An analytical look at the Indian universities reveals the fact that they are engrossed with numerous problems having complex magnitudes. Violence, disorder indiscipline discontentment and low morale are suitable terms which depict the university climate (Verma; 1989, 19). University came into existence with different considerations. Its concept has undergone significant changes over preceding centuries. Particularly, after independence the functions and size of Indian University multiplied with greater pace. Increased national aspirations expected universities to develop as 'centres for excellence' and provide the facility of accreditation and certification. Most of them could not cater to the demands of different segments of university and society. The main factor instructive has been 'management.' It is due to the very nature of organization that Indian University did not get professional management. On the other hand, uncontrollable factors such as, increasing
number of students, declining financial resources excessive politicking posed threatening situations deteriorate the academic climate.

Today, university needs careful understanding about its objectives, environment and problems. This chapter deals with all these aspects.

### Evaluation of University System:

The modern university is the outcome of a very slow and systematic process of evolution linked with the societal changes. As any institution cannot continue to live on its past successes and practices, similarly, university has to accommodate the societal needs and expectations in its functions. University system is composed of different physical, human and power sub-systems. In order to effectively respond to various elements of its sub-systems, university has to move side-by-side if not to fore-run the changes in its sub-systems.

Ross (1976) rightly describes that a study of the University is inevitably a study of change and resistance to change, of the structures and forms that facilitate each, of the interaction of the institution and society in ways that facilitate or that inhibit new development. The task
of defining university is not so simple. We can better understand it by studying the evolution of 'modern University'.

According to Ashby (1961), the university as we know it, evolved in the Middle Ages in Europe. There were, more ancient forms of higher learning in China, in India, and in the Islamic world. But of the various types that emerged, only the university grew and adapted itself to new conditions, survived and flourished.

University, was more informal, unstructured, and spontaneous organisation in the early centuries. The approach they adopted was at individualised basis. People gathered around a man of learning and sought knowledge. Slowly and steadily universities grew and became formal organisations where students, who were aware about these institutions visited them and acquired education. Such universities in the ancient time were ones of Nalanda of Takshasila of India or Linstu or Hu Lin of China, or Qariyan in the Arab world or those which developed in Bologna, Paris, Marburg, Oxford and Cambridge in Europe in the Middle ages.

The Universities & the whole body of Masters of students there collected, began to have something like a corporate existence, to adopt customs, to claim privileges, to form
an organisation of its own (Mallet; 1924, 2-3). During medieval period, university emerged as a place of adventure within the boundaries of knowledge and imagination feasible in that day. There was a lot of buoyance and zestfulness. A growing need and respect for learning in society made university more capable. A battle for autonomy started later when rulers established certain universities and exercised their influence. Oxford and Cambridge were established by Royal decree which gave almost monopoly to the king.

Main influence on the working of university came from the Church, the monastery, the guild or commune. Ultimately, it developed a distinctive character and structure. The concept of self-governing community different from the world of commerce picked-up with a mission to learn and disseminate knowledge at advanced level.

Medieval university responded to a number of pressing social needs but during the period between 1500 to 1850 it retreated almost entirely into narrow theological institutions designed to maintain order and tradition. It has little interest in or sensitivity to the needs of the society involved in the opening of new trade routes, with an emerging middle class, or with new ways of studying
man and nature. This period observed thundering changes in industrial and social activities but universities remained insulated from the major developments. More emphasis was towards discipline and character building rather than intellectual development. They were male-dominated and filled by upper-class people.

In 1850, England had four universities, Canada ten, and United States close to eight hundred. The English conceived of the University as a centre for training an elite leadership—primarily for the Church. The Universities in Canada and the United States may well have drawn their students primarily from the upper classes, but they were obviously for a much wider group and for a much broader purpose than in England. In North America, the aim was to provide what was considered to be 'intellectual and moral training; education was to be evaluated for itself, and it was widely supported as a means of developing sound character. In short, to install the virtues that would make the nation strong (Ross, 1976, 26).°

German universities pursued four ideas: (a) coverage of all fields of research and scholarship; (b) the advancement of research where all senior professors worked with their students; (c) independence to student, to choose
course of study and university; and (d) freedom to professors to investigate and teach the results of their researches without government interference. In fact, university in Germany developed in an unique fashion which ultimately became model for development in England, Canada and United States.

According to Ross (1976, 33), the hundred years which followed 1850 were among the most momentous in history. Never had there been as many changes which affected the whole of society and the attitudes and behaviour of man. What distinguished those years was the accelerating pace of change and the enlarging scope and range of that change.

The Society expected university to be active in research and meet the challenge of technological explosion brought about by the industrial revolution. The heat generated by industrial revolution collided with all the institutions of the past and changed the way of life of millions. Urbanisation and secularisation resulted from affluence called for new attitudes and behaviour patterns. Ultimately, the authority of religions and of the Church eroded. A new attitude—called the 'rational empirical' outlook—prevailed. This was "... the outlook of independent curiosity, openness
to experience, disciplined inquiry and analysis, reasoned judgement, and the appreciation of originality" (Shils; 1972, 71). The university education was greatly influenced by such thinking. The revitalisation process was determined by industrialisation, the shift from authoritarian to empirical thought and dissatisfaction with religious-oriented colleges. Recapitulating the scene of university education after 1950, Ross (1976, 49) comments that some of the same forces that stimulated growth of the medieval university were, in more dramatic form, to nourish the rebirth of the university after 1850.

What was significantly different in the university after 1850 was the nature of the 'new knowledge'. Fresh discoveries provided new opportunities for further revelations. The university was an institution for advanced cognitive learning. The goals of society and the university appeared consistent and compatible.

The universities are now facing new types of challenges particularly after 1950s. The forces which necessitated adoption of remedial recourse included enrolment expansion, research and development, and the student revolution. The enrolment doubled between 1960-70. In the U.S.A., the problem was tackled by modest expansion of many of the prestigious private universities. England coped with the problem by creation of new universities, upgradation of
colleges and increasing enrolment. The demands of society and government agencies for highly trained scientists and for researchers spurred the growth of graduate work in universities in England, Canada and U.S.A. Research and graduate work inevitably affected orientation of the university. As enrolments and research activities expanded, the structure also got affected. Bureaucracy and regulations with their accompanying irritations and impersonality increased.

Student revolutions became very common. In the academic year 1969-70 in the U.S.A., it is said there were 9000 protest demonstrations at two-thirds of the American colleges and universities (Schick, 1972, 93). Some of these revolutions shook the very foundations of the university. According to MacArthur (1974, 3), the university appeared to be an appropriate whipping boy, and questions about university budgets and autonomy were frequently raised in the press and in elected assemblies. By 1975, almost all universities were confronting small budgets than they felt essential. There seemed little public sympathy for their financial difficulties.

The role of university is very difficult to define as the differences of view were complex and fundamental. Shils rightly questions: Can a modern university maintain a
stable and orderly structure when its professors and others who share power with them, have lost their self-confidence and are dominated by a clamorous hostility against the university and those who operate it?

In short, we observe that Germans in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries concentrated on research and developed institutes providing freedom of teaching and freedom of learning. The 'centres of excellence' came out with organic connection with science in addition to their existing traditions in philosophy, economics and humanities. In contrast, the British colleges were the institutions which promoted bureaucracy. Their Internalisation of Science was a new development. Their general stature at the top of their society arose as much from their social exclusiveness as, if not more than, from their intellectual achievement. The situation was different in France, where Church was replaced from the central place of intellectual development by French revolution and state owned the responsibility of providing higher education. The growth of certain schools in arts, military, managerial and commercial fields in eighteenth and nineteenth centuries ensured the growth of university education. Japan followed the system of France and Germany by adopting to her traditions. National universities were established. These were highly competitive
and high level though not necessarily research-oriented. Except in free societies, centres of excellence developed under the patronage of state.

Evolution of University Education in India:

Education system in India was the outcome of Briti­shers' thinking to maintain a gap between the ruler and the elite of the ruled. Their main purpose for imparting higher education was to man the middle and lower echelons of the administrative systems. University education did not meet the society's expectations. It was hardly designed to do so. Warren Hastings established Calcutta Madras in 1781, which paved the way for the founding of a number of institutions of higher education by different agencies with different ends in view. But in real sense, modern higher education started with the Wood's Despatch (1954) which desired the government to take responsibility of developing education.

The establishment of modern universities in Calcutta, Madras and Bombay was described by British founders as means that would meet the difficulty of devising a suitable examination for entry into government services and provide a superior type public servants. Universities would also be of wider social benefit, for by calling into existence
of an new educated class, they would diffuse a taste for the more defined and intellectual pleasures and pursuits of the West to the gradual extinction of the enervating and degrading superstitious of the East (Mowat; 1888). University education system in India became anaemic, distorted and dysfunctional. Intra and inter-regional disparities in the development were of high order.

Trivedi (1917, 19) commented that 'the founders of the new educational system had not the time to study the ideals and methods that were indigenous. The new system was introduced in entire ignorance and almost in complete defiance of the existing social order regulating the everyday life of an ancient people'. The main attributes of higher education, prior to independence, according to Raza et al. (1985, 101) were:

1. Low level of enrolment.
2. Liberal nature of education.
3. Enclavisation of the institute of higher learning
4. Superious modernisation.

It is observed that enrolment in higher education during preindependence period jumped from seven thousand in 1879-80 to more than one lakh in 1947-48. This shows an increase of sixteen times in a period of about seventy
years. The growth rate appears to be high because of the low base. Poor base of higher education weakened India's capacity to take advantage of many technological innovations and scientific discoveries.

Raza et al. (1985, 104) further argues that instead of preparing scientists, technologists and agronomists, the Indian higher education was, by and large, engaged in producing graduated flunkeys - office functionaries and clerks, so that the colonial domination of the country could be perpetuated. About two-thirds of enrolment in 1947-48, and as much as 88 per cent in 1916-17 was concentrated in general and liberal education. In contrast, Engineering and Medicine accounted for only 2.25 and 4.23 per cent of enrolment in 1916-17.

Moreover, higher education remained concentrated in and around selected port centres instead of spreading over national space. The enclavisation of higher education was in conformity with the nature of colonial underdevelopment wherein ports acted as apex points of the suction mechanism and part of the surpluses were impounded in their contributions. It is surprising to note that for more than half a century two new university was opened except that of Allahabad, after three universities were established in Bombay,
Calcutta and Madras in 1875. Concentration was not only region-wise but also subject-wise. While in the case of medicine, 96.67 per cent of the students were concentrated in Calcutta, all the engineering students were Calcutta-based during 1874-75. The position continued to be the same by the close of the last century.

The incidence of inequities in colonial higher education was of a higher order. These inequities were of several types - scheduled cast-non-scheduled caste, scheduled tribes-non-scheduled tribe and male-female. The enrolment of women in higher education continued to be very low over the years. This is evident from the fact that even in 1947-48 their percentage share in the total enrolment was less than ten. The burden of inequities becomes more and more heavy as one moves from urban non-scheduled male to rural scheduled caste females. Needless to say, the possibility of a rural woman belonging to scheduled caste or scheduled tribe, being enrolled in higher education was extremely remote (Raza: 1985, 108).

University Education after Independence:

India inherited university education system, set up on the guidelines suggested by Macaulay, basically designed to strengthen colonialism. Indian leaders' opinions and
ideas, which were not very well worked out, could not
generate a system that overcame the limitations of existing system. At the time of independence, there was hardly any well-worked out programme to meet the crisis in higher education. Only Gandhi had ideas carefully worked out. But Gandhiji's policy was not probably attended to and no serious thinking was undertaken in order to look at the whole system in an integrated manner. Problem was seen in a fragmented way. This is evident from the fact that first Commission on education in Independent India (University Education Commission; 1948-49) headed by S. Radhakrishnan dealt only with university education. Radhakrishnan Commission recommended minimum standards of salary and work and called for a three-years degree course after 10+2. The U.G.C. itself created for attaining minimum high standards, made under Deshmukh strong efforts to ensure autonomy and the financial strength recommended by the Radhakrishnan Commission.

The need for new fields of work as well as for strong centres in already existing universities evoked responses in the form of successive schemes such as Centres of Advanced Study. Departments of Special Assistance, etc., created and supported at university centres during the sixties. However, all of this was only a minor phenomenon
in comparison to the effort at the institute and the councils. The growth in numbers, resources and complexity of institutions and councils of the Government, as well as the increasing sophistication of knowledge and its tools on a world plane on the one hand, and the very rapid expansion putting high strain on the universities and their affiliated colleges both made it difficult for the university system to strengthen its own centres of high attainment. It also made it difficult to cope both with the new demands of industry within the country and the growth of many new areas of knowledge in world science (Shukla: 1985, 179).

The Committee on Model Act for universities, which reported in 1964, had the opportunity of going into issues that had risen since the Radhakrishnan Report. There were a number of other committees as well which went into various aspects of Indian higher education. An integrated approach to deal with the subject of national education dawned only with the Education Commissioner (1964-66) which dealt with from pre-primary to university stages of education. It suggested 'principles and policies for the development of education at all stages and in all respects'. The Education Commission headed by Kothari (1964-66) has, in fact, gone through practically every conceivable question of the development of education in India, and its recommendations
are, in general, full of insight and wisdom.

... Kothari Commission recommended the establishment of six 'major universities' where first class post-graduate work and research would be possible and whose standards would be comparable to the best institutions of their type in any part of the world. It was believed that these major universities should be utilized to provide teachers of quality to other universities and to the affiliated colleges. The colleges which have shown good performance should be encouraged and assistance be related to the classification. Outstanding college which has shown capacity to improve within a large university should be given autonomous status.

Concluding the Report of the Education Commission (1964-66), Biswas and Agrawal (1986, 467), remark that in this document higher education receives a disproportionate emphasis and takes up a good bulk of space. This exhaustive treatment of the third level of education was necessary for its direct and immediate impact on the national economy, and it became possible as most of the members of the Commission and its consultants were specialists in the field. The three programmes of high priority comprised - the expansion to meet the manpower needs of national development, improvement in the quality of higher
education and improvement of university organisation and administration. Development of six 'major universities' as pace-setters, autonomous status to outstanding affiliated colleges, student services as an integral part of education emphasis on science education and research, dynamic techniques of management and organisation of universities, and UGC's role as representative of the entire spectrum of higher education are some of the points of interest among the voluminous recommendations.

The recommendations of Education Commission (1964-66) were undoubtedly embracing all aspects of higher education and were accepted by the government to a larger extent. But, the recommendations relating to the development of human resources are still awaiting sincere implementation. In the absence of an authentic and documented study, it is difficult to say with any degree of accuracy about the overall impact of the implementation of various recommendations of different Commissions and Committees. But, different symptoms show that they have failed to respond to the evolutionary growth of knowledge.

Giving an example of failure of education policy, Gandhi (1977, 175) says that it is no wonder, that much has been said about the objectives of higher education in
scholarly studies and official reports. It is also not surprising to obtain identical aims and objectives of education in all these works. For example, terms such as building personality, ability, aptitude, character and actualisation of the physical, mental, ethical and spiritual potentialities of the individual have been invariably figured as the main objectives of education. But these terms have now here been articulated in terms of precise curricula objectives and coherently spelt out in the structure of various disciplines. Such an analysis demands the clear and coherent definition of these objectives.

Janta government also formulated a detailed policy for higher education in 1979, but due to short stay in power, it could not implement it. National Commission for Teacher II (1985) was set up to advise the government on various aspects relevant to the teaching community. Its main recommendations are: improvement in the quality of higher education, establishment of centres for development in curricula, setting up of autonomous colleges, improvement of correspondence educations, strengthening linkages with community by setting up district level 'Education and Development Councils' and taking students out of the four walls of colleges and throwing them into
the field of personal experience through extension work and participation in continuing education programmes, improving the living and working conditions of teachers, enhancement of non-practicing allowance to teachers; strengthening of management, merit-based selections, autonomous functioning of teachers, open selection on a genuinely all-India basis for readers and professors and persuading people and the government to provide teachers status, resources and strongly deserved benefits.

For reshaping the education system and establishing organic link with the productive forces of society, New Policy of education (1986) has been adopted after a nation-wide debate. The outcome of its implementation still awaits objective evaluation.

**UNIVERSITY EDUCATION AND NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

Higher education not only guides national development but also determines national goals. The kinds of education a university provides will play vital role in determining the shape of social, political, economic and industrial development of the country. University education enables a nation to plan the utilisation of its resources. It is observed that many underdeveloped countries remain under-developed because they do not have trained manpower and
technical know-how needed to capitalise on the resource-potential. It can assess and judge the course of development instead of being merely a tool of promoting it. It makes both direct and indirect contribution to the GNP. Thus, higher education should be regarded as an investment instead of being treated as mere unproductive activity. Max Weber rightly described university as an arsenal from which intellectual weapons can be drawn.

Higher education provides trained and knowledgeable personnel to the nation. But the number and quality of such personnel should be as per requirements. The number of students seeking admission in Indian colleges and universities is expanding at more than the anticipated rate required for national development. Even the Education Commission (1964-66) has long back acknowledged that 'if the present rate of expansion is assumed to continue for next 20 years, the total enrolment in higher education would be between 7 and 8 million by 1985-86, this would be more than twice the estimated requirement of manpower for national development'.

This situation is bound to arise because with the accelerated growth and improved economic conditions of the citizens, the society's immediate expectations towards
education also tend to rise and sometimes lead individuals to seek education to a level higher than that is required by the functions they are expected to perform.

University provides not only trained manpower but also improves functional efficiency. Through continuing education, it continues to refresh the knowledge of functionaries and keep them capable of coping with ever-changing environment. It conducts short-term courses, sandwich programmes and the like which assist in developing functional efficiency of those engaged in different kinds of productive work. That way it makes valuable contribution to the acceleration of development.

According to Parikh (1967), university can assist the development effort through active participation in the life of the community. Such participation can be promoted through extra-moral activities, extension work as well as through problem-solving activities of different kinds. The improved quality of the practical training and of the extension work give students better insight into their professional work and promote a better understanding of it.

Harbsion and Mayers (1964) have attempted to examine the relationship between indicators of educational
development and economic growth. They clearly establish direct relationship among various human resources indicators and measures of economic growth. Education Commission (1964 - 1966) reflected its concern about the role of education to the entire development process of a country. It further maintained that the basic element of spiral of prosperity are education and technology and rather intangible factor which depends on the national heritage and character.

Hommadi (1986, 6) asserts that education is an instrument of social, economic and political change. It endeavours to spell out the nature and kind of functional educational administration which would help in realising the development efforts to substance and reality. He says that educational development needs to be harnessed to national development. This is why, higher education has a vital role to play because the susceptibility to change and capability for development among people can commensurate with the level of learning and training. According to Coleman (1965, 3) education has a special concern with determinants of political development. He concludes that, it is master instrument for determining new political pattern.

The education and policy relationship is one of reciprocal dependence, of mutual stimulus and response (Desai : 1959). Education performs and functions of political
socialisation. It is an important factor in orienting the political life of new states towards modernisation. Democracy can never survive and make a lasting impact where the majority of electorate are illiterate. For the growth of democratic institutions, electorate need to be educated and must be possess political attitudes. University provides the groundwork for personality development. It develops self-learning and the capacity for analysis, reasoning and synthesis. It continues all round development of personality mind, body and spirit. The personality development gives birth to healthy society. We can understand personality development as the process of striving for the realisation of a Coherent system of comprehensive purpose of life. Higher education strengthens the fibre of national integration. In a country like India which has multi-religions, multiclases and multi-sectors society, there is a strong need for such educational planning which unifies the heterogenous components.

University is a catalyst which builds new sets of attitudes and norms for living according to standards and values in a dignified manner. It conserves and transmits received knowledge. Further, it is also liberal and liberating agency for individual and social transformation. In place of the qualities of dependence. Particularism,
passivity and blind obedience, the university offers the individual an opportunity to develop the qualities of independence, universalism, achievement and specificity, through its different systems of rewards and incentives, work schedules and laws of reasoning, peer judgement and localisation of knowledge. For society, the university can help in developing the attitude of reasoning out a problem instead of being bound by outworn doctrines, through the fallout from modern science instead of following the traditional superstition, and through becoming aware of society and its many problems instead of being enmeshed in social illiteracy as is otherwise customary (Adiseshiah: 1985, 5-6)

University Education and Developing Societies:

In the development process of developing countries, higher education plays very important role. We find that the developing countries are characterised by low per capita income, low savings, low investment, poor infrastructural base, poor medical care and social services, heavy pressure on agriculture, high percentage of dependent children, improper distribution of nation's wealth, lack of modernisation, weak informational base and low standard
of living. Over and above these, the literacy rate is very less. The educational system is not developed in view of society's expectations and needs.

The developing countries are far behind in the essential requirements for educational planning. It is observed that these countries do consider educational planning important but fail in execution. The main reasons which handicap the development of university education are:

1. Lack of knowledgeable people and know-how;
2. Lack of participation of society in educational planning;
3. Poor information and research base;
4. Lack of work-culture;
5. Resistance to adapt to modernity;
6. Political immaturity;
7. Delinking of education from economic activity;
8. Development of higher education in ivory towers of theories and concepts where real situations are not stipulated;
9. Low priority given to higher education; and
10. Excessive interference of governments in the administration of education.
Conclusion:

The development of higher education in developing countries needs proper planning for integration education with economic planning and life of people. Unfortunately, developing countries have imitated the educational system developed in advanced countries but have not given careful thought to their own specific needs. It is beyond doubt that any university or education system developed as per the societal aspirations would add to the national wealth both physical and non-physical.