they do not see IGNOU as a substitute for the conventional system. Its mission is quite different. Degree programs are not the most important component of IGNOU's objectives. Continuing and lifelong education are the areas which should receive primary emphasis. Thus, the traditional system and the open university can share higher education programming for India.

Questions must be raised, however, about the appropriateness of this model as a change agent and as an educational institution. Can a non-traditional, innovative institution which operates independently from the traditional system of higher education be a catalyst for change? Can it earn sufficient public, private enterprise and political support to be a change agent? Again, its success or failure will provide the answers to these questions.

Is IGNOU the best model for innovative educational programming? India has tried correspondence education and that has not succeeded. There are many variations on open university structure and administration. India's planners appear to have investigated possible models and chosen the one which they think addresses their economic, social and educational needs at this time. As programs are developed and implemented, IGNOU must be prepared to evaluate and make modifications as appropriate, for its own survival.

A final comment must be made on access in terms of pure numbers. If IGNOU plans to enroll 100,000, how much of a dent in access will this make in a nation of 735 million people? According to the statistics, the current enrollment of 3,500,000 students in higher education is 4.8% of the relevant age group. 100,000 students is a relatively small number to claim headway in access, for such a populous nation. Are there additional ways to clearly increase access?

IGNOU could become a successful part of the system offering distance education programs to a significant portion of the population. It could wither from lack of funds, withdrawal of governmental support, inability to meet its goals and/or pressure from the traditional system. It seems more likely that it will thrive, given its achievements in a short period of time.

Replication Potential

Less developed nations that have made significant progress toward meeting the basic needs of their populations could benefit from examining the IGNOU as a possible model for attaining national development goals by educating large numbers of people. IGNOU's initial success in academic programming designed to meet development needs demonstrates that, with adequate planning, this goal can be met. The unexpected number of students enrolling in IGNOU in its initial months indicates that this type of education can reach large numbers of individuals quickly and efficiently.

To make the model replicable to less developed countries, however, with vision and dedication would be needed an individual or small group of individuals who have a clear vision of open university operation, an ability to adapt the concept to fit the national context, and a willingness to innovate, against all odds. Once the idea has been firmly envisioned, persistence in promoting its viability is essential.

Convincing the major players in government, politics and education, of the open university's adaptability and viability for that nation is a major challenge. Merging the open university development with national development objectives and citing the successes of other emerging nations in achieving these goals are arguments which could be used to convince planners. Additionally, demonstrating how the IGNOU

concept can be integrated into national priorities could be convincing to governments.

Pre-empting sufficient government support for validation of the institution, according autonomy to the institution, and authorizing sufficient funding and resources for a minimum of five years are crucial aspects to open university development. The IGNOU experience demonstrates how these factors permit the independent facilitation of an open university, so necessary to the emergence of an innovative institution.

Engaging the cooperation and participation of the educational organizations and agencies within the nation is essential. The co-opting of the UGC and AIU in IGNOU's development provided the expert input of these organizations and facilitated their cooperation in its development.

Selecting a Vice-Chancellor who is nationally respected, has knowledge and experience in non-traditional education and is dedicated to the innovation in education appears to be a central prerequisite. An individual, additionally, should have a comprehensive vision of national development, with the ability to conceptualize non-traditional methods of meeting the development goals. Finally, the chosen leader must have excellent human relations skills. This individual must coordinate all factions within the nation -- federal and state

Ministries, political parties, special interest groups, traditional higher education institutions, higher education agencies, professional organizations, -- as well as a new staff.

Finally, adequate planning and research must precede the establishment of an open university. Visiting successful open universities in nations with similar goals provides program models. Utilizing consultants with successful records of open university program development provides external input. Creating a pilot program allows modification on a smaller scale prior to national implementation.

Examples of nations which could investigate the open university concept are Pakistan, Kenya, Egypt, Finland, Yugoslavia and Russia. While Pakistan has an open university, it has never succeeded in meeting its objectives. The primary reasons for this failure have been:

1. lack of a comprehensive development plan to create an economy sufficient to support education;

2. a dictatorship;

3. military conflicts requiring utilization of fiscal resources; and

4. a lack of trained educators to carry out the open university plan.

With a new government pledged to address national development and pre-disposed to private enterprise, Pakistan could well utilize its existing open university structure to further the much-needed education. The Prime Ministers of Pakistan and India met in December, 1988, the first meeting of its kind in many years. Perhaps this can lead to a sharing of ideas and programs beneficial to both nations.

Kenya and Egypt share a British-based educational system. They also share a vast geographical area and a significant population requiring education. While each nation is not destitute, as other African nations are, both nations have need of comprehensive development plans. An open university could provide wide-scale educational opportunity integrated with development programs.

Though Finland and Yugoslavia cannot be classified as less developed nations, each encompasses a uniquely elongated geographical area and few higher education institutions. Finland's remote areas could utilize an open university concept. The nation has the resources to implement such a plan, if it is concurrent with national planning. Yugoslavia, the most independent of the Eastern European nations, not only has a geography similar to Finland but has issues of national integration. Illiteracy among ethnic populations could be addressed through open university programming. Yugoslavia has an economy that can support educational innovation, should it see a benefit to the country's people.

Russia's newly altered economic direction places the nation in an arena of economic competition for which it has little training. The traditional university structure in Russia is well-established. However, the nation is in need of business and technology education if its current goals of enterprise and development are to be achieved. It may be that an open university could rapidly transform the knowledge levels in these areas throughout the vast nation.

India's experience can be a model for for other nations wishing to meet development goals while restructuring a rigid, elite system of education. India invested much time investigating open university models, developing a comprehensive plan, establishing an open university within the national context, and choosing a competent administrator. India's success in creating an open university is valuable to other nations.

Recommendations for Future Research

To fully answer the research questions posed in this study, longitudinal data on IGNOU must be collected and analyzed. Research must be conducted which :

1. compares IGNOU to the traditional system of higher education in India; and

2. assesses its long term potential and impact as a model for other less developed nations.

Internal research issues for IGNOU include maintaining careful statistics on the students who enroll in programs. Among the factors to be included are entering educational levels of students, their positions in the workforce and their rate of promotion of obtaining employment as a result of their IGNOU experience. Employers' assessments of education provided by IGNOU must be ascertained.

The research unit must examine the implementation of Seventh-Plan related educational programs, the demand for enrollment and the completion rates for these programs in IGNOU. Research should also include examination of teachers who demand further education in non-traditional methodology, at all levels of the educational system.

The impact of IGNOU programming on the social goals of the Seventh Plan must also be determined. Nutritional education and population planning are objectives in both the Plan and IGNOU. Social unity impact, especially in geographic areas of conflict, should be investigated.

The system-wide and comparative research agenda for India includes data collection on the effect of open universities on correspondence college enrollment and completion. Comparative data on job promotion and/or hiring of correspondence college graduates vs. open university

graduates is essential. Employment satisfaction with IGNOU programs, as compared with other segments of higher education, will provide important feedback.

Student satisfaction with access, scheduling, course flexibility, credit cumulation and transferability of IGNOU courses vis a vis other segments of higher education is essential. Research should also include student satisfaction with IGNOU programs in relation to employment needs and promotion.

System-wide research topics include the cost effectiveness of IGNOU vs. the traditional system. IGNOU's impact as a change agent can be examined in noting the number of colleges and universities changing their programs to a cumulative, credit-based curriculum. Issues of IGNOU's program quality compared with the traditional university and correspondence college programming should be documented. Additionally, data should be collected on the impact of IGNOU's continuing and lifelong educational programs in relation to those offered by professional and ancillary agencies. A final area for comparative data collection should be in the area of IGNOU's relation to meeting the national development goals, as compared with the traditional university and correspondence college programs.

Additionally, compilation of data on IGNOU will contribute to the comparative research on open universities throughout the world.

Expansion of access to higher education compared with those nations that impose restrictions on admission and the relative impact on national development goals is valuable. Types of programs -- certificate, diploma and degree -- and their relation to employment prospects and promotion is a viable topic for international comparison. Actual impact on the standard of living vis a vis nations not employing an innovative approach to national development training could also be explored.

Because the IGNOU's creation is so recent, following the progression and impact from the beginning will provide solid documentation of success/failure. Research will also permit alteration as an ongoing facet of program development. It is the latter which is envisioned. It is encouraging to note that IGNOU staff recognize the importance of data collection and research and have initiated the former with the opening of the university.

The Indira Gandhi National Open University has the power and the energy to alter India's higher education. It is the one, single force since Independence that has the potential for generating reform. Subsequent investigations are important to document its impact and contribute to worldwide knowledge on open universities.

APPENDIX A

RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

The following list includes those United States participants who were contacted and/or interviewed by telephone.

Dr. Philip Altbach, State University of New York at Buffalo

Mr. David Burleson, Southeast Asia Programs, UNICEF

Mr. Don Camp, NEA/IND India Desk, United States Department of State

Mr. Nat Colletta, India Desk, The World Bank

Ms. Margaret Fahs, International Division Director, National Association of State Colleges and Land Grant Universities

Dr. Seymour Fersh, International Programs, Brevard Community College

Ms. Lydia Gomes, India Desk, Council for the International Exchange of Scholars

Dr. Lalit Gujral, Consul, Education and Culture, Consulate of India/NY

Mr. Julian Crandall Hollick, India Program Director, National Public Radio

Mr. Robert L. Jacobsen, International Editor, <u>The Chronicle of Higher Education</u>

Dr. Donald Johnson, SEHNAP/Intercultural Education, New York University

Ms. Clara Sue Kidwell, Indian Studies Department, University of California at Berkeley

Dr. Zareen Karani Lam, Director, International Studies Program, Lesley College

Dr. David Lelyveld, Dean of Student Affairs, School of General Studies, Columbia University

Ms. Carolyn Mainzer, India Program Officer, United States Information Agency

Ms. Karen McGuinness, India Program Office, The Ford Foundation

Mr. Patrick Montesano, International Division, Academy of Educational Development

Dr. Veena Oldenburg, Professor, Sarah Lawrence College

Mr. Timothy Plummer, Director, Educational Center, The Asia Society

Dr. Richard Skolnick, Division Chief, India Department, The World Bank

Mr. Somar, Asia Desk Office, United Nations Program Development

Ms. Carol Strevy, India Program Officer, Institute of International Education

Dr. Leo Sweeney, Director of Administration and Registration, University of Kansas

Mr. S. Vardarjan, Chief Planning Consultant, Government of India (Visiting New York City)

Dr. Valerie Woolston, Director, International Education Services, University of Maryland-College Park

The following list includes those India participants who were interviewed in India. Some of these individuals were interviewed more than once.

Mr. Lal Adwani, Director of Handicapped Services, Indira Gandhi National Open University

Mr. Rais Ahmed, former Vice-Chair, University Grants Commission

Dr. B. Bhardwaja, Lecturer in Political Science and Acting Principal, University of Delhi Correspondence College

Dr. Satya Bushan, Driector, National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration

Dr. S. N. Chaturvedi, Director, Regional Services, Indira Gandhi National Open University

Mr. J. Chaudhury, Director of Training for Regional Student Center Counsellors, Indira Gandhi National Open University

Dr. Malavika Karlekar, Professor and Director, Center for Women's Development Studies

Dr. B. N. Koul, Professor of Distance Education, Indira Gandhi National Open University

Miss Sujaya Krishnan, Desk Officer, University and Higher Education Division, Ministry of Human Resource Development

Dr. Anjni Kumar, Joint Secretary, Association of Indian Universities

Dr. Jagdish Narain, Secretary, Association of Indian Universities

Shrimati Sharada Nayak, Director, United States Education Foundation in India

Dr. Ramlal Parikh, Vice-Chancellor, Gujarat Vidyapith, Ahmendabad, and Member, University Grants Commission

Mr. C. R. Pillai, Deputy, Secretary, University & Higher Education Division, Ministry of Human Resource Development

Dr. J. Veera Raghavan, Secretary, Ministry of Human Resource Development

Dr. Moonis Raza, Vice-Chancellor, Delhi University

Professor G. Ram Reddy, Vice-Chancellor, Indira Gandhi National Open University

Dr. Anand Sarup, former Secretary, Ministry of Education

Mr. P. Satyanaryana, Joint Director, Indira Gandhi National Open University

Dr. G. D. Sharma, Head, Higher Education Unit, National Institute for Planning and Administration

Mr. J. K. Sharma, Deputy Registrar, University of Delhi Correspondence College

Mr. B. P. Shenoy, Head Librarian, Indira Gandhi National Open University

Mr. Bakshish Singh, Administrator, Indira Gandhi National Open University

Dr. Mohinder Singh, Dean of Colleges, Delhi University

Dr. Sutinder Singh, Head Librarian, Association of Indian Universities

APPENDIX B

U. S. PROTOCOLS

Currently, who are the significant educationists in India?

What contextual factors affect educational policy and planning in India today?

- Historically
- Socially
- Politically
- Economically
- Educationally

What do you see as the major educational trends in India today?

What do you see as the educational trends of the future in India?

Are you familiar with higher educational reforms currently underway in India?

- If 'Yes,' which ones?
- Would you critique these in terms of context?

Are you familiar with the Indira Gandhi National Open University?

- If 'Yes,' would you contextually critique the plan?

Do you have any suggestions for undertaking research on innovative eductional policy and planning in India?

Whom do you recommend that I interview in India, both in education and in the central government, to obtain information regarding the restructuring of higher education and the open university?

APPENDIX C

INDIA PROTOCOLS

Issue Emergence

What was the perceived problem necessitating educational reform?

What was the contextual framework underlying the overall need for
educational reform?

- Historical
- Social
- Political
- Economic
- Educational

Once the issue was recognized, what research was done to assist in
policy formation? Who did the research?

How were societal, economic and educational long-term outlooks and
opportunities determined and interrelated with the significant
data?

What specific goals emerged from the evaluation of the context, the
data and the long term outlook/opportunities?

Policy Formation and Authorization/IGNOU

Once the issue was recognized, what research was done to assist in
policy formation? Who did the research?

What criteria were employed to evaluate the proposed solutions and at
what level was the evaluation conducted?

How was the final solution projected to 'fit' into the existing state
and national higher education systems?

How was the authorization plan formulated?

Who formulated the authorization plan?

What were the components of the authorization plan?
- Governance
- Funding
- Administration
- Authority

How was authorization secured?

What were the major issues/problems/concessions behind authorization?

What was the final authorization plan?
- Process
- Time line
- Primary personnel

Program Implementation

Follwing authorization, how was the resultant policy translated into
    objectives?

Who delineated the operational plan?

How was this plan conceptualized?

What contextual concerns entered into the operational plan concept?

How was the Vice-Chancellor selected?

What fiscal, personnel, governance and administrative authorities were
    delegated to the IGNOU?

To which agency/group is the Vice-Chancellor accountable?

What ongoing, reflective feedback process was implemented to evaluate
    progress?

Who are the Vice-Chancellor's advisors?

Evaluation

Contextually, what were the major successes/obstacles in the planning
    and policy process?

What solutions were generated to the obstacles/problems?

How was the impact of these solutions evaluated?

What modifications to the original plan/policy have been made?

Why were they made?

General Questions

Do you see the open university in India as part of a trend?
- Nationally
- Worldwide

What future problems do you forsee for India's Open University?

Who are the relevant players of the future?

What applications/lessons for other nations have emerged from this
planning and policy experience?

What happens if the IGNOU succeeds/fails?
- Historicallfy
- Socially
- Politically
- Economically
- Educationally

What are the implications for India and for other nations?

APPENDIX D

IGNOU INFORMATION BROCHURE

Indira Gandhi
National Open University

New Delhi

India

1985

Student Services

To enable students to have regular contacts with the University, Study Centres will be established in different parts of the country. At these centres laboratories, library, radio and TV, audio and visual facilities will be provided. The study centres will be located in the existing educational institutions and will normally function on all holidays and Sundays, and on working days in the evenings. To coordinate the working of the study centres. Regional Centres will be established in different parts of the country.

Evaluation

Evaluation is a continuous process in the Open University system. Self-assessment, tutor assessement and university assessment are the three important components of student evaluation.

Governance

The President of India is the Visitor of the University. The Board of Management, Academic Council, Planning Board, Finance Committee and Board of Recognition are the important authorities. Academic activities are undertaken by the Schools of Studies.

The Vice-Chancellor, Pro-Vice-Chancellors, Directors. Finance Officer and Registrars are the important officers of the University. Competent academics selected on an all-India basis will man the Schools of Studies.

For further information write to the:

Indira Gandhi
National Open University
New Y.M.C.A. Building
1, Jaisingh Road
New Delhi-110001.

What is the Open University?

The concept of an Open University is an important innovation of this century. It aims to bring about revolutionary changes in the system of learning. A statutorily established autonomous institution, it offers opportunities for higher education to all those who desire and seek it. The learner is free to pace and time his studies according to his or her convenience. Thus rigidity is absent. The University provides access to higher education to adults who desire to improve their qualifications or sharpen their skills and competence. It makes life-long learning a reality. It is built on the concept aimed at democratising higher education.

History

The idea of establishing an Open University in India was mooted as early as 1970. A Working Group under the chairmanship of Shri G. Parthasarathy considered the proposal and recommended its establishment. Prime Minister Shri Rajiv Gandhi gave expression to this proposal in the form of a policy announcement in early 1985. Soon after, a committee was constituted under the convenorship of Prof G. Ram Reddy to prepare the draft Bill and work out details of establishing the National Open University. The Indira Gandhi National Open University was established in September 1985 by an Act of Parliament. The University was formally launched on 19th November 1985 by the Prime Minister of India, Shri Rajiv Gandhi. The University has jurisdiction over the whole of India.

Features

The most important features of the Open University are: relaxed entry regulations; study according to the student's own pace and convenience; flexibility in choosing the combination of courses from a wide range of disciplines; study from the student's own chosen place; and use of modern educational and communication technology.

Objectives

The Indira Gandhi National Open University was established to advance and disseminate learning and knowledge by a diversity of means. It provides opportunities for higher education to large segments of population and promotes the educational well-being of the community. It encourages open university and distance education systems in the country by coordinating and standardising the systems throughout the country. It aims at relating education to the needs of employment, to provide access to higher education to the disadvantaged groups and to unlock opportunities for upgrading knowledge and skills. It also aims at promoting national integration and integrated development of the human personality. Its objective is to impart quality education at the university stage.

Location

The University is located in New Delhi. It is housed temporarily at No. 1, Jaisingh Road, Connaught Place, in the heart of the capital of India. Its permanent campus will be on a 100-acre plot of land at Maidan Garhi in the southern environs of the city. Plans are under way for developing the campus and for construction of buildings. The University proposes to operate from its new campus in about a year.

Academic Programmes

The University proposes to start its academic programmes from mid-1986. It offers both short and long-term academic programmes in the areas of general education, continuing education and extension education to meet the varied requirements of different categories of people living in both urban, rural and hill areas, young and old, housewives, drop-outs, the self-employed, etc. It offers certificate, diploma, graduate and post-graduate courses in various disciplines and subjects. It also offers facilities for research.

Flexibility is the corner-stone of the University's academic programmes. It allows mobility from one system to another and from one programme to another. The duration of study is flexible enabling the student to move from a lower level programme to a higher level one. For this purpose the courses are organised in a modular form.

Fields of Study

The University proposes to offer courses in the areas of Humanities, Sciences, Social Sciences, Education, Law, Health Sciences, Engineering and Technology, Fine Arts, Management and Commerce, and Agricultural Sciences. The emphasis will be on inter-disciplinary and multi-disciplinary programmes. Schools of Studies of the University will design the academic programmes. The University will utilise the best talent available in the country in the preparation of the course material.

Instructional Methods

The methods of instruction in the Open University will be different from those employed in the conventional universities. It uses well-tested and scientifically tried out methods of distance education, such as printed material, radio and television broadcasts, audio and video cassettes. In addition, there will be personal contact programmes and summer schools for face-to-face instruction. In the study of science subjects and technology, home experiment kits will be supplied to the students to enable them to undertake practicals on their own. Guidance and counselling are built into the system.

Enrolment

The University does not stipulate any entry qualifications to its general education programmes. But to ensure that the candidates possess the required maturity and understanding to pursue the courses, the University stipulates certain conditions. The emphasis will be on possession of required competence and maturity rather than on the flaunting of degrees and diplomas.

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