CHAPTER I
**INTRODUCTION**

1.1 Higher Educations and Educational System

Education has continued to evolve, diversify and extend its reach and coverage since the existence of human history. Every country of the world develops its system of education to express and promote its unique socio-cultural identity and also to meet the challenges of the times. Higher education is the system in which the inputs are the secondary students, the outputs are the graduates, postgraduates, and doctoral, who become the most important resource and assets of nation building. Higher education occupies a special position in the educational system of any nation, because it is at the apex of the entire educational structure and thus influences all levels of education. In fact by providing manpower for many areas of production, planning, management and technological development, it influences practically every important national activity.

According to the Encyclopaedia Britannica¹, the best definition of higher education may be the one devised and accepted in 1962 by 44 nations participating in a UNESCO conference on higher education in Africa:

¹ *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, vol. VIII, p.857
'Higher education is defined as all types of education (academic, professional, technological or teacher education) provided in institutions such as universities, liberal arts colleges, technological institutions and teachers colleges for which - (a) the basic entrance requirement is completion of secondary education, (b) the usual entrance age is about 18 years and (c) in which the courses lead to giving of named award (degree, diploma or certificate) of higher studies'.

The UNESCO world conference on higher education (1998) proclaimed that, 'education is a fundamental pillar of human rights, democracy, sustainable development and peace'. The draft proposal on higher education for 21st century envisages the quality of higher education as a multidimensional concept and institutions of higher learning must play a role in identifying and addressing the issues that affect the well being of communities, nations and global society. Higher education institutions should no more be considered as the centre of traditional teaching and learning centres, rather they must be recognised as learning organisations.

There are immense variations in the higher education development of various world nations. One must make distinctions concerning regions and countries. Differing educational policies and varying levels of social and economic development have created wide variations in the scope and nature of higher education.²

There is significant difference on the policies, goal, objectives and ideology between the advanced developing countries and the third world countries.

Even the advanced developing countries are of course not all alike; they have different ideological and cultural perspectives and certainly have their share of security and socio-economic problems, but they are nonetheless in a relatively favoured position in terms of the development of an academic system.\(^3\)

Higher education constitutes a very important socio-cultural institution in the third world context- not only because it trains elites and provides the basis for a technological society- but because it is the most important intellectual agency with widespread impact on culture, politics, and ideology.

'"The third world countries have adopted widely different policies concerning higher education and these policies have had a major impact with the nature of academic systems, on their orientations and curricular and on their societal roles.'\(^4\) India is the largest third world nations with its size and population, and having a well developed higher education system with a large number of trained scholars and considerable infrastructures. India plays an effective role on the development and progress in higher education of the third world countries by adopting its own policies and programmes in different field.

\(^4\) Ibid., p.5
The National Policy on Education (1986) characterizes higher education as a crucial factor for survival, providing the Indian people with 'an opportunity to reflect on the critical, social, economic, cultural moral and spiritual issues facing humanity. It contributes to national development through dissemination of specialised knowledge and skills. It is, therefore, a crucial factor for survival. Being at the apex of the educational pyramid, it has also a key role in producing teachers for the education system.'

Higher education institutions include colleges, universities, institutions deemed to be universities, institutions of national importance. Universities are of various kinds, with a single or many faculties, affiliating and non-affiliating, one campus or multi-campus for general education. Instead of that there are some technical universities, agricultural universities and institutions of higher studies of medicine, science and research, engineering, technology, social science, culture and language, and management deemed to be university. The colleges, which offer undergraduate or post-graduate or both the courses are generally under government management, Govt.-aided or private management affiliated to a university or autonomous in nature.

After independence, Government of India made its own policy of higher education on its own perceptions, based on ideological, cultural, and political values. Dr. Radhakrishnan, as the Chairman of University Education Commission 1948, prepared out the report with the imprint 'Education for Excellence'.
The commission's report said that education is 'to lead us from darkness to light, to free us from every kind of domination except that of reason- to free us from the shackles of ignorance, prejudice and unfounded belief'.

Higher education in India is coordinated by several agencies. While most of general higher education falls within the jurisdiction of University Grants Commission (UGC), technical and management education falls under All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE). medical and dental education falls under Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR) and agriculture and veterinary education under Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR). There are some other statutory bodies like Medical Council of India, Central Council of Indian Medicine, the Homoeopathy Central Council, Bar Council of India, Institute of Engineers of India, National Council of Teacher Education (NCTE), All India Institute of Management Studies (AIIMS) and few such bodies at state levels, which coordinated higher education in India. There is yet another type of coordinating agency of higher education, called Association of Indian Universities (AIU).

India has a uniform pattern of education 10+2+3 after coming into existence of National Policy Statement on Education, 1968, which implies 10 years of school education at secondary level, 2 years at higher/senior secondary school or intermediate/ junior college level and 3 years under-graduate or first-degree level of general education. The duration of first-degree courses of professional and technical education varies according to the requirement.
The University Grants Commission (UGC) of India, rightly mentioned the goal of higher education of the country in the report of the Task Force as- 'higher education should strive for academic excellence, and progress of arts and science. Education, research and extension should be conducted in conformity with our national needs and priorities and ensure that our best talents make befitting contributions to international endeavour on societal needs'.

The Information Technology (IT) has come to occupy the centre stage of development and has influenced all aspects of human life. Education is not an exception. According to UNESCO report- 'Learning the Treasure Within' (1996) consider IT as "scientific, technological and engineering disciplines and the management, techniques used in information handling and processing, their application, computers and their interaction with men and machines, and associated social, economical and cultural matters". The Information Technology has lots of potentiality to improve the quality and management in different aspects of Higher Education.
1.2 Growth of Higher Education in India

'While other civilisation have perished, or have been absorbed in the changes that have transpired in the march of over five thousand years, the Indian Civilization, which is contemporary with those of Egypt and Babylon, is still functioning.'

Veda is the basis of the Hindu religion. Religion as the ancient Hindus understood it, practically dominated every sphere of their national life. The fundamental principles of social, political and economic life were welded into a comprehensive theory, which is called religion in Hindu thought.

The Indian education system, which begins with the learning of hymns of Vedas orally, has come across over more than five thousand years to day. The changing circumstances constitute a challenge to societies and out of the efforts and sufferings, entails thoughts and ideas of education in mind. As new thoughts, ideas and believes are emerges into the society, perception and understanding about education changes, innovations are coming on the way, and education continuously grow effectively.

Starting with higher education in Vedic system, to attain by one the supreme knowledge or highest knowledge technically called Paravidya in Gurus' Ashram; the Upsampada in Buddhist education and to the transition of students from secondary school to higher learning institution, college and university in the present form of Indian educational system can be divided into four distinct periods depending on religion, social, cultural and political transformations -

i) Ancient Period (before 1012 A.D.)

ii) Medieval Period (1012 A.D. to 1757 A.D.)

iii) British Period (1757 A.D. to 1947 A.D.), and

iv) Post-Independence Period (After 1947 A.D.)

1.2.1 Ancient Period (Before 1012 A.D.)

Dr. Radhakrishnan, in his Presidential farewell address to the nation on May 12, 1967 reaffirmed his faith in the spirit of India as, the culture which we have inherited is an ancient one and it has faced many waves of invasion of Yavanas, Sakas, Hunas, Pathans and Mongals, among others and is still enduring.

Ancient Indian Education is also to be understood as being ultimately the outcome of the Indian theory of knowledge and a part of the corresponding scheme of life and values. In ancient India, the system of education was fixed and standardised on the basis of certain universally admitted and established ideals and practices by the term Brahmacharya.
‘The Atharvaveda is the only Veda which directly extols, exalts and expands this fundamental system and institution of Brahmacharya, which forms the foundation of the entire structure of Hindu thought and life.

Several types of institutions developed in course of time for preservation and propagation of Vedic literature, which rested on the oral tradition, known as Sathas, Charanas, Parishadas, Kalas, Gotras etc. The Samhitas and Brahmanas were handed down from generation to generation, to foster and to propagate the Vedic literature until it extended to all parts of a vast country through establishing the institutions - Asramas, Parishadas, Conference and Courts of king as centres of learning. The vital principle of ancient Indian education was that of individual and intimate relationship between Gurus and Pupils as a member of the same family living in Gurus' Ashram as the institution of learning, which did not favour the growth of large educational institutions at that time.

The beginning of collective life of the community or of organisation in education may be traced to the Vedic period. The Vedic Samghas, Parishadas, Charakas, Mathas were the significant references traced from the Regvada and Upanishads. Later, Brahminical institutions like Mathas and regular Colleges were the most significant references. Similarly, Jainism and Buddhism with their emphasis upon the system for attainment of Budhahood or Enlightenment, established the Viharas and Monasteries.

"The history of India reveals that the oldest university that established at Nalanda can be traced from the 'History of Buddhism', known to have attracted scholars from different parts of India. The Nalanda even in the fifth century was still the seat of Brahmanical learning and the chosen home of the Tirthikas. This fact may explain, why it did not receive any notice in the hands of Fa-Hien in whose evidence we come, however, upon solid historical ground"*. Takkasila (Taxila) was a centre of higher learning in Buddhist literature, as well as Brahmanic intellectual centre. It was also the centre of Brahmanic learning from the fourth or fifth century B.C. It was here at the time of Alexander's invasion that the Greeks first came into contact with Brahmanic philosophers. Students here could get instruction in almost any subject, religious or secular from the Vedas to mathematics, medicine, astrology and archery.

From the life of Huien-Tsang who was a student of Nalanda, it can be learnt that several foreign scholars from distant countries like China, Korea, Tibet and Tokhara came to India to study at Nalanda. Out of the 10,000 residents at Nalanda, 1510 belonged to the ranks of teachers. Nalanda was the centre of all higher learning in all its branches during that period. Valabhi University (A.D. 475-775) like Nalanda was the outcome of royal benefactions. According to I-tsing, Nalanda and Valabhi were the two places in India, where scholars used to reside for two or three years to complete their education.

The University of Vikramasila (A.D. 800) was also the result of royal benefactions. The university came to have six colleges with a staff of the standard strength of 108 teachers.9

Jagaddala University came into existence during the reign of king Rama Pala of Bengal and Magadha (A.D. 1084-1130). The university could barely work for a hundred years till the time of Moslem invasion sweeping it away in A.D. 1203. 'Mithila (A.D. 1097) was the centre of learning of scientific subjects. It developed a famous school of Nyaya, which flourished from the twelfth to the fifteenth century A.D. under the great masters of Logic, Gangisa, Vardhamana, Pakshadhara and others.'10

The establishment of the institutions of higher learning in ancient India were found more in south, from the records of colleges endowed by temple charities and in inscriptions, from the tenth century onwards. Narayana a minister of the Rashtrakuta Emperor Krishna III founded a temple of the Trayi-Purusha, the hall that accommodated a Sanskrit College in course of time the college had as many as twenty-seven hostels for residence of its students who hailed from different provinces. An inscription records the endowment made by a village of certain charities, which included the establishment of Vedic College at Ennayiram in South Arcot District. 'Belgame an important centre of education in ancient Mysore, King Bhoja of Malwa (A.D. 1018-60) established a college at his capital Dhara.'

9 Ibid., p.565
10 Ibid., pp.595-597
11 Ibid., pp.367-373
1.2.2 Medieval Period (1012-1757 A.D.)

Historians are of the view that Mahmood invaded India to plunder her wealth; but the real founder of Muslim rule in India was Muhammad Ghori, the third Muslim invader of India (1175-1206 A.D.). With the establishment of Muslim empire in India, the Muslim preachers got an extensive region for the spread of Islam.

'Although the Muslim rulers were warrior they paid some attention to the development of education. In fact they made some arrangements for education of Muslims subjects and founded some Maktabs (Schools) and Madrasas\(^\text{12}\) (Colleges). Besides Persian, Hindi and Sanskrit languages and literatures also flourished during this period. 'Muslim rulers did not patronise Sanskrit literature. No doubt, some Sanskrit books were translated into Persian during this period but it was not the result of the love of Muslim rulers for Sanskrit literature but the utility of these books compelled them to do so.'\(^\text{13}\)

The invasion of Babar proved to be the last significant reason of the decline of the sultanate of Delhi after 1526 A.D. and it also laid the foundation of the Mughal Empire in India. Mughal rulers were scholars and lovers of literature and arts; they had keen interest in education. During the reign of Babar, a madrasa was established in Delhi in which besides theology, mathematics, geography and astrology were taught.


\(^\text{13}\) Ibid., p- 287
Humayun, next to the Babar had founded two madrasas in Agra and Delhi. Akbar was himself uneducated but he took keen interest in the progress of education and established various muktabs and madrasas.

The Mughal emperors Jahangir, Shah Jahan and Aurangzeb following in the footsteps of their ancestors established schools and colleges and awarded scholarships to the poor and needy students. During this time students were promoted from lower to higher class according to the opinion of the teachers concerned and generally three types of degrees viz., Fazil, Alim and Kabil were awarded to the students in Muslim system of education. Agra, Delhi, Fatehpur, Ambala, Lucknow, Guwalior, Allahbad, Kashmir, Lahore and Jaunpur were the centres of Muslim education and Persian was the medium of instruction.

During the Mughal period Banaras, Mathura, Allahbad, Nadia, Ayodhya, Srinagar and Mithila were prominent centres for the education of the Hindus. No significant change had been observed in the education system of India during this period as compared to the ancient period except some growth of educational institutions.

1.2.3 British Period (1757-1947 A.D.)

The battle of Plassey (1757) ended Sirajuddaula's rule in Bengal and gave a new turn to the history of India. It not only extended the influence of the English in India but also founded the British Empire in India under the Governorship of Robert Clive.
After Clive, Warren Hastings became the Governor of East India Company (1772-1785 A.D.). 'In a letter to the Court of Directors dated 21 February 1784, Warren Hastings referred to the decayed remains of schools in every capital, town and city of North India and the Decan.' The numerous political convulsions in the country created abnormal conditions hardly conducive to intellectual pursuits both in teachers and pupils.

The Court of Directors refused to take on itself the responsibility for education of the people of India and decided to leave education to private effort. However, Warren Hastings set-up the Calcutta Madrasa in 1781 for the study and learning of Persian and Arabic. With the efforts of Janathan Duncan, the British Resident at Banaras, a Sanskrit College was opened at Banaras for 'the cultivation of the laws, literature and religion of Hindus.'

In the same time Christian Missionaries decried the attempts to revive an out-of-date system of education and advocated the teaching of western literature and Christian religion through the medium of English. Mention may be made that the Forth William College established by Lord Wellesley in 1800 for the training of Civil Servants of the company in the languages and customs of India. Later the Directors of the company ordered the closure of the college in 1882.


15 Ibid., p.342
In the beginning the British Government did not pay any attention to the development of education in India. The Court of Directors made a humble beginning towards the development of education in India in 1813, when the Charter Act (1813) provided for an annual expenditure of one lakh of rupees for the education of Indians. A grant was sanctioned for the Calcutta Hindu College set-up in 1817 by enlightened Bengalis, which imparted instruction mainly in English language. In the same time the Government also set-up three Sanskrit Colleges, at Calcutta, Delhi and Agra to develop vernacular languages.

As a member of the Executive Council, McCaulay wrote his famous Minute on educational policy dated 2 February 1835 and place it before the Council and Lord William Bentinck accepted the view point of McCaulay, that in the future the object of the Company's Government should be the promotion of European literature and sciences, through the medium of English language; and in future all funds were to be spent for that purpose. Hereafter the Government made half-hearted efforts to develop vernacular languages and the development of literature in these languages was left to the genius and needs of the people who spoke these languages.

No significant development of educational system had been taken place during this period till the year 1853. At the time of renewal of the Charter of the East India Company in 1853 the House of Commons appointed a Select Committee, which made a through enquiry into development of education in India. The result was Wood's Despatch, so called after Sir Charles Wood, the then President of the Board of Control.
The modern Indian Educational System took shape with Wood’s Educational Despatch of 1854, which led to the opening of the first three Universities in 1857, at Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. All three were constituted on the model of London University. At that time those universities were to act purely as examining bodies, affiliated institutions that admitted students and trained. Another development in that period was the setting up of the teaching-cum-examining universities. The Punjab University was founded in 1882 as ‘the supreme literary, supreme teaching and supreme examining body.’ The Allahabad University was set-up in 1887 at Allahabad.

In 1881-82, the number of Secondary Schools was 3916, Arts and Professional Colleges 72, in 1901-02 it raised to 5124 and 191 respectively. Curzon with his characteristic zeal for improvement of all branches of administration, sought to reconstruct education in India and appointed a Commission on 27 January 1902 to enquire into the condition and prospects of universities in India. As a result of the report of the recommendations of the commission the Indian Universities Act was passed in 1904. The nationalist mind saw in Curzon’s policies an attempt to strengthen imperialism and sabotage development of national feelings. The Sadler Commission of 1917 commented that the Act of 1904 made ‘the Indian universities among most completely governmental universities in the world.’

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During the period 1916-21, seven new universities came into existence namely, Mysore, Patna, Banaras, Aligarh, Dacca, Lucknow and Osmania. The Sadler Commission found that 'an effective synthesis between college and university was still undiscovered' and that 'the foundation of a sound university organisation had not yet been laid.' Thus the state of Indian universities and colleges in 1920 was very similar to what it had been when Curzon assumed office.

As a result of the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms of 1919, the Department of Education was transferred to the control of popular ministers in the various provinces. This put the provincial governments in a financial hurdle and prevented from taking up ambitious schemes of educational expansion. Despite all these handicaps, there was considerable expansion of education, mostly by philanthropic efforts. Before independence, 19 universities and colleges grew-up in different metropolitan cities of India. During the British regime the policy laid down in 1835 and reaffirmed in the Wood’s Despatch of 1854 was adhered to till 1947 with minor modifications.
1.2.4 Post-Independence Period (After 1947 A.D.)

The Indian Independence Act 1947 not only closed a chapter of British Rule; it also at the same time opened a new and glorious chapter for free India. The Government of India immediately set-up the University Education Commission in 1948, under the Chairmanship of Dr. S. Radhakrishnan, with the objectives, suggest measures for improvement and extension of the inherited system of education, that may be necessary to suit present and future requirements of the country. This was the first commission and it was a major landmark of higher education in independent India.

As per recommendation of the University Education Commission, 1949, the University Grants Commission (UGC) was set-up in 1953, to ensure the promotion and co-ordination of university education and the determination and maintenance of standard of teaching, examination and research in university.

The Secondary Education Commission, 1952-53, set-up by the Government of India to enquire into and report on the present position of secondary education in India, and to suggest measure for its organisation and improvement, so that a sound and reasonably uniform system of secondary education suited to our needs and resources may be provided for the whole country.
The Education Commission 1964-66 (Kothari Commission) was the sixth Commission in the history of Education Commission in India, starting with the Indian Education Commission (1882-83) under Chairmanship of William Hunter. This was a unique commission in the sense that it was not limited to specific sectors or aspects of education, but to have a comprehensive review of the entire educational system. Another unique feature of the commission was its conviction that education is the most powerful instrument of the national development. Bearing in mind the recommendations of Education Commission 1964-66, the Government of India issued a National Policy on Education in 1968.

The Government of India stated that it was convinced that this would involve a transformation of the system to relate it more closely to the life of people, a continuous effort to expand educational opportunity, a sustained and intensive endeavour to raise the quality of education at all stages, and emphasis in the development of science and technology and cultivation of moral and social values.

In January 1985, the then Prime Minister of India announced that a New Education Policy would be formulated in the country. There was a countrywide debate on educational reforms and finally the National Policy on Education, 1986 was approved by the Parliament in May 1986. Subsequently 'Programme of Action' was chalked out for the implementation of the policy. The major objective of NPE, 1986 was to prepare the Indian people and the nation to face the challenge of the twenty first century.

In free India many Commissions and Committees had been appointed to survey the educational scene and suggest suitable measures for bring about education reforms in various levels. Since independence there is an appreciable growth in education in different discipline in India. In Higher Education, while in 1947 there were only 19 universities in the country, the figure rose to 254 by January 1999. The number of colleges had also substantially increased 933 in 1947 to over 11089 by January 1999 during this period.
Table 1.1

Growth of Colleges (UC+AC) in N-E India (1991-92 to 1998-99)

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The important landmarks in the evolution of policy in higher education are-

i) University Education Commission, 1948-49.
The twenty first century will be in the grip of technological changes, particularly in the field of information and communication technology. The National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education set-up by the Government of U.K. chaired by Sir Ron Dearing has emphatically brought out the scope for the innovative use of new communication and information technologies to improve the quality and flexibility of higher education and its management.

The growing need for technical knowledge demands changes both in the quantity and in the quality of the higher education and to restructure of courses in different disciplines at higher education level. The Department of Science and Technology (DST) of India established the Technology Information and Assessment Council (TIFAC) in 1988, which recently brought out a series of ‘Technology Vision for India 2020’ to set a road map for India to be a developed nation by the year 2020.

In view of this, few universities of India have restructured their Degree and Master Degree level courses and have introduced some new courses- like Bachelor of Information Technology (BIT), Master of Information Technology (MIT), Bachelor of Computer Application (BCA), Master of Computer Application (MCA), Bachelor of Science in Computer (B.Sc. Com.), Bachelor of Software System (B.S.S.), Bachelor of Information Science (BIS) etc.
1.3 Progress of Education and Higher Education in Assam

Assam is situated in one of the greatest routes of migration of mankind. The Assam range broadly divided Assam into two Valleys - the Brahmaputra Valley or Assam Valley and the Surma Valley or Barak Valley. Hinduism is the dominant religion in Assam. Next to it is Islam. Other faiths like Christianity, Buddhism, Jainism, and Sikhism etc. have also their flowers. Ancient Assam History is marked by the gradual expansion of Aryan culture in the land. In ancient days, Assam was known as Pragjoytisha and later as Kamrupa.

Education in Ancient Assam, as elsewhere in India, centred round the Guru- Griha, Sanskrit Tolas and Village Schools provided by the Brahmanas of Agrahara Villages (A little knowledge had about the curriculum of the study). The religious epics of Assam, portrayed the study of Vidya and Kala. Vidya included four Vedas; four Upa-Vedas consisting of the Ayurveda, Dhanurveda, Gandharvaveda, Tantras and six Vedangas and Kala included the study of various arts like music, dancing and painting.\textsuperscript{19}

\textsuperscript{19} S. L. Baruah, (1985), \textit{A Comprehensive History of Assam}. Delhi: Munshiram Monoharlal Publishers Pvt. Ltd., p 74
The vernacular literature came with the Vaishnava reformers, the most distinguished among them being Sankardeva and Madhavadeva. With the growth of Satra institutions and Namghara, there developed new centres of learning and education. The traditional education consisting of Sanskrit Grammar, Lexicon, the Religious Texts etc., was imparted as in ancient days, in the Sanskrit tolas under Brahmana teachers.20

The period from 1826 to 1919 is a significant and formative epoch in the history of Assam. It witnessed the end of the independent Ahom Monarchy that had ruled the valley of the Brahmaputra for nearly six centuries and the establishment of British Sovereignty in Assam. By an article of treaty of Yandaboo, in February 1826, the East India Company got the right to establish its political control over any of the principalities concerned i.e. the Ahom Kingdom of the Brahmaputra Valley, Chachar, Jayantia and Manipur. In 1824, the District of Sylhet was included in the general system of defensive arrangements for the (eastern) frontier.21 Sylhet on the bank of the river Surma was an important town next to Guwahati of the province of Assam.

In October 1905, Assam was amalgamated with the districts of Dacca, Chittagong and Rajshahi Commissionership of Bengal to form a new province known as Eastern Bengal and Assam under a Lt. Governor.

20 Ibid., pp.156-157.
In 1911 His Imperial Majesty announced a new distribution of territory, Assam again became separate province under a Chief Commissioner from 1<sup>st</sup> April 1912 and in 1921 a Governorship was created for Assam.\textsuperscript{22}

The first modern school came into existence in 1835, with approval of the proposal of General Committee of Public Instruction, by the Government of India, to the establishment of an English School at Gauhati (Guwahati). Towards the end of the same year the school was started with an enrolment of fifty-eight which rose to one hundred and fifty in 1838.

To cater to the growing demand James Methie, the Collector of Guwahati, placed before the Government a scheme of Village Schools in August 1838. It envisaged the establishment of an Anglo-Vernacular school at a central site in Kamrup where a perfect knowledge of vernacular would have to be imparted besides elementary knowledge of English. In 1856-7 existing Anglo vernacular schools at Guwahati and Sibsagar were upgraded to Zilla Schools both in English and Bengali department. This was followed by similar schools at Dibrugarh (1864), Tezpur, Nowgoan (1865), Goalpara and at Silchar (1868). Anglo vernacular schools were also started at Goalpara, Jorhat, Mangaldoi and Barpeta.\textsuperscript{23}


The first modern higher educational facilities in Assam can be marked with the Guwahati School, which was raised to a collegiate level in July 1865 with an establishment of rupees twelve thousand per annum and in May 1866, the collegiate section was started. But the Government of Assam in 1876 decided to revert the school to its earlier status for disappointing results. In the meantime through the munificence of Raja Girish Chandra Roy, Zaminder of Sylhet a second grade college was started at Sylhet and named after an ancestor of the donor Murari Chand College on 1892. The college was maintained from the fees and donation of the founder; for it received neither aid nor recognition from the government until 1912.\(^{24}\)

In 1899 the attention of the Government was seriously drawn by Manik Chandra Baruah, an eminent personality of the age, for establishment of the college at Guwahati. Despite financial constraints in the wake of the great earthquake of 1897, Sir Henry John Steadman Cotton, the Chief Commissioner of Assam laid the foundation of the college on 17 June 1901, that had been gratefully named after him 'Cotton College'.\(^{25}\) This was a second grade one imparting to F.A. course of Calcutta University Under the stewardship of Principal Sudmerson the college made steady progress in university examinations.


\(^{25}\) Ibid., p.362.
Sir Lancelot Hare, Lieutenant Governor of Eastern Bengal and Assam (1906-08), with the approval of the Government of India made temporary appointments against minimum requirements of the teaching staff so as to raise the status of the Cotton College to first grade with effect from the commencement of the session 1909-10. Sir Archdale Earl, a veteran educationist and former Director of Public Instruction, Bengal sought affiliation to Honours Course in all subjects of study at Cotton College and later permitted to open post-graduate classes in English in 1912-13.

Much headway had been made in collegiate or higher education in both the valleys of the Brahmaputra and Surma. A Law class was however attached to the collegiate section of Guwahati School in 1870, but with abolition of the collegiate section in 1870, the law classes were also discontinued. Provision was made for legal education in 1885, when a law college was established at Guwahati but closed in the same year for want of students.

Again 1891-92, public led the Government of Assam to start law classes in few government high schools; Guwahati, Sylhet, Silchar and Sibsagar, but the progress was far from being satisfactory and later abolished except Guwahati, which was developed in July 1914 into full-fledged 'Earle Law College' and was named after the chief Commissioner Sir Archdale Earle.26

In the close of the 19th century technical education in Assam was represented by the Williamson Artisan School, Dibrugarh. In November 1901 sanction was accorded for establishing of a technical school at Habiganj in the district of Sylhet. Brigadier-Surgeon John Berry-White, Civil Surgeon of Dibrugarh had rendered a signal service to the cause of Medical Education in Assam. On his death 18 November 1890 he bequeathed to the endowment of a medical school in Assam. A medical school was established at Dibrugarh, by the name 'Berry-White Medical School in 1897.27

The outbreak of World War I and consequent financial stringency rendered it difficult for the government of Assam to go ahead with the scheme of development of higher education in Assam. In 1924 St. Edmond's College was established as a first college in Khasi hill region, followed by Jaganath Baruah College at Jorhat in 1931, Brindaban College at Habiganj (Sylhet) in 1931, Lady Keane College at Shillong in 1934, Guru Charan College at Silchar in 1935 and St. Marry College at Shillong in 1937. Till 1937, there were 8 general colleges including one at Sylhet28 (Which later parted from Assam in 1947), which become double in 1947-48.

27 Ibid., pp.184,191
After independence, the geo-political, socio-cultural and political administration has turbulent in North Eastern Region (NER) for demand of state-hood by each region and consequently, the administrative power and jurisdiction of Government of Assam reduced by formation of new states and union territories within it. Accordingly, the territory of Nagaland was given the status of a separate state called Nagaland in 1963, Khasi Jayantia hills and Garo hills become a new state Meghalaya in 1970, the North East Frontier Agency (NEFA) given a status of a union territory with name Arunachal in 1972 and later become a state. Similarly Mizo or Lusai hill district was separated from Assam to form another territory called Mizoram and in the same year former union territory Manipur become a state.

Stepping on the road of 20th century with a single full-fledged college of higher education (Cotton College, 1901) and without a university in the whole North Eastern Region, the region made a remarkable progress in the field of education between the period of independence to the last milestone of the century. All the territories of NER has become states in due course of time to fulfil the long felt demand of the people of each region and now, have their own people representative government for social, political, cultural and economic development. Within the framework of their own education policy, education in different levels has progressed rapidly along with the other parts of India.

At present every state has its full-fledged University and colleges of general and technical education for development of higher education as well as to produce qualitative and quantitative human resources.

The growth of higher education became rapid after independence in Assam and at the doorstep of twenty first century became a centre of higher learning with five universities (two central universities), 327 general colleges, three medical colleges, three engineering colleges, 37 teacher training and law colleges, one IIT, one management institute, one ayurvedic college, various centres of correspondence education of higher learning of various Indian universities like, IGNOU, MKU, IIPU, MCRP, GG University, Manipal University etc. and have a regional office of UGC at Guwahati, centre of Advance Science and Technology and a Regional Research laboratory at Jorhat for advancement of higher learning of this region.
1.3.1 Gauhati University

The long felt demand and movement of the people of North East India for a separate university of their own since early years of twenty century from British regime came to an end, when Gauhati University was established as a teaching, residential and affiliating university by the Gauhati University Act, 1947 (Assam Act XVI of 1947) passed by Assam Assembly on 15th October 1947, with the objectives to provide for instruction in such branches of learning as the university may think fit, and to make provision for research and for advancement and dissemination of knowledge. The then Prime Minster of Assam, Lokapriya Gopinath Bordoloi, formally inaugurated the University on 26th January 1948 and on that the jurisdiction of the Calcutta University and Decca Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education over North East region (except Tripura) came to an end.

The Gauhati University in its early years had the responsibilities to prescribe the courses and curricula for Matriculation and Pre-University and to conduct both the examinations till the adoption of Assam Secondary Education Act, 1961 and Assam Higher Secondary Education Act, 1984. As the first university of the NER, its jurisdiction extended over the entire NER except Tripura.

32 52\textsuperscript{nd} Annual Report, Gauhati University (1999-2000), p.viii
It is affiliated to the Association of Indian Universities, which has affiliation to the Association of Commonwealth Universities and also has completed the processes required for assessment by NAAC of University Grants Commission of India.

The establishment of the Dibrugarh University in 1965, North East Hill University (NEHU) in 1973, Manipur University in 1980, Arunachal University in 1984, Nagaland University in 1989 and Assam University in 1994 considerably reduced the jurisdiction of Gauhati University. At present it jurisdiction remains on the following districts of Assam, namely Dhubri, Goalpara, Bongaigaon, Kokrajhar, Barpeta, Nalbari, Kamrup, Darrang, Sonitpur, Nowgaon and Morigaon.

The University has at present 38 departments of Arts, Science, Commerce, and Law faculties and also conducts certificate and diploma courses in various disciplines. The University also set-up a Kokrajhar Campus on 10th July for Post-graduate studies in English, Assamese, Economics and Bodo.¹¹

1.4 **Teacher and Teachers' Role in Higher Education**

Education plays an important role in bringing about social change. In order to have the desired social change, a suitable system of education is required but the success of any educational system depends on the teachers. The teacher is considered to be the pivot of any educational system. It is being increasingly recognised that the mind is the most potent of the various facilities with which mankind is endowed and hence someone who is entrusted with nurturing of minds is definitely a person of great importance.

In common parlance- a teacher- is one who instructs, trains or imparts knowledge of a certain specialised task. However, the word is wide enough to include any person who has acquired only certain specified skills through his instructions, examples or lectures.

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**Table- 1.2**

**Growth of Colleges and University Departments of G.U. (1948-2000)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Nos. of Affiliated Colleges</th>
<th>Nos. of University Departments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1948</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000*</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: R. P. Tiwari, Development and problems of Education in NE India, p.123  
In Indian tradition therefore, the teachers is put on the highest pedestal along with one's parents and even higher than Gods one worships. Traditionally, teachers have enjoyed great respect in our country.

All religious leaders, social reformers, poets and writers have given the greatest importance to teachers. During the Vedic period, the teacher occupied a place of pride at the top of the social ladder, because he encouraged learning in society and gave wisdom to his pupils. He was considered the intellectual and spiritual father of his disciples leading them 'from the darkness of ignorance to the light of knowledge which is concealed.' Buddhist and Jains also held the teacher or preceptor in high esteem. It is worthy of note that teachers in ancient India regarded their profession as nobler and higher than any other profession.14

The distinctive contribution made by the teaching community to the development of standard in higher education has long been recognised the world over. The teaching profession is regarded as the most important profession as its social value lies in its significant contribution to the improvement in the quality of life and betterment of the society at large. Various Committees and Commissions of Education of India have emphasized the importance of the role of the teachers in education.

The Report of the Commonwealth Conference, 1974 has stated as follows, 'the teacher has a major role in educational development whether he approaches his work actively or passively. He can influence development adversely by opposing innovation or merely remaining mute in the face of a growing need for reform; on the other hand he can participate actively as an initiator himself or an interpreter of the plans devised by others.'

The role of the teacher in the educational system is recognised everywhere and at all levels. The Education Commission of India, 1964-66 has emphasized the importance and role of the teacher in the following words, 'of all the different factors which influence the quality of education and its contribution to national development, the quality, competence and character of teachers are undoubtedly the most significant. Nothing is more important than securing a sufficient supply of high quality recruits to the teaching profession, providing them with the best possible professional preparation and creating satisfactory conditions of work in which they can be fully effective.'

According to Jerome Karle- a Noble Laureate in Physics- the main task of teacher is - 'to teach students how to think deeply and independently and to enhance their ethical and moral behaviour. The extent to which a society is successful in these matters can have a profound effect on the human and cultural aspects of the society.'

C. V. Raman - Noble Laureate in Science of our country said, ‘principal function (of a teacher) is to discover talent and genius in the younger generation and to provide ample opportunity for its free expansion and expression.’

Lord Rutherford remarks, ‘Benevolent guidance, leadership and intellectual authority flowed from him and admiration, respect, trust and loyalty were returned. One would no more question his influence on those around him than one would that of the sun on the planets.’

The teacher is first of all one who stimulates, motivates, guides, in trying directs, tests and evaluates the learning of others. It is the task of the teacher to help to choose the most appropriate path and to escort the learner along this path so that he is not put undue hazards in the way.

‘It is result of a thoughtful decision by the teacher himself, made in the light of all he knows about how people learn, what his students already know and are ready to learn, and the relative success he himself has experienced various ways of helping students to learn similar things in comparable situation.’

The American Commission on Teacher Education expressed itself on the quality and importance of teachers in the following words, 'the quality of a nation depends upon the quality of its citizens. The quality of its citizens depends not exclusively but in critical measure upon the quality of their education. The quality of their education depends, more than upon any single factor, upon the quality of their teachers.'

The Ramamurti Committee to Review the NPE 1986, having recognised that teachers have to play a crucial role in the process of social transformation and that they have to shoulder complex tasks as active participation in national development.

In higher education teachers are not solely a teacher in the classroom. Teachers' role and responsibility is in providing leadership as the most informed citizen of his or her society can hardly be undermined especially in the context of developing nations. Teaching, research and extension are three integral functions of teachers in the institutions of higher learning.
The National Policy on Education 1986 (with modification undertaken in 1992) acknowledged that the status of the teacher reflects the socio-cultural ethos of a society. It has been observed that, 'the efficiency of the teaching profession and its contribution to national development in general and educational improvement in particular, will depend largely on its social status and moral. This will in its turn, depend upon two inter-related factors: economic status and civic rights of teachers, and their professional competence, character and sense of dedication.'

The basic assumption of the teacher is a professional person operating with professional skill and exercising professional judgement. It is also generally assumed that the exercise of professional skill and judgement rests upon basic knowledge, basic principles, and basic laws that are the products of scholarly activity and, in so far as possible, scientific research.

1.4.1 University Grants Commission (UGC) and College Teacher

The UGC concerned itself with the development, progress and improvement of the quality of higher education in India. In order to check the falling standards of higher education and recruitment of academically poor and uncommitted teacher the UGC introduced National Eligibility Test (NLT) in 1993 as part of the revised scales of pay for college and university teachers.

The concept of in-service training and continuing education is not new in Indian educational planning. Recommendations to this effect were made as early as 1949 in the Radhakrishnan Commission's report and later reiterated in 1964-66 by Kothari Commission.

Following the direction the UGC had been, no doubt creating some facilities in the form of seminars, summer schools, symposium and fellowships. Yet it was left to the major policy statement of 1986 to give it an organised and institutional stage within the overall framework of university system. In 1987 the Commission in one stroke established 45 new teacher-training institutions under the name of Academic Staff College (ASC).

The University Grants Commission (UGC) as per the recommendations of Sen Committee prescribed 40 hours of workload per week for teachers. This includes teaching, conducting examinations, tutorials, laboratory work, research work, supervision of extra and co-curricular activities and other administrative responsibilities. In short, during these 40 hours a college teacher is expected to discharge fourfold responsibility i.e teaching, research, administration and extension service. The UGC has prepared the code of ethics through a task force for the university/college teacher. This briefly prescribes the desired conduct in respect of teachers and their rights, teachers and their responsibilities, teachers and students, teachers and colleagues, teachers and authority, teachers and non-teaching staff, teachers and society. This document lays down broad guideline as to what the teachers should do. It clearly prescribes the behaviour of teachers and their action in keeping with the environment around them.
1.5 Concept, Meaning and Definitions of Job Satisfaction

1.5.1 Concept of Job Satisfaction

'With the advent of Human Relations movement a new concept of man is emerging which suggests that man works not only for money alone but also to satisfy his higher order needs - need to be recognised, to be appreciated and to feel a sense of achievement in whatever one does.' Employees in different establishment view their respective worlds of work in different perspectives for various reasons. They may differ in their respective personalities, needs, social backgrounds, or in demographic factors. But the fact remains that they tend to act or behave in their peculiar way on the background of their perceptions.

When a person joins an organisation, he brings with them certain hopes, expectations, drives and needs which affect his performance. Sometimes these become conspicuous immediately; but more often than not they are difficult to ascertain. This varies from person to person. However, it is highly useful to understand as to how the needs create tensions which stimulate the effort to perform and how effective performance brings satisfaction.

As the results of research began to filter into business and academic communities, it stimulated new interest in the behaviour of people at work, several conceptual developments emerged that had lasting impact on organisational behaviour.

'In 1957 Douglas McGregor presented a convincing argument that most management's personal practices, decision making, operating practice and even organisational design flow from assumption of human behaviour.'

Theories offer explanations of how and why people think, feel, and act as they do. Theories identify important variables and link them to form tentative propositions that can be tested through research. Taylor's (1911) approach to job satisfaction was based on the most pragmatic and essentially pessimistic philosophy that man is motivated by money alone. From a simple explanation based on money to a more realistic but complex approach to job satisfaction, it has come a long way. Much of the early research on motivation revolved around the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity.

It has been accepted in the study of management that the Potential Performance (P) is a product of Ability (A) and Motivation (M)

\[ P = A \times M \]

Motivation results from the match between the individual's need/values and job outcomes as well as the perceived link between engaging in work behaviours and obtaining the desired outcome.

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Motivation requires for discovering and understanding of employee's skill, drives and needs, since it originates within individuals.

The result of an effective organisational behaviour system is motivation which, when combined with employee's skills and abilities, results in the achievement of performance of goals as well as individual satisfaction. During last few decades, on the basis of empirical findings different scholars forwarded different theories of work motivation. As a result of several investigations concerning work motivation, job performance and job satisfaction, it generally came to believe that, 'A happy worker is a productive worker'.

The most well-known need theories included the works of A. Maslow, Frederick Herzberg and Alderfer, each build on the distinction between primary and secondary needs. Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943), which focuses attention on five levels, received considerable attention in the past few decades. 'Despite criticism of this theory, there is however some evidence that unless the two lower order needs (Physiological and Security) are basically satisfied, employees will not be greatly concerned with higher-order needs.'

Thus satisfaction in job results the gratification of such needs. Herzberg's 'Two- Factor Model' (1950), appears very similar to Maslow's, he concluded that two separate factors like hygiene factors and motivational factors influenced motivation of employees.

Motivators are represented by opportunities for advancement, achievement, responsibility and recognition. In Herzberg's terms they become the motivators; the factors that can lead to job satisfaction if met by organisation. The Herzberg's 'two-factor theory' suggests that the two essentials have to be recognised: firstly, the factors giving rise to job satisfaction is separate and distinct from those, which lead to job satisfaction; and secondly, finding means that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposite attitudes. All need models provides a foundation for understanding and application of behaviour modification.

A widely accepted approach to motivation is the expectancy model, also known as expectancy theory or VIE (Valence, Instrumentality, Expectancy) theory that was developed by Victor H. Vroom and has been expanded and refined by Porter and Lawler and others.11

Expectancy suggests that pay motives performance if employees perceive that their effort can accomplish job tasks, that those tasks are instrumental to receiving increase pay and that the increased pay is sufficient to satisfy their needs. VIE theory explains why students expend more effort to courses related to their career goals, such effort leads to better studying, better studying is instrumental to getting job, and job are related to satisfying needs for income, security and status. The important point here is that satisfaction results or does not results from what is perceived to be rather than from what actually exists.

In the Porter-Lawler's view, the most direct 'like' of employee in work is from performance to satisfaction rather than from satisfaction to performance. In this manner expectancy theory and the equity formulation provide a unique dimension to motivation theory. The match between the individual's needs/values behaviour and the job returns determines the individual's motivation to engage in the work behaviours. Regarding equity, the match between the individual's needs/values and the job returns affects the individual's work attitude, such as job satisfaction.

Edwin Locke in 'Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction' has proposed a discrepancy theory of job satisfaction, that two factors—desired and perceived work facets affect satisfaction. The discrepancy between desired and perceived work facets, as well as the importance of the facet, determines the level of satisfaction.

Nevertheless job satisfaction is dynamic for it can decline even more quickly than it develops. Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction emerges as an employee gains more and more information about the work place. Considerable research exists to support the argument that the factors leading to job satisfaction are distinct from those leading to job dissatisfaction.
1.5.2  Meaning and Definitions of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a set of favourable or unfavourable feelings and emotions with which employees view their work. Job satisfaction is an affective attitude consists of feelings, thoughts and intention to act. It may be defined as over all attitudes towards the profession, which results from a balancing and summation of many specific likes and dislikes experienced in connection with the job. Job satisfaction typically refers to attitudes of a particular employee, but assessments of individual employee's satisfaction can be averaged over all members of an organisation. Though employee attitude go by names such as morale, opinions or job involvement and are measured in many ways, industrial psychologists have devoted great efforts in defining and measuring job satisfaction.

According to Good's 'Dictionary of Education' (1973) job satisfaction means- 'a quality, level or state of satisfaction which is result of various interests, attitudes of person towards his job'.

Since there is no specific agreement on definition, generally questionnaires are developed to measure satisfaction with various aspects of work and the resultant behaviour or score is called job satisfaction. The term job satisfaction has been used in a variety of ways by variety of people. Today as intelligence is defined as what is measured by intelligence tests, job satisfaction can also be defined as what is measured by job satisfaction questionnaires.
The term job satisfaction has been variously defined since it was brought to light by Locke (1935), in which he says that, "job satisfaction is a combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that causes a person to say, 'I am satisfied with my job'."

Edwin A. Locke (1976) in his 'Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction' defined job satisfaction as, 'job satisfaction is pleasurable or positive emotional reaction to a person's job experiences'.

According to Blum (1956), 'job satisfaction is the result of various attitudes the person holds towards his job, towards related factors and towards life in general'.

Francis and Milbourn (1980) define job satisfaction as, 'the result of the individual perception of what is expected and what is received from different facets of work situation. The closer the expectation is to what is actually received the greater the job satisfaction'.

According to Sinha (1974) job satisfaction means, 'reintegration of affects produced by individual's perception fulfilment of his needs in relation to his work and the situations surrounding it'.

Gilmer (1966) holds that- 'Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is the result of various attitudes, the person holds towards his job, towards related factors and towards life in general'.
Harrell (1964) trace that- ‘Job satisfaction is derived from and is caused by many interrelated factors, although these factors can never be completely isolated from one another for analysis- they can, by the use of Statistical technique be separated enough to give an indication of their relative importance to job satisfaction’.

Brown, et al (1972) defined job satisfaction as- ‘the favourable feelings or psychological conditions of a person towards his job situation’.

1.5.3 Job Satisfaction, Work Behaviour and Physical Factors

Studies show that level of job satisfaction seems to have some relationships with various factors of work behaviour like absenteeism, adjustment, accident, productivity and union affiliation. Research on the relationship between job satisfaction and accident, generally shows that the higher the satisfaction with the job, the lower the rate of accidents. Generally a satisfied employee positively inclined to his job and there would be lesser probability of getting to an unexpected, incorrect or uncontrolled event in which either his action or the reaction of an object or person may result in personal injury.

A more accurate statement of the relationship is that high performance contributes to high job satisfaction. It has been expected that higher job satisfaction is associated with lower employee turnover.
The more satisfied employees are less likely to go through a progressive process in which they think about quitting, search for a new job and evaluated their alternatives. Employees who have low job satisfaction tend to be absent more often. Most studies have carried out a correlative design to examine the relationship between these variables and found that the nature of relationship varying depending upon the nature of job behaviour.

Numbers of studies have been carried out on the relationship between job satisfaction and personal characteristics like age, martial status, education, income, number of dependents and length of service in India and aboard. In India such studies have mostly concerned in correlative design where the degree of association between such factors as age, education, experience etc and job satisfaction have been measured.

Studies carried out on job satisfaction of teachers in various levels of educational organisation, researchers found that job satisfaction are related to some specific factors such as pecuniary benefits, feeling of security, condition of work, interest in work, leave policy, praise and blame, promotion opportunity, personal adjustment, the nature of relationship to other employees and students, one's ability and retrial benefits.

It has been found from the literature that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and social status and prestige; employees are more dissatisfied in jobs that have less social status and prestige. A study on the relationships between satisfaction and organisational objectives carried out by various researchers to throw light on a variety of issues that otherwise may not be possible.
1.5.4 **Operational Definition of Job Satisfaction**

Drawing insight into the concept and definitions discussed above the investigator for present study consider the operational definition of job satisfaction as, "Job satisfaction is the feelings of an employee towards his job, which could be caused by a variety of interrelated factors". It has been measured by a “Job Satisfaction Scale (Y. Mudgil, I. S. Muhar & P. Bhatia)”, which takes the following dimensions of job satisfaction into consideration-

- i. Personal,
- ii. Working Condition,
- iii. Administration,
- iv. Social Status, and
- v. Pecuniary Benefits.

1.6 **Need of the Study**

The most important and effective factor in any educational system is the teacher. It is the teacher, who refines the instincts and modifies behaviours of students and makes them socially acceptable, inculcates values, inspires and develops capabilities to their fullest and best possible ways, so that they may be of best use to themselves and to the society, to the nation and to mankind as a whole.
But at the same time, it is also true that the development of science and technology in one hand and socio-economic transformation in the other make society and human life complex and dynamic, where teachers have to face hard life to adjust completely and satisfactorily with their daily life and work.

The investigator in this context feels that the changing situation and time always demand to know how happy the teachers are in their job environment in different geo-physical situations.

The present crisis or the common complaints of people to-day in the field of higher education is that teachers of higher education do not attend their classes regularly, pay least attention to their work, keep busy in the private tuitions or allied works to earn extra money and resort to frequent strikes against the authority; which certainly cause serious damage to higher education and national development.

Whatever and wherever the root causes of the situation may be it seriously affects the student community, the society and the nation at large. Instead of blaming teachers, the crux of the problem should be visualised from some other angle, in its realistic perspectives.

The job satisfaction survey is one of the best ways to investigate and analyse the various causes and factors of the satisfaction or dissatisfaction or general feelings of teachers towards their job working in different types of institutions by using valid and reliable tools like questionnaire, tests, schedule etc.
The management of educational system is concerned with the management of institution, where human beings as well as materials are brought together for achieving educational objectives. The educational management in brief is a human enterprise controlled and affected by large number of factors. Like other management, educational management also always need a highly dedicated, ideal intellectual and happier workforce.

Teachers' attitudes, motivations and job satisfaction are clearly very important factors to any educational organisation. When attitudes to their job involvement are negative, they are both a symptom of underlying problems and a contributing cause of forthcoming difficulties in an organisation. Teacher's satisfaction, along with high quality of output is a landmark of well-managed educational organisation.

Apart from the core responsibility of teaching, evaluating, planning and guiding, a teacher is expected to do several other activities, like conducting curricular and co-curricular activities, maintaining human relations and continuing professional development. The study of job satisfaction of college teacher will give an indication to the management about the general levels of satisfaction and its related variables in an educational organisation.

It will also indicate the specific areas of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with regard to particular groups of teachers with respect to age, experience, sex, marital status etc.
Management of higher education needs information on teacher and employees' job satisfaction in order to make sound decision, both in preventing and solving employees problems. A job satisfaction survey is a procedure by which employees report their feelings towards their job and work environment. The investigator feels that a properly planned and administered job satisfaction study usually produces a number of important benefits both general and specific.

The study conducted by the researchers earlier reflects that, it is not one factor alone which influences job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is caused by many interrelated factors and it is very difficult to isolate these factors. Sometimes one and sometimes all these factors work and importance of the various factors appears to change from situation to situation.

The review of related literature reveals that the factors responsible for job satisfaction of employees working in organisational system may vary according to geographical location, working condition facilities, administration, policy and management.

In this regard the investigator feels that it will be proper to carry out a survey on job satisfaction of college teachers working in different colleges of Assam, to know the degree of job satisfaction and the related variables which effect the job satisfaction of the teachers.
The success of any educational system and its effectiveness depends largely on the job satisfaction of the teachers. Numerous studies have been continually carried out about teachers satisfaction or dissatisfaction in educational organisations in India and abroad to find out the factors inherited in the job for employees satisfaction, the factors that influence job satisfaction of employees, job satisfaction and its correlated factors etc. After knowing the job satisfaction levels of teachers a number of comparisons can be made based on age groups, seniority levels, marital status, educational levels, gender, work shifts, work sites or general type of work done. Comparison can also be made with regard to changes over time and again. Each of these comparisons can provide a meaningful clue as to where satisfaction or dissatisfaction lies.

The changing trend of higher education demands the competent teachers to cope up themselves with the new change in the horizon of knowledge, methods and technique of teaching and proper used of technology in teaching and learning.

His success as a teacher certainly depends on his satisfaction in his job. This study will help to understand the problems of college teachers working on different colleges of Assam and help to examine the factors responsible for satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their job.
The review of related literature reveals that very little studies have been made on the job satisfaction of teachers in different levels of educational systems in North Eastern India in comparison to other parts of the nation. All most the studies conducted by the researchers in this region are on the job satisfaction of teacher on the Primary and Secondary levels.

Therefore, the investigator has selected this problem of study, feeling that this type of study will have great importance in the present day context, which certainly will bring out the true picture of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction of college teachers of higher education towards their job.

The results drawn from the study will definitely help the management of higher education of Assam, the related affiliating university, the teachers' organisation and the management of the particular institutions to solve or to take some necessary steps for improvement of the standard of higher education. This study will also help to raise the standard of teaching and learning process in higher education by introducing new methods and techniques, active participation of teachers in the various educational programmes of the institution and to have a conducive relationships between teachers and students because the teachers are the vital movers of all the process.
1.7 Statement of the Problem

In view of the above discussion, it is highly necessary to look where do the college teachers of Assam stand in respect to their job satisfaction. The investigator hence feels the importance of the study of the working conditions and performances of the college teachers of Assam in the light of their job satisfaction, and tried to determine the physical factors and other related factors, which effect the job satisfaction. The present study, "Job Satisfaction Amongst the Teachers of Colleges Under Gauhati University" is an endeavour to provide necessary information in the light of above discussion.

1.8 Objectives of the Study

The present study has the following objectives-

1. To determine the degree of job satisfaction among the college teachers.
2. To find out the relationship between job satisfaction and work experiences of the teachers.
3. To compare the job satisfaction of the teachers working in the colleges of urban and rural areas.
4. To find out the relationship between job satisfactions of teachers and marital status as well as sex difference.
1.9 Research Hypotheses

Research hypothesis is tentative assumption made in order to draw out and test its logical or empirical consequences. Hypothesis is usually considered as the principal instrument in research, it is a predictive statement, capable of being tested by scientific methods, that relates independent variables to some dependent variable. Hypothesis arises as a result of a prior thinking about the problem, examination of the available data and materials including related literature. It guided the investigator on the right track, sharpens his thinking and focuses attention on the more important facets of the problem.

According to Curter V. Good, 'A hypothesis is an informed or shrewd guess or inference, with a reasonable chance of being right, formulated and tentatively adopted to explain observed facts or conditions and to guide in further investigation. Hypothesis may serve the following functions- they may contribute as explanations, stimuli to research, sources of methodology, criteria for evaluating experimental and other techniques and as organising principles.'

Testing of hypotheses- in the context of statistical analysis, hypothesis may take either alternative (H₁) or null form (H₀). Alternative hypothesis is usually the one which one wishes to prove and the null hypothesis is the one which one wishes to reject. According to R. A. Fisher, 'null hypothesis is the hypothesis, which is tested for possible rejection under the assumption that it is true.'
The following research hypotheses have been formulated to realize the objectives of the study:

1. There are significant differences in job satisfaction scores among the college teachers with respect to sex, experience, location and marital status.

2. There are associations in levels of job satisfaction of the teachers with respect to sex, experience, location and marital status.

3. There are relationships in degree of job satisfaction of teachers with respect to sex, location and marital status.

In this study, to analyse the data gathered and to draw inferences from it the investigator has formulated the necessary Statistical Hypotheses in null form (H₀) for testing in Chapter-IV.

1.10 Delimitation of the Study

The study undertaken by the investigator has following limitations:

1. The study is confined to Goalpara and Kamrup districts of Assam.

2. The present study is carried out on the teachers working in the general colleges (Arts, Science and Commerce) of both the district affiliated to Gauhati University. The study has excluded the teachers working on professional colleges or institution of higher education like engineering, medicine, law, teachers training, management etc.
3. The study is made on the teachers who are working against government approved posts. Teachers working on ad-hoc basis and in non-sanctioned posts are not considered in the study.

To make the study reliable and valid all possible steps are taken, yet the study may not be an exception to errors and personal biases of human judgements as Guilford remarks, 'while forced to have much confidence in quantitative human judgements, we must be ever alert to the weakness involved and to the many sources of personal biases in those judgement'.

T. L. Kelley of Harvard University remarks, "(i) there is a lack of demonstrable fairness in the sample, (ii) benefits seldom accrue to every person answering and (iii) there are always difficulties in getting a fair selection of experts'. He believes that 'unless and until experimental science relieves us of the need of human judgement, this wayward child of science feeble as it is, will remain an indispensable helper. It will thus be always needed and we can but hope that it will curb its intrusive disposition and mend it unseemly ways.'

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1.11 Definition of the Terms Used in the Study

1.11.1 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a set of favourable or unfavourable feelings and emotions with which employees view their work. Job satisfaction is an affective attitude consists of feelings, thoughts and intention to act. It may be defined as over all attitudes towards the profession, which results from a balancing and summation of many specific likes and dislikes experienced in connection with the job. 'Job satisfaction is the feelings of employee towards his job, which could be caused by a variety of interrelated factors.'

1.11.2 Location of the College

In the study location of the college refers the locality or areas in which the college is situated. The location is categories as rural and urban for the study. The urban area means the area under City Municipality Commission or within the Town Committee constituted by the government or government approved body of Assam.
1.11.3 College

College means an institution of higher education usually offering only curriculum in the liberal Arts, Science and Commerce. In the study the college includes only the general education having one, or two or all the three faculties. All the colleges of the population have includes the courses from Higher Secondary stage to Under Graduate levels. Few of which have Post Graduate level of courses in some selected subjects, permitted by the parent university. The present study includes only those colleges that are government or government aided and as well as permitted or affiliated to Gauhati University. All types of colleges like purely girls’, purely boys’, and co-educated are included in the study.

1.11.4 College Teacher

A person employed in an official capacity for the purpose of giving instruction to pupils or students in the educational institution (college) of higher education, whether public or private. In this study college teacher, who does appoint a constituent body approved or formed by the government of Assam, and whose post the Director of Higher Education of Assam duly approves.
1.11.5 Experience of Teacher

Teachers are classified into three categories in the study, according to their length of service as: more experienced, average experienced, and less experienced. More experienced teachers are those which have completed more than twenty years of service, average experienced teachers are those which have completed more than ten years but less than equal to twenty years of service, and less experienced teachers are those which have completed less than ten years of service in teaching as a college teacher.

1.11.6 Marital Status of Teacher

In this study marital status refers whether the teacher is married or unmarried. Married means a teacher or individual who enjoy the conjugal life during the time of survey. It also includes the teacher or individual, once who enjoyed the conjugal life but later divorce or become widow or widower during the time of survey.

1.11.7 Levels of Job Satisfaction of Teacher

In this study, the job satisfaction of teachers is classified into three categories namely: high, moderate and low job satisfaction. Teachers scored more than 252 are in high level, in between 231 to 252 are in moderate level, and scored less than 231 are in low level of job satisfaction.