

## “ISSUES IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIA”

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### **Abstract:**

'Service Quality' plays a pivotal role in the success of education system. It is essential for high standards of education and good image of an education institution. This study attempts to examine the factors in service quality dimensions (Tangibility, Responsiveness, Reliability, Assurance and Empathy) that contribute most to the issues in higher education. Further more, the paper also seeks to measure the level of student satisfaction. From 250 questionnaires distributed among the students in different higher education institutions, sample of 231 questionnaires were returned and used for further analysis. The data was analysed with the help of mean and standard deviation.

**Keywords: - Brain-drain, History of Brain Drain, student unrest**

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**Introduction:**

Higher education in India has expanded rapidly over the past two decades. This growth has been mainly driven by private sector initiatives. There are genuine concerns about many of them being substandard and exploitative. Due to the government's ambivalence on the role of private sector in higher education, the growth has been chaotic and unplanned. The regulatory system has failed to maintain standards or check exploitation. Instead, it resulted in erecting formidable entry barriers that have generated undesirable results. Voluntary accreditation seems to have no takers from amongst private providers and apparently serves little purpose for any of its stakeholders.

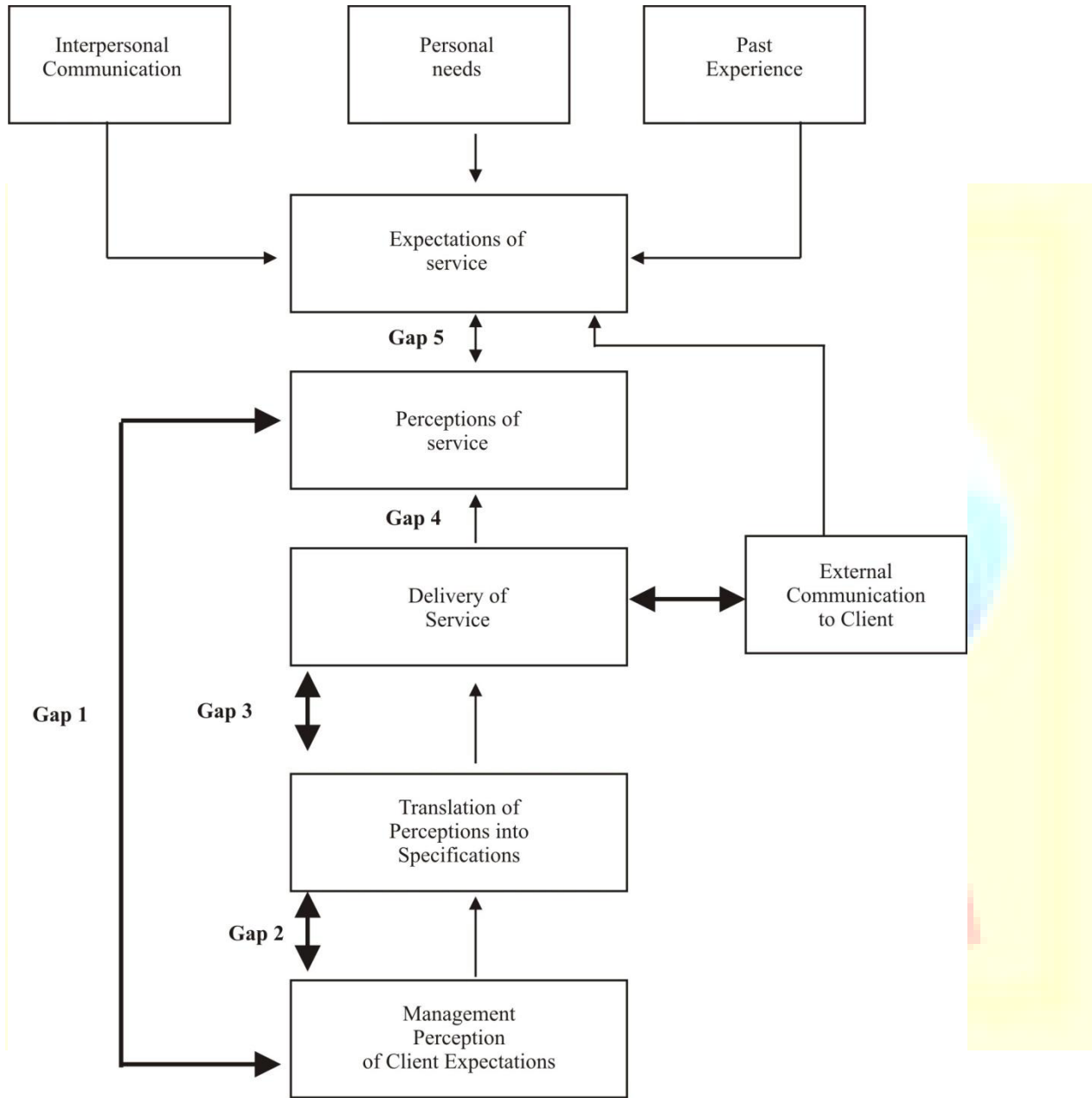
The higher education system in India grew rapidly after independence.[1] By 1980, there were 132 universities and 4738 colleges in the country enrolling around five per cent of the eligible age group in higher education. Today, while in terms of enrolment, India is the third largest higher education system in the world (after China and the USA) with 17973 institutions (348 universities and 17625 colleges) and is the largest higher education system in the world in terms of number of institutions.[2]

There are different types of universities and colleges in the higher education system in the country. They vary in terms of their academic, administrative and financial arrangements. Universities can either be established by an Act of Parliament or by the state legislatures. Those established by the Act of Parliament are the central universities and the ones set up by the state legislatures are state universities. Some higher education institutions are granted the 'deemed university' status by the central government through gazette notifications. A few institutions are established by the Parliament / state legislatures as institutions of national importance.

Universities, deemed universities and institutions of national importance are degree-granting institutions.

The expansion of higher education system in India has been chaotic and unplanned. The drive to make higher education socially inclusive has led to a sudden and dramatic increase in numbers of institutions without a proportionate increase in material and intellectual resources. As a result, academic standards have been jeopardised. There are many basic problems facing higher education in India today. These include inadequate infrastructure and facilities, large vacancies in faculty positions and poor faculty, outmoded teaching methods, declining research standards, unmotivated students, overcrowded classrooms and widespread geographic, income, gender, and ethnic imbalances. There is an inadequate and diminishing financial support for higher education from the government and from society. Many colleges established in rural areas are non-viable, are underenrolled and have extremely poor infrastructure and facilities with just a few teachers. Apart from these, the system of higher education has met several setbacks with regard to its regulatory framework, funding and finances and the much debated and controversial move of privatization of higher educational institutions. These underlying issues will be identified and addressed in the paper.

This model seeks to help the manager or administration to understand the sources of problems in quality and how they can improve them (COELHO, 2004).



.. **Figure 1: Quality in Services Model**

Source: Parasuraman, Zeithmal and Berry 2005

The five main dimensions are explained as follow:-

- (i) **Tangibility:-** Appearance of physical facilities, personnel and communication material.
- (ii) **Reliability:-** ability to perform the promised service accurately.
- (iii) **Responsiveness:-** willing to help customer and provide prompt service.
- (iv) **Assurance:-** Knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to convey trust and confidence.
- (v) **Empathy:-** Caring, Individualized attention that the firm provides to its customers.

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE:**

**Kotter and Clarke (1987)** define satisfaction as a state felt by a person who has experience performance or an outcome that fulfill his or her expectation. The expectation may go as before the students ever enter the higher education, suggest that it is important to the researcher to determine what student expect before entering university.

In the study by **Cuthbert (1996)** on the applicability of SERQUAL to education sector found that among dimension in service quality, the score for tangibility (3.34) is the highest followed by assurance (3.21), reliability (3.11), responsiveness (3.04) and empathy (2.58). However, he added that this does not represent tangibility as major contribution toward issues in higher education as he believes it is the service encounter which is the determinate factor.

**Lovelock (2001)** stressed that education service is classified as service with intangible actions, directed towards the minds of people, with continuous delivery, conducted through a partnership between service organisation and its client and although it provides high personal contact, there is low customization.

**Elliot and Shin (2002)** found that highly significant variable in the model that appeared to directly impact overall customer satisfaction with university performance knowledge advisor (0.0517,  $P < 0.0000$ ), knowledgeable faculty (.0406,  $P < .0094$ ), overall quality of instruction (0.0510,  $P < 0.0000$ ) safe and secure campus (0.0646,  $P < 0.0000$ ), fair and unbiased faculty ,(0.0443,  $P < 0.0000$ ) and adequate computer lab (0.0631,  $P < 0.0000$ ).

The study conducted by **Kin and Nair (2003)** also found that the quality work has directly linked with issues in higher education. The survey was conducted to measure the student's experience and opportunities for improvement. The study revealed quality assurance was normalised in the university experience and the students were conscious of the Quality and Continuous improvement in the staff.

**Jeevan Jyoti and Jyoti Sharma (2009)** The study revealed majority of students were satisfied with teaching quality and teacher's attitude toward the students, but were least satisfied with temperament of the teacher

### **STUDENT UNREST:**

Student unrest is a fact of life in today's world. It is easy but quite untrue to assume that it is all a product of Communist intrigue, or the work of leftist professors in schools or colleges, or simply a modern manifestation of the age old phenomenon of adolescence trying to find its identity and the limits of its strength. The evidence is that the student unrest of today is something much deeper, more profound, and with far greater implications for the good or ill of society. Today's student unrest has now crossed the threshold of our medical schools and it behooves us to understand it if we can. It is quite difficult for the generation which makes up what is called "the Establishment" to understand what it is like to have no memory of the Great Depression, World War II or even the war in Korea, and to have lived only

during a period of unbelievable technologic progress and ever increasing economic prosperity. Much of this generation of students has known only comfort and even affluence, or if not, the lack has been made specifically clear to them through television and other means of mass communication which incessantly give the hard sell to luxury items and luxurious living. The students of today who are of the "haves" are deeply sympathetic with the "have not's" whether these be students or not, and they seem to accept more literally than their elders the proposition enunciated in the Declaration of Independence for all to hear "that all Men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain Unalienable Rights, that among these rights are Life, Liberty and the Pursuit of Happiness." An equal opportunity to health is considered to be among these rights, but it goes much further than this. The "have not's" are determined to become "haves," and the student generation by and large believes that this is just and that fulfillment is not only possible but in their opinion long overdue. It is important to remember that they have repeatedly heard it said by the highest authorities in the land that this nation has the resources and the technologic capability to attain many of these humanitarian goals if it only chooses to do so. Perhaps for these reasons, perhaps for others, many in the student generation now appear convinced that the "Establishment," either through ineptness or intent, is in reality obstructing progress by giving only lip service to its ideals while in fact exercising oppression or repression of one kind or another to maintain the unsatisfactory status quo. The apparent disparity between what the "Establishments" seems to say and what it seems to do strikes many thinking students as little short of indefensible hypocrisy. The phenomenon of student unrest has persisted since the inauguration of in the early 1960s and has defied ideological boundaries and university site, such that each year resources are wasted due to recurrent cessation of, teaching and learning, winch sometimes results in the closure of universities. Yet not much him been done

to locate the phenomenon in its historical and social contexts with a view to evaluating its merits and demerits. And unfortunately, student unrest has been conceived and portrayed mostly as a negative and disruptive process. Little attention is given to its importance in the democratic transformation of the society and qualitative improvements in higher education.

### **What is the meaning of student unrest?**

The phrase student unrest usually refers to demonstrations, the occupation of campus buildings and even some minor riots by students in the period from about 1967 till the early 1970s. It affected most of Western Europe and the U.S. Nearly all the students involved were opposed to the role of the U.S. in the Vietnam War. Beyond that, student grievances tended to vary from country to country.

Student unrest was most prolonged and violent in West Germany. There the students were not only protesting against overcrowding in the universities but what they say as the failure of their parents to confront Nazism properly.

### **General Causes of Student Unrest:**

True to humanity, student unrest in Africa constitutes a complex phenomenon, affirming Aristotle's contention that, in consideration of mankind, one should realize that the parts are greater than the whole. It is easy to see the causes of student struggles as a manifestation of the destruction and decline of academic authority, the weakening of state power, and the politicization of intellectuals. It is easy to adduce psychological and sociological theories of alienation, rejection of parental authority, fear of adulthood, disenchantment with human societies; apprehensions about loss of comradeship, freedom, protection and identity at graduation, as causes of the unrest. It is easy to attribute the crises to immaturity of



university students, pubertal rites of passage, conflict of generations epitomized by an unconscious hatred and rejection of authority (the famous Freudian Oedipal complex), and the seemingly unpatriotic nature of communities. Yet all these are an oversimplification of a quite complex phenomenon which, at times, seems like an irresolvable paradox that teases and frustrates those who attempt to grasp its essence. To start with, there are the social contexts in which the crises manifest themselves. There is no doubt that the current period of African history is volatile, characterized by both a sense of hope and despair, a sense of change that will unravel new possibilities in terrace of life styles, morals, politics, and consciousness. And Yet there is a sense of crisis in the air and a real possibility Chat such military dictatorships as exist in Ethiopia, Sudan, Uganda, Nigeria, Liberia, and Ghana, to mention but a few, will spread and become endemic while current one party autocracies, oligarchies, and struggle for their survival. As hitherto marginalized groups such as students, workers, peasants, and the urban underclass struggle for democracy and more equitable distribution of resources, the elite in control will tend to be more defensive, protective of existing power and economic structures, and possibly more repressive. This will only exacerbate the crises. Academics and policy makers may fail to take a critical look at the structural, political, and policy distortions which contribute to this disquiet. Nesbit (1971), in a comprehensive review of the social, political, and psychological factors which surround protracted revolts in general and in universities in particular, delineates ten nurturing preconditions which seem to apply in varying degrees in India.

**These conditions included:**

1. Rapid social and economic changes that affect and redefine social roles and status in society.
2. A feeling (real or perceived) of a breakdown of the established authority patterns and hence the questioning of the legitimacy of new regimes and competition for power.
3. Perceptible social and intellectual developments among key groups sharing power, privilege, and access to key resources.
4. Liberalization of systems of communication and participation in the society.
5. Great politicization processes going on among groups.
6. Existence of power-sensitive, power-eager intellectual elites.
7. Occurrence of precipitating events, which may not be necessarily related but causing cracks.
8. Moral issues being articulated by large sections of the society regarding what should and ought to be, and what is right and wrong.
9. Existence of contrasting scenes of declared corruption, hypocrisy, and interference with human rights.
10. Presumed or real existence of a 'reservoir of guilt' on the part of those in power.

Given the volatility and nature of African regimes, almost all being either military dictatorships or one party autocracies, ranging from sort to hard authoritarianism as seen In Zambia and Zaire respectively, most of these conditions do obtain in varying degrees of intensity. The situation will, of necessity, entail a redefining of the social and political Roles of students and the university community in general. This state of crisis and tensions between the state and the universities may be a healthy one under the circumstances

prevailing in Africa, although it need not take the violent form it often does. One informed regular commentator on student activism around the world, P.G. Attach (1982) had this to say about student unrest in developing countries: Activism is even more unpredictable in the Third World and' at the same time more important. Intellectual communities in general and the Categories of Causes of Student Unrest In an attempt to map out the pattern of student unrest, each event over a period of about 25 years was examined and classified according to the primary motive.

**Related causes They converged on the following areas Of discontent:**

- Political processes and issues outside the purview and physical confines of the university. These included protests against imperialism, neocolonialism,
- Political murders, corruption, government inadequacies, interference in university affair, and prioritization of national issues and investment paths.
- Academic issues such as protests against difficult examinations, incompetence of lecturers, shortage of books, introduction of new courses, and favoritism in teaching and examinations.
- Welfare matters such as bad food, congested dormitories, shoddy catering services, freedom in residential halls, and access to recreational and guidance services.
- Management and allocate issues within the university, centered on administrative inadequacies, debates regarding the allocation of resources,
- Discipline matters on the campus, and disputes on management styles. By extension, this section will also deal with management of crises.

**The Political Processes and Issues:**

Evidence independently and overwhelmingly support the findings of Nesbit (1971), in India, that the majority of crises and revolts were not motivated primarily by academic concerns but rather political and welfare issues. It affirms Keller's (1989) position that new forms of contradictions and conflicts may not be primarily of a class nature, gravitating around material reproduction, but rather a matter of cultural and intellectual reproduction. Two political processes and struggles seem to surround the conflicts falling under this category. On the one hand, there seem to be struggles by the political elite to control, shape, and influence such processes as intellectual reproduction,

#### **Academic Issues as Causes of Student Unrest:**

The naive expectation must have been that most university revolts and problems would concern academic matters since universities are academic institutions. On the contrary, academic issues were very infrequent (Table 2). It is quite conceivable, however, that many academic issues that could have spilled over into a university-wide crisis were handled and either solved or censored at the faculty level. Indeed many incidents are not reported. For instance, in the University of Dar-as-Salaam, students have vigorously participated in the definition of what is legitimate knowledge and how it is communicated since the late 1960s because of ideological clashes between conservative and progressive (socialist) elements. When an American inspired syllabus for legal studies, with a variety of new topics including military law, was to be introduced in 1969, it was the students in that faculty who protested and finally had the syllabus abandoned in favor of a more traditional British inspired one (Mazrui, 1978; Peter and Mugnai, 1986). When one American Professor, Dr. Singelton, in a political science class, made derogative comments on the works of the revolutionary Afro-Arab writer, Frantz Fanon in 1970, it was the students who picketed his office and his contract got terminated.

#### **Welfare Matters and Student Unrest:**

The four universities, with a British heritage, were set up like traditional elite universities, basically residential, co-educational, undergraduate institutions. They were heavily influenced by the in loco parentis ideology which stemmed from a court ruling, long ago, to the effect that a university cannot impose sanctions upon students which a parent would not have otherwise. While this ruling was meant to be a restriction on the university with respect to enforcement of discipline, it inadvertently provided an opening for the university to assume the role of paternal guardian over the moral, intellectual, and social activities of students. This has resulted in students being treated as academic novices with the teachers and university administrators substituting for parental authority, imposing restrictions on the total student life, sometimes both in and outside the university.

The pressure to enforce this in loco parent's ideology is even greater in public universities where students do not have to pay tuition fees, and are given grants, allowances for meals, out-of-pocket money, lodging and travel expenses. The university administration and teachers become quite compulsive as they assume also the role of custodians of public funds which should be spent properly, and which should only be provided if students behave well. Figure 2 vividly typifies that attitude and orientation of the conservative bureaucrats and scholars alike, to which students retort, "my freedom of expression and conscience cannot be bought"

### **The Managerial and locative Issues as Causes of Student Crises:**

In practical terms, each student crisis, has a managerial aspect. As will be seen later, most revolts start with very mundane demands such as the provision of eggs for the breakfast, lack of stationery, introduction of an unpopular course, residential regulations, and demands for freedom to meet and discuss issues. Any mismanagement of the early stages of the crisis will create tensions which result in violence. In general terms, many university crises are often a result of a long period of negligence and indifference on the part of staff and administrators. The

renowned President of the University of California, Clark Kerr insists, that perceptive university administrators can see restlessness among students and staff that can easily constitute incipient revolts that will explode soon or later and that intelligent early moves can preempt most crises (Wallerstein and Star, 1971). This might be a generalization but is worth noting.

The few incidents associated with university based managerial decisions precipitating crisis included the 1971 crisis in Nairobi in which female students beat up their wardens for enforcing strict residential regulations. The university decided to rusticate them and the whole student body rose against that punishment, resulting in violent clashes and two days of class boycott. The same type of crisis occurred in Dar-es-Salaam in 1977 when the university decided to rusticate a female student who decided to share her bed with a boyfriend while she was sharing the room with a Korean girl (A. Kajiru and M.W.D Kengaki Affair), and when a male student decided to stay with his 'wife' in the same room he was sharing with another male student (P.O. Achianja and N. Koyi Affair), both reported in Kaduma (1977). While due process procedures were applied, it seems that the appeal tribunal was not credible in the eyes of students as it had no student representation and was tipped in favour of the university administration. In addition, there were no half measures such that students could be deprived of the privilege of staying on campus but continue with their studies, thus sustaining the independence of academic freedom from.

### **A Synthesis of the Causes of Student Unrest:**

It is now vividly documented that peoples' behaviors are very much conditioned and influenced by what they purport to know about their environment as they mutually and continuously influence each other in a dynamic fashion (Huttner, 1982). Any

analysis of student revolts in African universities has to take cognizance of this common but fundamental observation. At macro level, the political ideologies in most of these India countries lean heavily towards factionalism exhibiting carelessness about the truth and lasting values. Both legitimacy and legitimization processes are in question, given the one party autocracies and military dictatorships. The university seems to be the only lawful avenue for any popular dissent could have been raised by the other countervailing structures such as opposition parties, churches, trade unions, a free mass media, and employers' associations but these have, either been silenced by being incorporated into the ruling parties or completely muzzled by decrees and distortional tendencies of the ruling cliques. The anticorruption crusade of the University of Zimbabwe in 1988 and 1989 provides classical illustrations of the positive contributions of university students to social justice. When the mass media picked up the theme of anticorruption and revealed many cases of corruption, hypocrisy and partiality within government, public commissions confirmed them and ministers lost their jobs, one even committing suicide, but none was jailed. This shows how flawed the legislation mechanisms are. Likewise, in Tanzania the drive for efficiency, accountability, and eradication of corruption was popular and the polity had to drop several ministers and senior officials, but again no one was brought to book.

### **Brain-drain**

There is nothing new about brain drain, the main theme of this issue of Education Today. Indeed, the Renaissance might never have happened without the westward movement of Greek artists and intellectuals after the fall of Byzantium. Nor is the phenomenon limited to developing countries. Eastern Europe is currently

experiencing the emigration of its “best and brightest” towards the United Kingdom and Ireland, itself a country which suffered from acute brain drain until the mid-1990s.

International migration is a diverse phenomenon and its impact on source and destination countries have attracted the increased attention of policymakers, scientists and international agencies. The migration pressure has increased over the last years and is expected to intensify in the coming decades given the rising gap in wages and the diverging demographic futures in developed and developing countries. Understanding and measuring the consequences for migrants, host countries, residents and those left behind is a major and difficult task. In particular, the impact of the brain drain on sending countries results from a complex combination of direct and feedback effects which are extremely difficult to quantify. Due to the lack of harmonized data, the brain drain debate has, until recently,

remained essentially theoretical<sup>1</sup>. New data sets have been developed to assess the magnitude of the brain drain. In particular, Disquiet and Mahfouz (2006)<sup>2</sup> provided estimates of emigration stocks and rates by educational attainment for 195 source countries in 2000 and 174 countries in 1990. This data set gave rise to a couple of extensions as well as to a number of empirical studies on the determinants and consequences of the brain drain

### **Explanation of the term Brain Drain:**

‘Brain Drain’ is an expression that was popularized in the 1960s with the loss of skilled labour power from a number of poorer countries, including India, to richer countries (Pearce 1994 p. 43). Of particular interest are those emigrants with scarce professional skills, like doctors, engineers and especially information technology



specialists (ITS). Moreover, it has to be mentioned that the education of emigrating specialists had been carried out at extensive expense of their home country's government (www.queensu.ca). The loss of skilled experts is also a loss of a country's human capital, which is significant in bringing its own economy to prosperity

### **History of Brain Drain:**

After World War II, more precisely from the early 1960s onwards Indian specialists routinely left India for the economic opportunities and better living conditions to western civilized countries, in particular to the UK and the US (www.sims.berkeley.edu). During the 1970s and 1980s, entire graduating classes from elite Institutes of Technology emigrated to achieve professional and economic success in a foreign country. Today, the US economy is outsourcing parts of its high tech to India in order to reduce costs (New York Times 03.02.04). Later in this assignment, we will take a closer look at today's and future development of the brain drain

### **Brain Drain Reasons and Consequences:**

#### **Reasons for Brain Drain in India:**

In his book 'On Brain Drain, Brain Gain and Brain Exchange within Europe', the author Martin Wolburg provides some reasons for the existence of brain drain. First, we can mention incomplete information. Incomplete information means that people could not distinguish between two possibilities due to insufficient information about working and living conditions. Obviously, this does not play a

significant role as a result of the high differences India and e.g. the US have. As a second possible reason we can cite unemployment. Unemployment led individuals do not receive income from work and if a person does not have the possibility to work their human capital depreciates (Wolburg 2001 p. 38). Unemployment is more likely to be seen as a reason for India's brain drain. In literature, there is a distinction between the so-called push and pull factors. Push factors can be identified as political instability, unemployment and uncompetitive remuneration. Concerning India, we can mention that there is today more political stability but with increasing unemployment 8.8% compared to 7.3% in 1999-2000 ([www.in.rediff.com](http://www.in.rediff.com) and [www.theodora.com](http://www.theodora.com)). Besides those push factors pull factors also exist which lead individuals to move to a foreign country. Pull factors are identified as higher standards of living and working, family reunions and better prospects for children ([www.reservebank.gov](http://www.reservebank.gov)) consequently, these factors are the main reason for India's brain drain. Another factor that facilitates the Indians to go to the US is that most Indians are able to speak English ([www.sims.berkeley.edu](http://www.sims.berkeley.edu)).

### **The Importance of Skills and Education for Development and the Importance of the 'Brain Drain'**

The contemporary development context is dominated by strategies to reduce poverty in the least developed countries of the world. These strategies are framed by the overarching Multilateral Development Goals to eradicate poverty and hunger, achieve universal primary education, promote gender equality, reduce child poverty, improve maternal health, combat disease and promote environmental sustainability. It is now widely acknowledged that human, social and institutional capacity are central to successful development, with education being a key component in building this capacity. In this context, skilled labour is of crucial

importance for developing countries to overcome the social and institutional barriers to successful development. In addition to this, most contemporary economic theories of growth highlight the key importance of skills to economic performance and development potential. In this context, the loss of skilled labour is of vital importance for development and development potential. The loss of teachers undermines the ability of schools and education systems to function, the loss of nurses impairs efforts to deliver even basic healthcare and public health programmes and the loss of other skilled professionals acts as a barrier to institutional capacity building, the efficient utilization of external assistance and private sector growth. The 'Brain Drain', as the flow of skilled professionals out of developing countries has become known, thus marks a potentially serious barrier to economic growth, development and poverty reduction.

### **Factors Causing the Brain Drain:**

The 'Brain Drain' is a contentious subject and the very term has been challenged in recent years, with some preferring more politically neutral terms 'Brain Exchange' or 'Brain Circulation'. To understand the scale and impact of skilled labour migration from developing countries, it is necessary first to understand the factors driving it. These can be usefully categorized as 'push' and 'pull' factors. Pull factors are those factors that attract skilled labour from developing countries and relate in the main to conditions in countries that receive skilled migrants. These include:

- Higher wages.
- Job opportunities.
- Relatively good working conditions.
- Freedom from political instability or oppression.

- The use of selective immigration policies designed to attract high skilled workers, while

Deterring others seen as less economically beneficial to receiving countries. In the case of academics, these are augmented by access to research funding and facilities and the potential to collaborate with other researchers.

Push Factors include:

- A lack of life chances.
- Low living standards.
- Political and social instability or repression.
- A lack of opportunities to utilize skills.
- Natural disasters and environmental or ecological deterioration

### **Factors which might offset the Impact of the Brain Drain**

While the loss of skilled professionals, and academics in particular, may be an important barrier to development, there are a number of factors associated with migration generally, and in some cases with skilled migration specifically, which may offset any negative impacts. These include:

#### **Education inducement effects –**

the idea that the example of migrants and the higher pay or other benefits that might accrue to them (as well as potentially higher wages at home resulting from skill shortages) offer an incentive for others to undertake education. However, while this might be the case in some circumstances, for the most part there is no lack of demand for education in developing countries. Rather, what are important are institutional and social barriers to participation such as ill health, inability to release time or afford user fees (on the demand side) and problems with provision due to lack of resources or teachers, (on the supply side).

Higher education cannot be developed to the exclusion of other policy initiatives. The development of infrastructure, better governance, public health improvements, trade reform, and financial market development – these and others will be needed as well. The benefits of higher education require a long gestation period. There may be shortcuts to establishing educational infrastructure, but shaping people to understand and convey higher education values and best practice will take decades, as opposed to a few years. For this reason the Task Force urges policy-makers and donors – public and private, national and international – to waste no time. They must work with educational leaders and other key stakeholders to reposition higher education in developing countries. Only then will it produce larger and better trained pools of graduates and research of higher quality. The chance is simply too great to miss. As H.G. Wells said in *The Outline of History*, “Human history becomes more and more a race between education and catastrophe.”

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