CHAPTER-1

INTRODUCTION

“The future destiny of the world rests with the teachers and the students. If the teachers train their students in the right direction in the path of righteousness, the world will be filled with citizens who are Yegis and Jivanmuktas and who will radiate light, peace, bliss and joy everywhere.”

Swami Sivananda
Divine Life Society

It is a well recognized fact that teachers have a significant role in shaping the personality structure of students. Besides, there are always certain sets of expectations related to their functioning. They also have certain perceptions of their role as teachers and often their performance gets affected by their perceptions of and expectations from their role. Thus the focus of the present study is to make explorations in the role-analysis of teachers along the above lines in the university system.

The present chapter is divided into two parts. The first part will highlight the problem of research, historical aspects of growth and development of education in India, review of studies and objectives of the study while the second part will focus on the theoretical framework, hypotheses of the study and methods of data collection.

(I)

1. THE PROBLEM OF RESEARCH

Man through his creativity and various kinds of sensibilities has generated a wealth of knowledge related to himself and his physico-socio-cultural environment. He has the power of knowledge to bring in transformation in the social and economic life of the humans. As man advanced in his journey to the development of society, the collective knowledge built by him in association with his fellow human beings, got
institutionalized into an educational system. The sole objective of this system was to impart intellectual and moral training to the young persons. This system was also instrumental in bringing about social change in our society through scientific inventions and discoveries. The basic objectives of education have been two-fold. As a historical function, its thrust is on the perpetuation of culture from one generation to another in a given society. However, at the psychological plane, education helps in developing the personality of individuals.

No doubt, during the last few decades, developing countries have achieved tremendous progress in education, but in qualitative terms, the achievements are far from satisfactory. The enrollment ratio of students at all levels has increased at an unprecedented rate. However, enrollment in higher education has taken place at a greater rate than at the secondary and primary levels, both in the developing, as well as, in the developed countries. But the enrollment ratios at the secondary and tertiary levels in the developing countries are still lower than those of the developed ones. It has also been pointed out that in some of the developing countries, investment in higher education has been too rapid and perhaps at the expense of meeting some of the other societal needs (The World Bank, 1980).

Education, besides satisfying some of the basic human needs also acts as a means of meeting some of the other needs necessary for the development of human culture and social life. As such, its expansion is largely determined by the prevailing socio-economic and political order. Quite recently with the concept of egalitarianism introduced in the development of developing nations, that is, “Growth with Social Justice”, there is now a greater concern shown in favour of democratization of educational resources at all levels.
In the Indian context, we had a rich tradition of "Gurukul" teaching, where an evolved person, either spiritually or mentally, would impart moral and intellectual training to the young. This is now a lost phenomenon. Our present system of education is a legacy of the British regime and our school, college and university educational system has been mainly determined on the same pattern. At the time of independence of our country, the planners and policy makers realized that illiteracy and ignorance, were the stumbling blocks for the development of our nation. As such, in the post-independent era, education was considered as a main instrument of social change. Efforts were made to expand education at all levels through the Five Year Plans. However, in spite of the best efforts made to eradicate illiteracy from our country, we still have nearly 34.6 per cent of our population above the age of 7 years as illiterates (24.1 per cent Males and 45.8 per cent Females; 2001, Census). The earlier efforts of our government have been in the expansions of the enrollment ratios of students rather than changing the nature and character of education. This quantitative approach, to a limited extent, was helpful in providing self-reliance and national identity to our citizens. Subsequently, certain qualitative objectives such as social equity, development of teaching of science, relating education to our national needs and building a national capacity for planning and administration of research in education were added to the national agenda. Despite heavy drop-out rates of students at the primary level (nearly 60 per cent), our progress in modernizing education is well recognized by the fact that we are ranked among the first 10 technically educated countries.

As of now, we have as many as 229 universities and 7199 Arts and Science colleges all over the country (Xavier, 2000). This has still not kept pace with the rise in the population. Moreover, most of the students entering into these institutions are drawn from the upper strata of the
society. Research evidence suggests that the majority of the students going in for higher education belong to upper castes, urban areas and are having convent/public or private school background (Jayaram, 1979). This elitist approach to higher education could not be rectified despite the appointment of various Education Commissions by the Government of India. Even after more than fifty years of Independence, our pattern of higher education is run on western lines without changing of syllabi for various courses suitable to our present needs and goals. Gore (1994) in his analysis has highlighted various crises in the university system such as outdated course syllabi, lack of funds, faulty examination and evaluation, politicization and bureaucratization of the university, stress on liberal arts rather than on vocational courses, non-involvement of teachers, especially from the colleges, in the decision-making bodies and lack of adequate incentives for the committed and dedicated teachers. Even the opening of certain unitary universities specially at the central level, having a focus on campus teaching, has not helped in tackling the above stated crises in higher education effectively.

Apart from these problems, what stands out as a sore thumb is the limited role of the teachers both at the university and college levels. This is mainly due to lack of influence of teachers on the students because of structural constraints of a less number of teachers to a greater number of students. Besides, organizational constraints and lack of autonomy to teachers, also affect the higher education adversely. As such, there is a need to re-organize the pattern of higher education and a system needs to be evolved in which the teacher plays a more creative role than performing routine activities.

The role of a teacher has various dimensions such as teaching, research, administration and consultancy. Therefore, it may be worthwhile to examine the role of teacher in the university system. Gore (1994)
remarks that a teacher is expected to rise above his self-interest and
develop a concern for the common good of the students in particular and of
the society at large. By virtue of his status, he is also in a position to
influence the character of students and build up their personality structure
for their effective roles in the society. However, a teacher has to operate
within the university prescriptive system. As such, there are sets of
expectations related to his functioning. Besides, he also has certain
perceptions of his role as a teacher and acts as a guide in transmitting
appropriate knowledge, developing suitable skills and building up
necessary attitudes among the students so that they may come out with
distinction and competence in their later life.

Thus, it becomes imperative to analyze the role performance of the
teacher in terms of how he or she perceives his or her own role as well as
how he or she tries to relate it to the set of expectations from him or her by
others, that is, the administrators, the colleagues and the students. The
present study is an attempt in that direction.

2. HISTORICAL ASPECTS OF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF
EDUCATION IN INDIA

The journey of education in India is a long drawn one. We have
moved on from Gurukuls of 200 B.C. through the ancient Buddhist
Viharas, the medieval maktabs and Madarsas to the modern education
system, which is a direct result of the British rule.

Ancient Indian Period:

In the epic, period the “Gurukul Parampara” established “Guru-
shishya” relationship purely along altruistic lines. The “Guru” not only
imparted knowledge to his students on their duties (Dharma) and actions
(Karmas) but also acted as a “Marg-Darshik” (One who gives direction to
his followers). A wholistic approach was followed to impart physical
(military), moral and intellectual training to the young persons. Nehru (1946) refers to these as forest universities as they were located in forests, to avoid the influence of urban centres. However, with the advent of Buddhism, the Gurukuls were relegated to a less significant status and the Buddhist monasteries (Viharas) started influencing the minds of people. The focus was on following the middle path which avoided attachment to passion and worldly pleasures on the one hand and the practice of self-mortification and asceticism, on the other. Buddha started monasteries (Viharas) where monks lived and spent their lives, praying and preaching Buddhism. The Viharas were also used as schools attended by people from all strata of society. Some of the more famous were at “Nalanda” and “Vikramshila” in Bihar and “Valabhi” in Gujarat.

Nehru (1946) also refers to Benaras as a centre of learning and according to him even in Buddha’s time, it was known as such. Although, it was not anything like a university, yet there were numerous groups there, consisting of a teacher and his disciples who held fierce debates and arguments on various subjects. However, in the north-west, there was a famous university at Taxila known for science, especially medicine and the arts. People used to go there for education from distant parts of India. During the Buddhist period, it also became a centre of Buddhist scholarship and attracted Buddhist students from all over India and across the border from the central Asia and Afghanistan.

The Mughal Period:

During the Mughal period, Persian was the official court language. Thus, a number of ‘Madrasas’ were opened to promote both the Persian and Urdu languages. As the majority of Muslims in India were converts from Hinduism, partly because of their long contact with the Mughals, they developed numerous common traits, habits, ways of living and artistic tastes in music, painting, architecture, food and common traditions,
especially in Northern India. A large number of Hindus wrote books in Persian while at the same time, a number of Muslims scholars translated Sanskrit books into Persian and wrote in Hindi. For example, Abdur Rahim, a Mughal noble in Akbar's court, was a scholar in Arabic, Persian and Sanskrit and his Hindi "dohas" (couplets) are still recited. A number of poets had begun writing in Urdu and in the 18th century, Delhi and Lucknow became the centers of Urdu poetry. Besides, many Muslims scholars were attached to the court or were incharge of theological and other academies.

The Colonial Period:

The Colonial origin of modern education system is traced back to Indian Act of 1813 of the education policy promoted by the East India Company. A provision was made to spend a lakh of rupees on education. This was, later on in 1833, increased to ten lakh rupees. However, the commitment of the government towards this task was inadequate (Basu, 1982). The East India Company was expected to provide good education necessarily through the medium of English to only a few persons who may or may not be from the upper castes. It was expected that these persons would educate the masses through modern Indian languages (Nurullah and Naik, 1951). There was an implicit caste and class bias in this elitist policy of education, which was further strengthened through the adoption of Macaulay's minutes of 1835, favouring English as the medium for learning. This, in effect, destroyed the old indigineous system of education and set aside the new western system of education decisively beyond the reach of the masses (Heredia, 2000).

Later on, the East India Company in its education dispatch of 1854, introduced a system of grants-in-aid to privately managed institutions. This made the expansion of education dependent on the private agencies who were willing to carry the burden which the government expressed its
inability to bear (Heredia, 1981). As a consequence of this grants-in-aid code, it is observed that about a third of cost was borne by the private agencies whereas two-thirds was provided by the government. Although, this provided a relief to the government of some of the financial cost and much of the organizational initiatives in education but it resulted in the laissez-faire policy enunciated by the Indian Education Commission (1882), popularly known as Hunter Commission (Basu, 1982). No doubt, the rapid expansion of education as a result of this, caused serious concern to the government. Lord Curzon tried to bring some order in the educational system, with an emphasis on quality over quantity but in spite of Indian Universities Act of 1904, the Calcutta Universities Commission (1917) found the system, “fundamentally defective in almost every aspect”. The demand for education, especially Western and English education, motivated a large number of private agencies to go in for it, with a desire of upward mobility for their respective caste and religions communities. It was estimated by Naik (1967) that about 85 per cent of colleges and 65 per cent of our secondary schools were in the private sector. Following the footsteps of missionaries each new group, that is, Brahmins after 1882, Non-Brahmins after 1921, the Dalits with Ambedkar in the 1940’s and Adivasi Seva Mandals in the 1950’s, asked for government recognition and grants, not on the basis of performance and quality but on the principle of equality and non-discrimination (Dickinson and Appasamy, 1967).

No doubt, the official education policy in British India had strict religious neutrality but this religious neutrality was simply a matter of historical accident. It is argued that diversity and depth of religious affiliation in India was a pragmatic political necessity (Naik, 1965). In short, higher education in India turned out to be extremely elitist in content and form, representing a small tip of the pyramid with a very inadequate
base. The focus here was on the transmission of knowledge and not on its creation and more so in the Arts than the Science, producing more generalists than specialists and more liberals than professionals (Heredia, 2000).

The first three universities of modern India were established in the year 1857 in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras. These were affiliated universities having certain colleges attached to them. The pattern was to hold examinations, charge fees and award degrees at under-graduate and post-graduate levels (Gore, 1994). Before the establishment of these universities, the East India Company supported the opening of the Calcutta Madrasa and the Benaras Sanskrit College in 1781 and 1791, respectively. Both these institutions were providing a regular supply of qualified Indians to help the administration in the courts of the company. It is also reported that the Fort William College was started in Calcutta in 1801 and a few of Indian scholars under a British Principal were engaged to acquaint the British civilians with the languages, history, law and customs of India.

Post Independence Period:

At the time of independence of the country, the educational situation was not encouraging. Due to a long colonial rule, the basic task was to restructure it radically and rapidly with a view to provide a system of national education suitable to our social needs. The thrust had to be on providing universal, free elementary education, reduction of adult illiteracy, adoption of Indian languages as media of instruction, a rational language policy for effective communication, restructuring secondary and higher education through vocationalisation and diversifications, making course contents socially relevant, modernization of methods of teaching and examinations, promoting research facilities and putting special emphasis on the education of weaker sections of the society such as
women, scheduled castes and tribes and other backward communities (Kamat, 1972).

It is observed that during the period from 1950-51 to 1975-76, the total number of educational institutions increased by about two and a half times whereas the number of students enrolled went up by four times. The number of teachers correspondingly also increased four-fold whereas the total outlay on education rose from about 1.2% of the national income to a little over 3 per cent (Kamat, 1980). Subsequently, there has been expansion of higher education during each of the Five-Year Plans. As on 1999-2000, we have as many as 229 universities (Xavier, 2000). These include institutions deemed to be universities but exclude other institutions of national importance. Besides, we have as many as 9278 colleges including professional colleges (Medicine, Engineering, Agricultural and Teacher’s Training). The number of students enrolled with these institutions is 6425000 whereas the number of teachers is around 311000.

We have 39 institutions deemed to be universities, as well as, 11 institutions of National importance. It is also observed that the share of higher education expenditure during the eighth Five Year Plan (1992-97) was around 7 per cent (Tilak, 1999).

Not more than 6 per cent of the students in the age group of 17-23 years are enrolled for higher education. The corresponding ratio in developed countries is above 40 per cent while in developing countries, it is around 7 per cent. In our context, a large proportion of enrollment of students in higher education is at the under-graduate level whereas students in post-graduate and research studies are few (Source: UGC, Annual Report, 1995-96).

Further, it is observed that the majority of students (90.07%) are enrolled in general courses while a few (9.93%) have gone in for professional studies in higher education. The male-female ratio for general
studies as on 1996 is 1.69:1 whereas in 1947 it was 8.29:1. Again, in 1996 the male-female ratio in professional courses was 3.12:1. The above statistics are indicative of an increase in female enrollment in higher education (Powar, 1997). During the course of planned development, efforts have been made by the respective state governments (since education is a state subject) to structure the educational system, in a way, as to outreach the areas previously unserved. Further, attempts have also been made to improve the quality of education by relating it to the indigenous life and culture of people and to the different needs of regional areas within the country. In order to improve the relevance of education to our cultural ethos, efforts have been made to re-activate our national languages and to impart instructions to students through them during the early years of formal schooling.

However, these efforts have created more disparities among students in this competitive world as most of the students trained through local languages cannot have higher rate of occupational achievements than those trained through English medium. This elitist approach to higher education has not been rectified despite various commissions appointed by the Government of India, that is, by the University Grants Commission, the apex body at the national level to guide the central as well as state universities from time to time.

The University Grants Commission (UGC) was set up in 1953 on the recommendation of Radha Krishnan Commission on Education (1950). In order to promote quality research works in various subjects at the university level, the UGC went ahead in establishing centres of advance study in selected universities in the country, as there was a growing fear that the university departments were being reduced to mere teaching shops (Deshpande, 2001). However, these centres have not yielded the desired results. In many cases, they have been performing below standards and in
some cases these have been closed down. Quite lately, the functioning of
UGC has been questioned in various quarters both by the professionals and
the non-professionals. Despite the UGC being innovative in launching
programs such as autonomous colleges, examination reforms, semester
system, merit promotion scheme, academic staff colleges to organize
refresher and orientation courses for college teachers and academic
accreditation of an institute, there is no visible lasting impact of these
schemes in improving the standards of teaching and research in higher
education.

The situation of educational standard at the college level is more
alarming than at the university level. In one of its recommendations, the
Kothari Commission in 1964 suggested the idea of conferring autonomous
status on some colleges with a view to provide them freedom to devise and
adopt their own curriculum, courses of study and syllabi, methods of
teaching and evaluation and admission policy. However, this could not be
translated the concept of autonomous colleges into action and the UGC
decided to give autonomous status to 500 colleges throughout the country
by 1990. Unfortunately, this target could not be achieved for various
reasons. In 1994, there were only 114 autonomous colleges spread over
seven states. Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Rajasthan and Gujarat have
112 of these 114 colleges whereas Orissa and Madhya Pradesh each have
one autonomous college. The performance of these colleges is normally
reviewed to ensure accountability (Sundaram, 2000). Presently, efforts are
also being made to promote autonomous colleges in the Northern region.
However, the privately aided colleges have expressed doubts about this
program due to acute financial crunch. Further, it is feared that due to
information revolution and liberal, economic forces promoting
privatization of education, the college and universities may not be reduced
from centres of learning to centres for earning. We have already not more than 6 per cent of our youth going in for higher education and in the event of its privatization, not even 1 per cent of youth will be able to receive it. The privately aided colleges will find themselves in a difficult situation to go in for autonomous status in view of the irregular grants-in-aid, the 5 per cent cut, a freeze on the sanctioned posts, a steep hike in the fee structure and due to hints of further cuts in grants (Sharma and Kapoor, 1999).

One of the main contributing factors for deterioration in higher education is the poor allocation of funds. Since independence, our education expenditure has never touched the 4 per cent mark of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). No doubt, the Kothari Commission (1964-66) had recommended that it should not be less than 6 per cent. This was accepted in principle but could not be implemented despite repeated promises made by successive governments. In fact, a large number of newly started universities and colleges on account of paucity of funds and facilities turned out to be "academic slums". The major share of benefits of higher education during the last 50 years has gone to the elite sections of the society (Pillai, 2000). However, efforts were being made by the government to raise the expenditure on education to 6 per cent of GDP during the Ninth Five Year Plan.

Recently, the UGC has recommended introduction of certain new courses at the university level such as astrology and Vedic rituals to revive our past cultural heritage but this has led to controversial debates on the issue. However, the Radha Krishnan Commission Report, (1950) advocated that there should be a detached atmosphere of an academic institution where one can study, analyze and eliminate the prejudices and misunderstandings disfiguring inter-religions, to promote its secular character (Visvanathan, 2000).
3. REVIEW OF STUDIES

An attempt to examine the available literature reveals that most of the studies on this topic in India and abroad have focused either on students or on teachers in the school and college set-up. The review that follows is divided into two parts. Some of the studies conducted abroad will be reported in the first section, while in the second section, the studies carried out in India will be taken up.

STUDIES DONE OUTSIDE INDIA

The following studies describe the teaching beliefs, ethical dilemmas faced by teachers, changing role of teachers, faculty-chairperson relationship, and shift in attitudes of teaching assistants.

Knapp (1962) pointed out in his study a long term trend in the changing role of the teachers. Historically speaking, the teacher had been expected to contribute to the character development of students through counselling and other personal contacts. However, this aspect has become less important now and a greater emphasis is being laid on his research role.

Mizuno et al. (1990) examined the relationship between teaching beliefs and behaviour of elementary school teachers of Japan, Australia and Korea. The parameters used to show this relationship were classroom organization and management, curriculum instructions, test and evaluation and motivation. The relationship between teaching beliefs and behaviour was found most congruent among Australians, most incongruent in the case of Koreans and most vague for the Japanese teachers.

Gunnel (1991) carried out a study of ethical dilemmas among Swedish teachers. They were asked to describe critical incidents in their daily work. The results revealed that teachers were often put in situations of varying ethical difficulty and were left without guidance of explicit norms in finding solutions to the dilemmas.
Barge and Musambira (1992) carried out a study on 86 faculty members at a south-western U.S. university on the type of communicative events that influence faculty-chairperson relationships. The questions focused on characteristics of relationships, turning points, relational perceptions and conversational topics. Seven types of turning points were identified. These relate to performance evaluation including promotion and tenure, recognition, that is, receptivity of faculty ideas, support, that is, managing conflicts, trustworthiness including deceit and promise, job interference, interaction outside the work and inter-personal discussion. The study emphasized on the importance of chairpersons’ clarification of goals and reasons for particular actions.

Freyberg et al. (1993) studied the re-socialisation of 19 graduate student teaching assistants at a large Mid-Western U.S. Research University. A comparison of attitudes of pre-candidate and candidate teaching assistants shows differences in self-esteem and attitudes towards under-graduate students and professors. These differences show that the graduate program encourages a shift in self-identity among teaching assistants away from that of teacher and towards that of researcher.

In addition to the above, the studies given below indicate the influence of research, teaching commitments, environment etc. on the publication productivity of teachers and also highlight the same on gender basis.

Fox (1992) carried out a survey during 1986-87 on a national sample of social sciences faculty in U.S.A. to examine the influence of research and teaching interests, time commitments, orientation of faculty and their perceived environments on publication productivity. The findings point out a strain between research and teaching. Those having high publication productivity have strong investments in research but not in teaching. This indicates that research and teaching do not represent aspects of a single
dimension of academic investments. In fact, these are two different conflicting dimensions.

Noordenbos (1992) examined the career tracks, publication rates and time management of 72 female and 40 male Professors of Belgian University in the same working environment. It was revealed by the study that males published no more than females. Again, it was found that females who worked in departments were offered fewer opportunities for publications and generally occupied lower positions than males.

Further, the studies mentioned below highlight the use of pictures and television in the classroom for imparting education to students.

Pettersson (1991) carried out a study on the use of various media and different kinds of pictures used in the classroom activities by the Swedish teachers. Responses from teachers and students and calculations of media utilization index values, showed that media utilization was low or extremely low in social sciences. Even the index of picture type utilization was found to be low. Blackboards and textbooks were the most common media forms utilized in the classrooms.

Saeedi (1998) carried out a sociological study on education through television among 208 students and 50 teachers of Malayar University in Iran. The study revealed that the B.S. (graduate) students showed favourable results towards the positive influence of ETV (Education Television). The experimental groups taught by T.V. have shown superior mean achievement score in Geology but not in Geography and English language. Thus, the degree of ETV's impact in education depends on the nature of subject and its course content. Again, it was pointed out by the study that there has to be a mutual complementary role of television and the other tools of instruction. In other words, television as a teaching tool has to be integrated and balanced with other instruments of teaching (teacher) for augmenting education.
Again, the studies stated below focus on evaluation of teachers by students, influence of teacher’s race, gender and ethnicity on the learning of students, decrease in the enrollment of women students due to economic cuts and the effect of fathers’ education on the educational aspirations of college girls.

Baali (1967) carried out a study among college girls in Iraq to find out the relationship between their educational aspirations and fathers’ education, socio-economic status and authority pattern in the family. It was found that the educational attainment of the father was positively associated with educational aspirations of his daughter(s). Further, it was found that the college girls whose fathers have had high educational attainments tended to be more desirous of education than the girls whose fathers have had low educational attainments.

Feldman, (1992) carried out a study among the college students to ascertain their views about male and female college teachers in the United States of America. The findings of the study revealed that in a minority of cases, male teachers received higher overall evaluations by students than the female teachers. This finding is not supported globally. Further, perceptions and ratings of male and female teachers by students on specific instructional dimensions either showed no differences or inconsistent differences across various courses pursued by students. It was also observed that, no same gender or cross-gender bias existed.

Ehrenberg et al. (1995) examined the influence of the teacher’s race, gender and ethnicity on the learning of students in the United States of America. The analysis of data revealed that the match between teacher/student’s race, gender and ethnicity had little association with the extent of learning of students. However, in several instances, these factors were found to be significantly determining the teachers’ subjective evaluations of their students.
Assie-Lumumba (2000) while analyzing the crisis in higher education due to economic cuts and inadequate state financing support, resulting into curtailment of women students, referred to an earlier study, (1996) and that of Saint (1992). These revealed the impact of financial cut-backs on women’s enrollment in higher education in Africa. The lag in their enrollment was even visible before the crisis of higher education in this region. Further, these studies indicated that this gender gap in enrollment was mainly due to the changed investment priorities.

**STUDIES DONE IN INDIA**

An attempt is made in this section to present the review of studies, by and large, according to the year of their publications. The first review and trend report on the Sociology of Education of India was brought out by Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR) in 1974 (Chitnis, 1974). The second review and trend report in this field was again done by Chitnis in 1980 for ICSSR (Chitnis, 1980). The first trend report had focused on six basic themes. The most prominent among them was the social background, attitudes and values of college students and teachers. Some of these studies have been done by Desai (1953), Ahmed (1968), Shah (1967), Chitra (1970) and Gore et al. (1970). The second theme was related to the socialization functions of education to understand its influence on the modernization of students (Shah, 1963, Sharma, 1968, Cormarck, 1961). The third theme for research in this area had been in relation to expansion and growth of education in Indian society whereas the issues of education, equality, mobility and social stratification had been mentioned as the fourth area in this field (D’souza, 1961; Thirtha, 1967; Joshi, 1967). The organization and structure of education constituted the fifth area of research while roles in education specially that of the teacher and the student had been referred to as the sixth theme of research. However in the second review and trend report, Chitnis (1980) brought out
a systematic analysis of education in the country. Studies conducted in India range from the school, the college and the university to the educational organization of an entire state. But in the context of the present review, we will concentrate on studies related to higher education only.

Brar’s (1972) analysis of the role preference of faculty members in a university showed that the faculty members were more teaching than research oriented. Further, it was observed that lecturers and readers were more research oriented than professors who gave preference to the character building role than to research.

Kapoor (1974) in her study has pointed out that in Indian universities and colleges, the women teachers are generally drawn from a relatively higher socio-economic background as compared to male-teachers. Employment for many of them is not a source of livelihood but a status symbol. Many of them are wives of well-placed white collar workers.

Chitnis (1973) studied the role of teachers in the college system and also examined the social background and role performance of college teachers at the University of Bombay (1974). Similar issues have also been looked into by Jayaram (1976) and Ramanamma (1979) in their respective research work. Chitnis (1979) also analyzed the level of the professionalisation of college and university teachers in India and discussed their role as agents of development and change.

Heredia (1979) presents a socio-demographic profile of college teachers at Bombay University and analyses the structure of their situation in the academic organization.

Bhoite (1978) has focused on the degree of commitment of college teachers and also whether they have acquired modernization in certain aspects of life, that is, involvement in religion and religious practices,
belief in occult powers etc. Apparently, the teachers are placed in some kind of a dilemma in between what they want through education, what they profess in their class-rooms and what they are required to practice in their daily life situations.

Lal and Nahar (1978) carried out a study on the scheduled caste and the scheduled tribe students in five districts (Jaipur, Ajmer, Jhunjhunu, Jodhpur and Kota) in the state of Rajasthan. The sample constituted 233 scheduled caste and 209 scheduled tribe students. They were drawn respectively from 15 colleges for SCs and 11 colleges for STs in the selected districts. The main finding of the study is that nearly two-thirds of the SCs college students and 90 per cent of the STs college students have not experienced any sort of ill treatment from the upper caste Hindus. Further, a large number of them are satisfied with the reservation policy of government for education and employment. However, they are also equally desirous of extension of this policy for employment in the private sector along with the government sector. The higher education of these students, has shown favourable results for them in seeking employment as well as a change in the attitudes of upper caste students towards them.

Khanna (1979) in her study reports that those who opted for the teaching profession were those inspired mainly by their teachers with whom they remained in contact throughout their educational career. Besides, fascination for professional status in society, desire for higher social prestige, better prospects and chance for self-expression, motivated them to choose teaching as their career.

Singh (1979) in his study gave evidence of academic achievements of teachers in their research pursuits. He suggested a positive relationship between the rank of the teacher and his academic accomplishments. He pointed out that teachers of social sciences had better understanding of the values related to objectivity and rationality. On the other hand, the science
teacher had imbibed the mechanistic aspects of science without grasping its basic elements like suspicesticism and inquiry. Further, in his analysis he has suggested four-fold typology of teacher value orientations such as pure traditional, traditional-transitional, modern-transitional, and pure modern. He observed that the role structures of teachers were more transitional than pure traditional or pure modern. Those who were pure modern in their outlook constituted a small minority and showed higher commitment, higher proper aspirations and a demand for autonomy in the pursuit of their profession. Similarly, the pure traditional who showed lower aspirations, lower commitment and submission to the decision of others, were also in a minority.

Sharma (1979) analyzed the role of university education in student modernity as well as on the role preference of university teachers. Basing his study on the interviews of 770 students and 241 teachers of the Panjab University Campus, he indicated that there was a trend of negative association between the level of education and modernity. As regards the role preference of university teachers, he reported that the majority of teachers rated the teaching role as most important, the research role (the creator of knowledge) as of considerable importance, character-building role as relatively less important and perspective shaping role (socio-political outlook moulding) as the least important.

Preet Manav (1987) in her study of college teachers examined their professional orientation and role preferences. It was revealed that male teachers were more professionally oriented than their female counterparts. Further, male teachers preferred roles such as teaching and research whereas female teachers emphasized on the character building role and that of teaching.

Singh (1987) in his study of changing status and role of university teachers reported that a large number of them laid emphasis on the career
making of the students. Besides, a majority of them considered their role as generators of knowledge. However, most of them did not show much interest in the fact that they could play a role in the development of society.

Ranade (1987) in her study of college going Muslim girls in Bombay, examined issues such as wearing of the veil, knowledge of the “Quran and Shariyat” and need for any change in the latter, the position of women in Islamic countries and awareness of and attitudes towards the feminist movement in India. The respondents belonged to middle and upper middle class backgrounds. The college girls knew very little about the situation of women in Muslim countries except something about Pakistan and about dowry deaths in India. They had picked up this information from film magazines and Urdu newspapers only. They were probed further to find out as to why they did not use the library facilities in the college for seeking information on these issues. The majority of them responded that they were not allowed to sit for long in the library by their family members as they expected them to reach home early.

Talesra (1989) carried out a study on higher education among women in the district of Udaipur in the state of Rajasthan, covering all the institutions of higher learning either financed or administered by the government or voluntary agencies including technical or professional colleges. The sample included 500 women students. The main finding of the study is that most of the benefits of higher education for women have gone in favour of upper segments of the society whereas the disadvantaged groups especially the scheduled tribes (who have an overwhelming majority in the seven of the 18 tehsils of the district) are deprived of these benefits.

Sharma (1989) conducted a study on political awareness among students in the Panjab University. It was found that the socio-economic background of students particularly their gender status, type of schooling
done, rural/urban background, education and occupation of parents
determined their level of awareness both in terms of political information
and its evaluation.

Prasad et al. (1990) studied the motivational pattern of school and
college teachers in Bihar. In the case of college teachers, 50 male teachers
from a constituent college and 50 from affiliated colleges in the age group
of 32 to 36 years, were chosen from a town in South Bihar. The
motivational factors for the teachers of constituent college were ranked in
the following order in terms of their importance; advancement, security,
hours of work, supervisor and pay. Essentially, they were concerned with
security of job and advancement of their career. The hours of work, the
nature of supervision were not that important factors for them. On the other
hand, the affiliated college teachers ranked security, supervisor, pay, hours
of work and advancement in that order. In their case, the security of job
depended upon the recommendations of the Principal or that of the
Secretary of the college. The workload was heavy and there was a feeling
of stagnation. As such the question of advancement in their career did not
arise. There were different incentive preferences among teachers of both
the colleges. Further, the teachers of the constituent college showed more
satisfaction with the college climate as compared to the teachers of the
affiliated colleges.

Kalra et al. (1994) examined the perception and feelings of teachers
about their community and institution. The sample consisted of 176
university and college teachers and the data were collected by using the
projective methodology. A significantly large number of teachers were
having a negative perception of their community and systems. Only 22.7%
teachers wanted to become teachers. Further, a large proportion of them
expressed their frustration, anguish and helplessness towards their
community and systems. The major pointer of the study is that teachers
with a high degree of negative perceptions and feelings along-with their low motivation, are less likely to accept the goals and values of their institutions than others. As such, they are not willing to exert a considerable effort for their institutions. It is suggested that the culture of our educational institutions can be improved upon through selection of right type of teachers having holistic personality development.

Kapoor et al. (1997) carried out a study on the future plan of 10+2 male students of scheduled castes belonging to rural areas of district Hisar in Haryana during 1995-96. A sample of 150 students from a cluster of 10 villages was taken. The majority of students (66%) were willing to go in for higher studies whereas 34% of them decided to take up jobs after the completion of their course. It was further revealed that the students aspiring to join higher studies belonged to “Chamar”, “Dhanak” and “Balmiki” castes, had nuclear families and urban background and were from higher income groups. Most of them were holders of first and second division and their parents were educated and engaged in service. On the other hand, those students who wanted to take up a job in future were from “Odd”, “Doom” and “Khatik” castes, had joint families and rural background. Further, their parents were illiterate and belonged to lower income groups. Besides, most of the students had obtained third divisions. An interesting finding was that with the rise of per capita annual income of the families, the proportion of students willing to go in for higher education also increased. The majority of students planning to join service were drawn from lowest per capita income group.

A synoptic review of studies outlined above throws up some factors influencing the role-analysis of teachers in higher education. While some of these studies indicate the relevance of gender, status or rank of the teachers, stream of courses pursued by teachers (Science, Social Science, Professional), academic attainment of teachers and fascination for
professional status in society, in understanding the role of the teacher, others highlight the significance of desire for higher social prestige, better prospects and chance for self-expression, inspiration drawn from their teachers and role preferences of teachers etc. as factors having bearing on their role-analysis. In the context of the present study, some of the factors identified above have been taken into account for analysis purposes.

A look at the literature on the sociology of education in India indicated that it is mainly restricted in coverage. This may be due to the fact that a very small number of sociologists are engaged in research on education. Besides, the consumption of sociological research on education is very limited. There are hardly any quality probes in this area of research. The heterogeneity and plurality of Indian society further makes it very expensive to cover all the relevant parameters related to education in various studies (Chitnis, 1982).

Also, even in the few studies focusing the role of university and college teachers, the analysis takes into account only the teachers without taking into consideration the perception of students towards their role in education. In the context of the present study, an attempt has been made to examine the expectations of students from the teachers along with that of Chairpersons of the teaching departments and the Principals of the colleges, towards the role performance of teachers.

4. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Keeping in view the problem of the study, the following objectives have been laid down for carrying out the study.

1. To examine the socio-cultural and economic characteristics of the selected respondents. (Selected teachers, Chairpersons and students of the University Departments and selected teachers, Principals and students of Colleges).
2. To delineate the role perception and performance of the teachers both at the university and college levels and to relate these to some of their socio-cultural characteristics.

3. To analyse the expectations of selected students as well as Principals of colleges and Chairpersons of the departments in the university towards the role performance of the teachers.

4. To study the nature of role conflicts of teachers and their views on crisis in higher education along with suggestions to make their role more effective.

(II)

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In order to analyse the role of teachers in a university system, it may be worthwhile to examine certain perspectives on education, role and profession.

I. EDUCATION

Basically we could conceive of three major perspectives in the field of sociology of education, namely structural-functional, conflict and interactional.

The structural-functional perspective on education system examines the relationship between the structure of society and the function of education in maintaining, legitimizing and internalizing the collective conscience as a sub-system of the society. This view given mainly by Durkheim, considers moral values as pattern maintaining forces. He treats them largely as social, maintaining that these are responsible for the solidarity of society and for the integration of individuals into the society. This perspective holds that if education has to play its function to transmit these values, then it must work towards solidarity and integration rather than towards differentiation and pluralism. Parsons, refining some of the
basic ideas postulated by Durkheim, said that the social order in the society is achieved through operation of an integrating system shared by all members of the society. According to him, there is a link between the reproduction of society and the production of individual personalities through the process of socialization. For Parsons (1959), the system of education is an agency through which individuals are trained to be motivationally and technically adequate in order to perform the adult roles. In this respect, the part played by schooling in allocating men or women to special roles and in teaching them their contributions is tremendous.

The main difficulty with this perspective is that it presents society as an all pervasive entity, that is, overarching men in terms of constraining, moulding and regulating without taking into account the problems of disorganization or of conflicting interests over the balance of power. Moreover, this perspective provides an oversocialized conception of Man wherein he has been depicted as one receiving dominant influences rather than being a creator of things. Further, any failure within the system is mainly attributed to poor organizational factors, lack of fit between the role and personality and to the inadequate adaptation to the emerging social systems (Meighan, 1981).

The second perspective on education is the conflict view, which focuses on the power dimensions of human behaviour. The Marxian analysis has emphasized economic development of social organization including education through the capitalist mode of production. It is mainly in line with what Apple (1979-80) has called the deep structure of education. The focus here is to delineate the ways in which the day to day organization and routine activities of life in class-room are explained in terms of distribution of power in society. In this perspective, schooling is seen not as a process of socialization of new members of society into a collectively established moral order or as a result of creative interaction of
local groups but as a phenomenon of distribution of resources and opportunities in societies. It is argued that educational affairs are influenced by the ideologies and direct intervention of socially and politically dominant groups. In other words, the socialization of students is done in an environment which is based on relationships of dominance and sub-ordination. Ivan Illich (1972) has added another dimension to this view. According to him, education should be a liberating experience and should help individuals to freely develop their faculties and acquire skills. He believes that the schooling system is not effective in the above regard. Thus, he suggests the de schooling of the society.

The main limitation of this perspective is that human behaviour cannot be visualized in terms of a simple response to the structural arrangements of society and upon the settings in which cultural forms are created as a consequence of mode of production, but as something arising out of the dynamic association of these set of factors. As such, it is difficult to establish a simple correspondence between the capitalist mode of production and the school system that serves to produce and reproduce the kind of social relations necessary for its maintenance and development.

The third perspective of interactionist approach considers Man as autonomous, capable of utilizing his full potential to create a truly human social order as and when he is freed from external constraints. The emphasis here is on Men’s ability to recognize and influence the world around and the part they play within it. This perspective is basic in analyzing both the objective and subjective social reality. Blumer (1962), however, mentions that structural features such as culture, social systems, social stratification may set conditions for directions but these in on way determine the actions. Douglas (1971) argues that any scientific understanding of human actions must be initiated and built upon an appreciation of the every day life of the members performing these actions.
This fact has given impetus to the rise of sociology of education during 1970's in Britain.

In this perspective, the thrust is to examine how teachers and pupils act and interact in schools to construct and understand the definitional categories on which they base their activities. This is with a view to bring the system of education into more direct control of its creators and users. If we want to understand the interaction between the teacher and a student, as sociologists, we may have to comprehend the various definitions of the situations by both these participants in the interaction and also the ways in which these different definitions impinge upon each other. This will, of course, involve a series of negotiations of the acceptable role definitions for these individuals in order to have a totality of interactional setting. Many of the situations may present conflict of interest among the interacting actors and there may be efforts to arrive at a working consensus while in other settings, many individuals may find it difficult to sustain a relationship due to lack of harmony. A continued involvement in it may prove more costly than profitable. In such a situation an individual may try to withdraw completely from the relationship.

The difficulty with the interactionist perspective is that it does not explain the ‘concept of power’ in terms of dominant positions of some over others as a consequence of unequal inter-personal relationships. Within this perspective, individuals are seen as having the freedom to define reality and to act upon their own definitions. This may result into the most powerful partners in the interacting situations to impose their definitions on others, thus hampering the interactional process.

In the field of Sociology of Education, both the structural-functional as well as conflict perspective are significant. However, in the past couple of decades, the interactionist perspective has gained a great deal of popularity in this field in view of its relevance to the day to day activities
and situational contingencies. It is also important because it takes into account the roles of different actors in the interacting situations.

II. ROLE

In order to analyse the role of the teacher in providing education to the students, it may be worthwhile to examine the conceptualization of role performance. Invariably the concept of role has been implied to denote prescriptions, descriptions, evaluation and action. Primarily, role has been defined from two viewpoints. Under the structural-functionalist perspective, a role has been defined by Linton (1945) as a set of social norms which are part of the culture transmitted to the interactants in any given situation. It is further elaborated that role is the dynamic aspect of status and the content of role is the totality of cultural patterns associated with a particular status. However, while Linton overlooked the fact that a particular status may involve a whole range of associated roles, this refinement was brought about by Merton (1957) through the concepts of role set and status set. According to him, a role set is considered a complement of role relationships which a person may have by virtue of occupying a particular status. Similarly, a complement of social statuses occupied by an individual is his or her status set. As a part of the dynamic aspect of functional analysis, he also brought in the concept of status sequence which implies successive statuses that an actor may occupy during the course of time provided for the succession to be patterned. In the same manner, the role sequence refers to the succession of role performance of an actor with a specific status. It is also observed that the various role obligations displayed by an actor may result in contradictory performances. This may lead to an individual facing a number of conflicting arrays of role obligations.
Talcott Parsons (1951) defines role as an organized sector of an actor’s orientation which constitutes and defines his or her participation in an interactive process. In other words, it may involve a set of complementary expectations concerning one’s own actions and those of others with whom one interacts.

Nadel (1957) appears to differ from Linton and Parsons in the sense that he does not treat status as static or positional and role as dynamic or processual. In fact, he considers role as a kind of class concept. According to him, it is the existence of names describing a class of people which make us think of roles. His argument is that any sociologically relevant behaviour is always purposeful. He also considers status as quasi-role which means, “set of rights and obligations in a piece of knowledge”, as relevant to a position in a “social structure”.

Banton (1965) also defined role as a set of rights and obligations in terms of an abstraction to which the behaviour of people will conform in varying degrees. He considers role in terms of pattern of expected behaviour reinforced by a structure of rewards and penalties that may induce an individual to conform to the pattern. This view takes a static stand and an individual is expected to fit into the position provided to him without making any efforts to alter his activities.

Newcomb (1950) brought the concept of role from social anthropology to social psychology. It is conceived as an expected or appropriate behaviour. To him, a social role is different from its actual performance enacted in a social position. He suggests that an individual’s status involves a wide variety of role relations. Consequently, the individual may find himself or herself as holding positions having incompatible role requirements.

Sarbin (1954) conceives role as a patterned sequence of learned actions performed by a person in an interacting situation. He has
highlighted the non-normative stimuli and responses as a part of interaction. In this, the action of one actor provides stimulus to another whose response in turn, may become the stimulus for the first actor. In this way, the sequence of interaction continues.

Role has also been examined from the perspective of symbolic interaction. In this perspective, an individual is considered as a creative thinking organism, capable of choosing his or her behaviour and the role orientation or the conception of the part, he or she plays in the social settings. Mead (1934) in his concept of role-taking describes how an individual while taking on the role of others foresees the situation on an objective basis, that is, from the point of view of the “generalised other”. He gives a fundamental theory of human sociality where the role has been considered as a situationally specific normative expectation towards the position holders. Further, in this concept of role-taking, he explains how an individual reacts to his or her own gestures and anticipates the behaviour of others as one’s own.

Goffman (1967) elaborated his ideas further and highlighted his theory in terms of role performance and role distance. Role performance has been considered as an activity of a particular participant on a particular occasion influencing the performance of other participants, while role distance implies a kind of separateness between an individual and his or her role. Further, role distance seems to fall between the role-obligation and the actual role performance. This concept may be useful while explaining the behaviour of teachers towards students or vice-versa. In certain situations, one incumbent despite resentment or bitterness towards the other may avoid role conflict by conforming to obligations, though with diffidence, and thereby create a wedge between himself or herself and the actual role performance.
The common element in all the above concepts of role is that they are guided by “expected patterns of behaviour”. It is argued that the behaviour of people is often influenced by their own expectations and those of others in the group and that of society in which they are participants. As such, it may be desirable to conceive the concept of role in terms of perception, expectation and performance of incumbents in positions in different settings within the social system.

Roles are also influenced to a large extent by the rewards and sanctions that go in between actors and others. Homans (1961) and Blau (1964) also argue that once a person finds it rewarding to behave in a certain way, he is likely to repeat that form of behaviour in that situation. Thus a teacher while performing his or her role is also likely to be influenced by the set of rewards and facilities available to him or her.

Within the various role perspectives outlined above, the role perception is viewed as that set of behaviour, the occupant of the particular position believes he or she should enact. The perception of individuals may vary according to their mental and personality make-up, needs, motives and previous experiences. Invariably, the perceived role may not correspond to the expected role. On the other hand, the role expectations are comprised of rights and privileges as well as the duties and obligations that any person in his or her social position may hold in relation to others within a social structure. Role-expectation may often be constrained by certain societal sanctions and measures, as society expects different persons to conform with it description of the same. Therefore, the role enactment or the role performance by an individual is carried out within socially defined patterns having many variations at different times and places. Again, although all individuals take part in different role relationships having various obligations, the role of the individual is also influenced by the performance of other individuals. Certain acts that
exceed the limits of acceptable behaviour may result in evaluation of invalid and unacceptable role enactments. If there is an agreement between the role expectation and the role performance of an individual, it may provide social stability within the social system. But if there is an element of disagreement between the two, it may indicate the presence of some conflict leading to a possibility and likely direction of change in the social structure.

In short, an attempt has been made in the present study to analyse the role perception, expectation and performance of university and college teachers taking into account some of the theoretical formulations given above.

III. PROFESSION

There are three major approaches that have been highlighted in the study of professions. Evert C. Hughes (1958) of Chicago school, considered occupation as "role performance". However, there is a need to re-examine this approach in view of changing aspects of social interaction. Interactionists among sociologists treat profession as a set of role relationships between an expert and a client. The expert provides skill and knowledge as a part of his or her expertise to the client and he or she in return gives him or her an equitable amount of fee. The second school of thought on profession is vouched by structuralists or occupational sociology group (Lvy League School). They consider professions as essentially stable institutions that reflect values and goals of the community. In other words, the professions are treated as functioning units that perform certain required tasks for the society. The structuralists have mostly approached the study of profession by constructing the continuum of degree of professionalisation. The third approach, that is the social class approach perspective (Marxist) in the study of professions bases its belief
on the fact that the contradictions or material dialectics will result into class formation of certain occupations as a result of change in the capitalist mode of production.

Professionals have a tendency to profess of what they know. In other words, occupational competence is an important attribute of a profession. Many attempts have been made to conceptualise and define a profession. However, we do not have any broad acceptance of an authoritative definition (Cogan 1953). Over a period of time, a number of other attributes have become significant in the conception of a profession. Flexner (1915), for example, considered professions as morally superior to other occupations. According to him, a profession would invariably involve intellectual activities based on the processes of learning for tackling problems. These activities can be taught or learnt and a profession gets organized internally. Some of the other attributes associated with profession are professional autonomy, long period of training, service orientation, body of theoretical knowledge and monopoly of judgement (Greenwood, 1957). Besides competence in job demonstrated by passing in test, integrity reflected by adherence to code of conduct and the organisation of profession through establishment of a professional body are other significant attributes (Millerson, 1964).

In fact, there are two main perspectives to analyse the sociology of profession. The first one is mentioned as functional perspective. This provides the understanding of professions as relatively monolithic and homogeneous social groupings and focuses on attributes, which distinguish a profession from other occupations. Professions have certain attributes through which the core needs of the society are served (Barber, 1963, Parsons, 1968). The second perspective on professions is viewed as conflict or processual approach. Johnson considers it in terms of power relations within a society. This view recognizes society as a collectivity
having different interest groups participating in the process of negotiation to acquire professionalisation (Johnson, 1972). According to Sharma (1980), the thrust in this perspective is on analyzing intra-professional conflicts, colleagueal relationships and congruities. However, these perspectives are complementary rather than competitive in their approach. They have certain common elements of professions such as specialized knowledge, work autonomy and the selection of a professional body.

Teachers, especially at the university level, have to evolve themselves into a homogeneous social group and make efforts to acquire certain attributes whereby they could share their identities, values, definitions of role and interests. At the same time, they have to make progression towards accomplishments of attributes through resolution of inter-conflicting identities, values and interests within the profession. Some of the aspects related to profession as outlined above will be useful in analyzing the role of the teacher.

2. HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY

A succinct presentation on Sociology of Education, Role and Profession in the preceding pages brings out some significant observations. Professionals are knowledgeable and they have service-orientation. The system of education trains individuals and motivates them to perform the various roles adequately for the integration of the society. It is also observed that the educational system is not to be seen only as a process of socialization of new members of society into a collective order but as a phenomenon of distribution of resources within the dimensions of power. We also need to understand the interaction between a teacher and a student with a view to comprehend the various definitions of the situations, that both these participants bring upon in different interactional settings. Further, we can discuss four main perspectives on Role; structural...
functional, stressing upon "expected patterns of behaviour"; social-psychological, emphasizing on an individual's perception in an interactional setting; symbolic interactionism focusing on the interplay of self and other actor's orientation of the part he or she is to play; and exchange theory, signifying the importance of rewards and incentives in a given relationship. All these aspects have a close bearing on the role-analysis of incumbents holding various positions within a social system. An attempt will be made to operationalize some of these concepts in the university system where the role of the teacher permeates as well as mediates.

A university system is a sub-system of the larger societal system. As such, apart from its internal dynamism, it is subjected to the external influences such as political, economic and social. Within its functioning, it has many inter-related and inter-dependent parts which integrate with each other to accomplish the desired academic goals. A university system is basically a representation of professional bureaucratic organization, more autonomous in its functioning than others, with a Vice-Chancellor as its head. By virtue of the power entrusted on him by the decision making or governing bodies (Senate and Syndicate), he manages the academic and non-academic affairs of the university as well as that of its affiliated colleges. He is supported in his task by a team of Financial Manager, Controller of Examination and an Establishment Administrator besides various other bodies and committees, for the smooth functioning of the academic work. There is an Academic Council comprising of Senior Faculty which provides consensus on the pedagogical aspects of education. In addition to the above, there are Departmental Committees such as Board of Control, Board of Studies, Administrative, Academic and Technical Committees which take care of the day to day functioning of various university teaching departments. There are also unions of teachers as well
as that of students to safe-guard their respective interests and resolve conflicting issues both through negotiations and confrontational agitations with the university and college administration. In the case of affiliated colleges, although for academic purposes, they have to follow the dictates of the university, yet for administrative purposes, the head of the college (Principal) has to follow the instruction and advice of the Government in respect of Government colleges while the Managing Committee of the Privately-aided colleges is the sole controlling authority for them.

Within this university system, the key actor is a teacher who as a professional, is a specialist in his or her subject and transmits knowledge to the students for their overall development. Teaching, as a profession, is ranked next to Medicine, Engineering and Executive Management. As a result, not many persons are attracted to join it. Some persons by aptitude and temperament may be well-motivated to take up this profession while for others, there may not be any other option except to join it. There are no standards as yet evolved to induct well-motivated and competent persons into this profession despite the introduction of UGC-NET or State Level Entrance Tests. This makes the recruitment process of teachers in the university system inappropriate. However, as teachers move on into this profession and over the years, get higher status (that is, they are promoted to the rank or position of Reader and Professor), their academic levels may also undergo a change. Some may show better academic proficiencies than others.

Further, with the spurt of female education, a large proportion of them have gone in for higher education. As a consequence of that, a substantive number of them have entered into this profession. It is also possible that males now are joining more competitive jobs than teaching. It is also believed that a teaching job for females provides the least familial conflicts and is more suitable to be taken up as a career. However, due to
different socialization practices prevailing in our society, their attitudes and value orientations on certain issues may vary from that of their male counterparts.

Like other professionals, teachers also desire that their services are recognized in the society. As stated earlier, some of them may excel others in academic pursuits and acquire a higher level of academic attainment. This factor may also influence the thinking of teachers towards the recognition of their services in the society. It is probable that those having a higher academic level may feel so more positively towards it than others with a lower academic level.

A university system provides a set of prescriptive roles to the teachers and they are expected to perform them adequately for transmitting knowledge to students through effective communication and for creating knowledge through research. Notwithstanding these prescriptive roles, the teachers' perception of their duties and responsibilities may cut across the various groups. As such, it may be worthwhile to examine the relevance of gender, status (rank or position) and academic levels of teachers to their perceived duties, expectations and performance. Again, it may be mentioned that a teacher's performance is often influenced by the type of reward system (incentives and facilities) available to him or her.

A teacher as a role model stimulates students through his or her projective image and innovative ideas while expecting them to respond positively towards making a living and facing the challenges of life. However, in an interactional setting between the teacher and the students, many conflicting situations may arise. These need to be resolved by arriving at some consensus to sustain the relationship and avoid disharmony. The best way to tackle such situations is through negotiated understanding of the different interests of both the interactants.
Over the years, due to the widespread of education, more opportunities have come in the way of girls to pursue higher studies. Besides, there is openness observed in the minds of parents especially those living in urban centers, to encourage girls to compete equally with boys for higher education. In fact, girls are outshining boys in academic pursuits. However, girls due to various gender-bias socialization practices, may feel differently about certain issues than boys. Even their expectations regarding academic activities from teachers may differ from each other.

In the interactional situations, most of the students are fascinated by certain attributes or characteristics of teachers. Besides, they may have reasons to believe that the teachers have played a significant role in their growth and development. Firstly, many of them may react positively or negatively towards the various issues involved in higher education. All these aspects may be in variance with their gender status. It is also observed that the students are drawn from the different socio-economic strata. Many of them belonging to lower socio-economic status may confront more difficulties in the pursuit of higher education than those having higher status.

In the light of above discussion some of the general hypotheses of the study are as follows:

1. The academic levels of the teachers may determine the extent of recognition of their services in the society.
2. The gender (sex), status (rank or position held) and the academic levels (high or low index) of teachers may influence their perceived duties, expectations from students and performance. Even the expectations of students from teachers may be related to their gender (sex of the students).
3. The gender of the students may influence their views on (a) issues related to higher education (b) the attributes of teachers that
influenced them most and (c) the significant role of teachers in their
growth and development.

4. The gender of the students and their family social status standings
may be related to their views on difficulties faced by them in going
in for higher education.

It may be pointed out here that variations may also be observed on
the above aspects in between the university and college teachers and also
in between teachers belonging to different streams of courses (science,
social science and professional) at the university level and in between the
teachers of a government and a privately managed college. These are also
examined in view of above stated hypotheses for an explicit comparative
analysis of data.

3. METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION
(1) LOCALE AND THE UNIVERSE OF THE STUDY

The study has been carried out in the Panjab University and two of
its affiliated degree colleges in Chandigarh. The Panjab University
(previously named University of the Panjab) was founded in 1882 at
Lahore as the fourth teaching and affiliating university in the Indian sub­
continent under the British rule. After the partition of the country, the
university got shifted to Chandigarh in 1956 and its red stone campus
designed by French architects came up within a few years.

During the year 1998, an estimate of over 18,000 students were
enrolled in the university teaching departments, out of which 13,000 alone
were in the department of correspondence studies whereas 69,000 students
were enrolled in the 104 affiliated colleges.

In all there are 53 teaching departments in the university having
more than 700 teachers. These include four chairs which are mainly-
managed by a single teaching faculty. Besides, it has seven smaller
departments that of foreign languages and south Indian languages which have not more than two faculty members. As such, in effect, there are 42 teaching departments. Thus, for the purpose of this study, we considered the same for drawing the sample (Source: Panjab University diary, 1999 Chandigarh).

(2) SAMPLING FRAME

The following procedures were followed in drawing the sample of the study:

I) Keeping in view the manageability of the study and taking into consideration the problem of research, it was thought best to choose 10 departments from the list of 42 departments identified in the university. A list of all these departments was prepared in an alphabetic manner and 10 departments (nearly 25 per cent of all the departments) were chosen randomly with the help of random number tables. Through this procedure, the departments selected in the University were Bio-Chemistry, Economics, Education, Geography, Laws, Mathematics, Micro-biology, Pharmaceutical Sciences, Political Science and Public Administration in that order. These have been re-grouped as departments of Sciences (Bio-Chemistry, Mathematics, Micro-biology and Pharmaceutical Sciences), Social Sciences (Economics, Education, Geography, Political Science and Public Administration) and Professional (Laws). In view of some departments not having a large number of teachers, it was thought best to include all the teachers in these departments instead of drawing a sample of them for making their number a sizeable one for the purposes of analysis. A list of teachers was prepared for each department. In all, 156 teachers were identified in the 10 selected departments, out of which 14 teachers were on long leave, either had gone abroad or were on maternity leave (in the case of female teachers). Of the remaining 142 teachers in these
departments, the non-response to the structured questionnaire was only 10. In all 132 teachers, 58 in the Science departments, 56 in the Social Science departments and 18 in the Professional (Laws) department, were contacted for interview purposes. The male-female breakdown for the Science departments has been 39 males and 19 females, while in the case of the Social Science departments, it has been 31 males and 25 females. In the case of teachers belonging to the Professional department (Laws) the number of males is 11 while that of females is 7. It involved several visits to each of these departments and constant persuasion of some teachers to keep down the rate of mortality of questionnaire to 7.04 per cent (This excludes 14 teachers who were on long leave).

II) There are in all 10 affiliated colleges functioning in Chandigarh, out of which, 4 are managed by the Government while 6 of them are Privately aided. The selection of two colleges was done on purposive basis, keeping in view the large number of students of both the sexes in the university. The main criterion was to choose colleges having co-educational facilities where both boys and girls could be chosen. Most of the colleges in Chandigarh are exclusive either for boys or girls barring a couple of them which have co-education either at the post-graduate level or in professional courses like commerce etc. Another criterion to select the colleges was to have one Government college and one Private college for comparative analysis. Accordingly, Government College, Sector 46 and Sri Guru Gobind Singh College, Sector 26, having co-educational facilities at the graduate level were selected. The Government College in Sector 46 was visited and a list of various departments was obtained after contacting the Principal of the college. In all, there were 18 departments listed. These were arranged in alphabetical order and five departments were chosen with the help of random number tables. These were Commerce, Economics, English, Mathematics and Political Science. All the teachers including the
guest faculty in these departments were taken up for interview purposes. In all 23 teachers, 10 males and 13 females were contacted for study purposes. This excluded one teacher who was on leave and one who did not respond.

The Principal of the SGGS College, Sector 26, was also contacted and a list of teachers was obtained. In all, there were 16 departments. To have a comparative analysis with the Government College, Sector 46, it was considered suitable to have the same departments chosen as those included in the Government College (Commerce, Economics, English, Mathematics and Political Science). The total number of teachers contacted for the study were 22, 8 males and 14 females. This excluded 2 teachers who were on leave during the period of study and 3 teachers who did not return the questionnaires. In all there were 52 teachers in the 10 departments of both the colleges out of which 4 teachers were in the non-response category (7.69 per cent) and 3 were on long leave.

The total number of teachers in the 18 departments at the Government College, Sector 46 Chandigarh were more than 50 while at the SGGS College, Sector 26 Chandigarh, their number was around 80. This difference in the number of teachers in between the two colleges was because of science departments (Chemistry, Physics, Botany and Zoology) at SGGS college while these were not existing in the other college.*

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* It is reported that the foundation stone of the S.G.G.S college was laid down by Sardar Partap Singh Kairon, the former Chief Minister of Panjab on August 29, 1960 while the inauguration of Government college was done by Shri S.S.Ray, former Governor of Panjab on November 17, 1989.
III) A sample of students was also taken from the final year classes at the post-graduate level in the university and at the graduate level in the two colleges, from the selected departments. In view of large variations observed in the student population ranging from 5 to 150 in some of the selected departments, a difficulty was faced in taking a sample of students in proportion to their numbers. Further, there was also a variation observed in regard to the proportion of boys and girls in each of the selected departments both at the university and college levels. In order to overcome this difficulty, it was decided to have an equal proportion of boys and girls in the selected departments to constitute the sample of students. Accordingly, keeping in view the constraints of time and to have a substantial number of students at the same time, it was thought best to have 4 boys and 4 girls from the final year class of the selected departments. However, an exception was made in the case of department of Microbiology in the university and Mathematics in both the colleges where the number of students was less than eight. In their case, all the students of the final year attending these departments, irrespective of their gender were included in the study. The students were chosen from the final year class mainly because they had longer interaction with the teachers than others. In case of sampling of students, again a purposive approach was followed, the main criterion being the willingness of boys and girls to fill in the questionnaire. In this respect, the help of the teachers, in charge of the regular class in the final year, was taken. They identified the students and helped the researcher in getting their interviews done in those cases who preferred to be interviewed than filling in the questionnaires. In this way, we could get information from 77 students in the university. In one of the science departments in the final year M.Sc class, there were only 4 females and one male. All the five students were taken for the study purposes. This reduced the total sample of students from 80 to 77.
As regards sampling of students in the colleges, a similar procedure was followed in respect of the selected departments. In the case of Government College, we had a total of 35 students (19 males and 16 females). In the final year of one of the departments, that is, Mathematics, there were only 3 male students. This resulted in having one male and 4 females less in the sample. The number of students in SGGS College from the selected departments was 37 (21 males and 16 females). Again in the Mathematics department in the final year class, all the five male students were taken into the sample since there were no female students. This increased the number of male students by one in the sample. In all 72 students from both the colleges (40 males and 32 females) were contacted for interview purposes. The criterion of getting the questionnaire filled in from the students on voluntary basis helped the researcher in getting cent per cent return of the same.

IV) All the Chairpersons of the selected departments in the university and Principals of both the colleges were also included for the study purposes. Out of 10 Chairpersons, seven of them willingly granted interview. However, in one case, the Chairperson frankly told that he did not believe in this kind of research while in another case, the Chairperson diplomatically put the researcher off. In the third case, the Chairperson of a department showed arrogance and refused to hand over the schedule containing guideline questions. These encounters enriched the experiences of the researcher in the field. The Principals of both the colleges because of their busy schedule preferred to fill in the schedule and were kind enough to return the same. In the case of certain Chairpersons of selected departments in the university a number of visits were made on them to persuade them to grant the interview as they had a very hectic schedule. Since the Chairpersons of the department and Principals of colleges were
interviewed with the help of guideline questions, they were excluded from the sampling frame of teachers.

(3) INSTRUMENTS OF DATA COLLECTION
I) Two set of structured questionnaire were designed. The first one was designed for eliciting information from all the teachers in different selected departments in the university and colleges. The questions framed were to elicit information regarding age, sex, marital status, caste, religion, educational level, rural-urban background, family background including education, occupation and income of father/mother/spouse, age of entry into this profession, educational achievements, visits abroad etc. Further, questions were framed to know the reason for having joined this profession, regrets if any for having joined this profession, perception of duties and responsibilities in this profession, actual performance of duties as perceived by teachers, gaps in perception and performance, perceived role of teachers in society, factors that raise the status of teachers, performance of role of teachers towards colleagues/supervisors/students etc.

II) The second one was designed for the students chosen from the selected university departments and two colleges to assess their perception on the role performance of teachers. Questions were framed to know the expectation of students from teachers in respect of classroom teaching, research guidance, social guidance and counselling, gaps in expectation and performance of teachers as perceived by students, problems of students and suggestions thereof to overcome these.

III) The Chairpersons of the 10 departments in the university and the Principals of the two colleges were interviewed with the help of guideline questions. Unlike the first two structured questionnaires, these were mainly kept open-ended so that they could respond to the questions in the manner
in which they would like to express themselves. An attempt has been made to develop caselets about these persons on the basis of that.

IV) The structured questionnaires designed for the study were pre-tested with a few persons other than the chosen. Necessary modifications were instituted before their actual administration to the selected respondents.

(4) ANALYSIS OF DATA

I) After the collection of data, a thorough examination of the questionnaires was done and the entire information was transferred on the sheets with the help of code design.

II) The data were nominal in nature. By and large, these were analysed by making simple and cross tables through ratios and proportions. However, for rating and ranking of various factors influencing the role-analysis of teachers and views of students simple statistical technique such as the mean score value was employed. The combined mean score value in the case of male and female respondents and the overall mean score values for the various factors (pooled mean score value) for different groups of respondents were worked out to show the relative importance of these factors in the role analysis of teachers, by using the following formula:

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\bar{X}_c = \frac{N_1 \bar{X}_1 + N_2 \bar{X}_2 + \ldots}{N_1 + N_2 + \ldots}
\]

III) In view of a substantial number of female teachers as well as nearly an equal proportion of female students to their male counterparts in the selected departments at the university and college levels, a sex-wise analysis of the data was presented in most of the tables.

IV) At the university level, in regard to analysis of data on teachers, apart from sex-wise interpretation, the same were also analysed according to the
stream of courses to which they belong (Science, Social Science and Professional) to have a comparative view point.

V) Apart from comparing the findings of university teachers with the college teachers, an attempt was also made to analyse the comparative views of teachers belonging to the Government and the Privately managed college.

VI) The fieldwork was started in October, 2000 and the collection of data from the colleges and the university was completed by February, 2001.

4. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY
Some of the main limitations in carrying out this study are as follows:

I) This study has been confined to one university (Panjab University) and its affiliated colleges in Chandigarh. Therefore, it may be necessary to test the validity of the present findings in respect of other universities and their affiliated colleges before we could generalise about the role analysis of teachers.

II) As stated earlier, there are 42 main departments in the university and 10 affiliated colleges in Chandigarh. However, since this study has been done by a lone student on this subject, only 10 departments in the university and two affiliated colleges were chosen due to shortage of time and resources. It is assumed that the data generated with respect to teachers and students will reflect the role-analysis of all the teachers in the university system.

III) The data were collected through a subjective reporting method. All the intrinsic limitations associated with this method will, therefore, be valid for this study as well (Selltiz, 1976 and Festinger, 1965)

IV) In the construction of the Family Social Status Index for teachers and students, the variables like education, occupation and income are taken into account. It is assumed that each one of these contributes equally towards
the socio-economic status, though this may not be true. However, it is
only an attempt to group the families into different socio-economic strata
having a bearing on certain views of teachers and students.

V) Again, in the preparation of the Academic Level Index of teachers and
the Participation Level Index of teachers in the university bodies and
association, it has also been assumed that various dimensions associated
with them contribute equally towards their categorization into high or low
levels. However, this may also not be true and it is only a methodological
exercise to classify them into high or low groups. These may have some
relevance to the role-analysis of teachers.

VI) The selection of two affiliated colleges and that of students in the
university and colleges has been done through purposive sampling method,
for the reasons already explained earlier.

5. CHAPTERWISE SCHEME

The present study has been organized into eight chapters. After the
presentation of introductory chapter, the second chapter focuses on the
demographic, socio-cultural and economic profile of respondents. The role
socialization and views of teachers towards the profession forms the
subject matter of the third chapter. Role perception and expectation of
teachers has been dealt at length in the fourth chapter while the role
performance of teachers has been discussed in the fifth chapter. The views
of teachers on crisis in higher education have been analysed in the sixth
chapter. In the seventh chapter, the outlook of the students towards higher
education, role of teachers and student-teacher relationship have been
examined. In the final chapter, the summary and the conclusion of the
study is presented.