

**Privatisation of Higher Education and its Impact on the
Scheduled Castes Students: A Study in Bengaluru District of
Karnataka- India.**

*A Thesis Submitted to the University of Hyderabad
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of*

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
CENTRE FOR THE STUDY OF SOCIAL EXCLUSION AND INCLUSIVE POLICY
(CSSEIP)

BY
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प्रतिष्ठित संस्थान
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2023



DECLARATION

I, Maruthi O, hereby declare that the work embodied in this thesis entitled "*Privatisation of Higher Education and its Impact on the Scheduled Castes Students: A Study in Bengaluru District of Karnataka- India.*" submitted by me under the supervision of **Dr. J. Rani Ratna Prabha**, is a bonafide research work for the award of **Doctor of Philosophy in Centre for the Study of Social Exclusion and Inclusive Policy (CSSEIP)** from the **University of Hyderabad**. I also declare that it has not been submitted for any other degree or diploma to this University or to any other University or institution. I hereby agree that my thesis can be deposited in Shodhganga/INFLIBNET.

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CERTIFICATE

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2. Published an article titled ***“Role of Higher Education in Transforming Indian Economy: A Critical Study on Goals of FICCI’s Vision 2030 for Higher Education in India”*** in the International Journal of Research Culture Society (IJRCS), Special Issue -10, March- 2018: ISSN: 2456-6683, pp 76-82.

3. Published a Book Chapter Entitled "*The Commercialisation of Higher Education: A Paradigm Shift from Educating all to the Facilitating Few*" in the Edited Book titled "*Quality and Research in Higher Education*" by Dr Gedam Kamalakar in the Kalpaz Publications, Delhi (Jan 2020) with ISBN 978-93-5324-230-5, pp 437-448.

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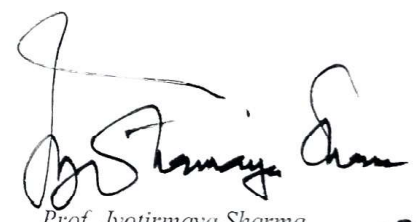
1. Presented a paper titled "*Role of Higher Education in Transforming Indian Economy: A Critical Study on Goals of FICCI's Vision 2030 for Higher Education in India*" in the Two-Day National Seminar on Transforming Indian Economy During 25 years of Economic Reforms, organised by the Department of Commerce and Business Management, University Arts and Science College, Kakatiya University, held during 6th and 7th March 2018.
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Sl. No.	Course Code	Course Title	Credits	Results
1	EI701	Processes of Exclusion and Social Groups	4	Pass
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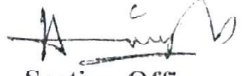
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&

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DECLARATION

CERTIFICATE

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List of Abbreviations

A.D.	Anno Domini
AICTE	All Indian Council for Technical Education
AISHE	All India Survey on Higher Education
APA	American Psychological Association
BOOT	Build Own Operate Transfer
CABE	Central Advisory Board of Education
CIHEC	The Council for Industry and Higher Education Collaboration
COVID	Corona Virus Disease
CSS	Centrally Sponsored Scheme
DEC	Distance Education Council of India
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FICCI	Federation of India Chambers of Commerce and Industry
FIR	First Information Report
GATT	The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GOI	Government of India
HE	Higher Education
HITs	Higher Educational Institutions
ICAR	Indian Council of Agricultural Research
IGNOU	Indira Gandhi National Open University
IIM	Indian Institute of Management
IISc	Indian Institute of Science
IIT	Indian Institute of Technology
IRAHE	Independent Regulatory Authority for Higher Education
ISRO	Indian Space Research Organisation
IT	Information Technology
JRF	Junior Research Fellowship
JSS	Jana Shikshana Samsthan
KLES	Karnataka Lingayat Educational Society
LPG	Liberation, Privatisation and Globalisation
MCI	Medical Council of India
MERUs	Multi-Disciplinary Educational Research Universities
MHRD	Ministry of Human Resource and Development
MOOCs	Massive Open Online Courses
NAAC	National Assessment and Accreditation Council
NBA	The National Board of Accreditation
NCERT	The National Council of Education Research and Training
NCPRC	The National Commission for Protection of Child Rights
NCSC	National Commission for Scheduled Castes
NEP	New Education Policy
NFSC	The National Fellowship for Scheduled Castes,

NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NIC	National Innovative Council
NIEPA	The National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration
NIT	National Institute of Technology
NITER	National Institute of Technical Education and Research
NITTTR	The National Institute of Technical Teachers' Training and Research
NKC	National Education Commission
NMC	Narayana Murthy Committee
NPST	National Professional Standard for Teachers
NSDA	The National Skill Development Agency
NSSO	The National Sample Survey Organisation
NTPC	National Thermal Power Corporation
ONGC	Oil and Natural Gas Corporation
PARAKH	Performance Assessment, Review, and Analysis of Knowledge for Holistic Development
PMCTI	Prime Ministers' Council on Trade and Industries
PPP	Public-Private Partnership
R&D	Research and Development
RUSA	Rashtriya Uchchatar Shiksha Abhyan
SC	Scheduled Castes
SCHE	State Council of Higher Education
SHEP	State Higher Education Plan
SSS	State Sponsored Scheme
ST	Scheduled Tribes
TTTIs	Technical Teachers' Training Institutes
UGC	University Grants Commission
UK	The United Kingdom
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
USA	United States of America
USSR	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
WTO	World Trade Organisation

Chapter -1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Promoting inclusive development and ensuring equal access to education and employment for all individuals is essential for the nation's genuine development. The exclusion of marginalised groups from equal access to higher education through privatisation obstructs a nation's true progress, which relies on inclusive development and equal opportunities. Education is considered a potent tool for transforming the world, as emphasised by Nelson Mandela. He believed, *'No country can really develop unless its citizens are educated'* ("Oprah Interviews Nelson Mandela," 2013). Education, particularly Higher Education (HE), assumes a critical role in developing countries' advancement, fostering development pathways like economic expansion, gender parity, the alleviation of poverty, and other aspects of national progress.

The Higher Education system has significantly developed in India after gaining independence. The country has witnessed substantial quantitative and qualitative advancements in higher education, with a strong focus on achieving greater social mobility. In the period before the 1980s, higher education expansion in India mostly limited itself to arts and humanities, commerce, and sciences. Both private and public funding facilitated the advancement of higher education, with private sector organisations playing a crucial role across different historical eras.

However, in the 1980s, the rise of middle- and higher-income groups capable of bearing higher tuition fees reduced government subsidies for tertiary education. Concurrently, education emphasising market- and industry-related topics is in greater demand (Agarwal, 2006). The 1990s witnessed a surge in demand for quality education from the middle class, and economic reforms paved the way for the growth of private education. Private unaided institutions sought autonomy from government regulations, and neo-liberal policies were adopted to address funding shortages, resulting in significant structural and operational changes within higher education. Over time, private entities have come to dominate the higher education landscape in India, accounting for more than 65 percent of total institutions and 70 percent of total student enrollment (FICCI, 2011). This shift towards privatisation has led to heightened barriers to enrollment and widened skill and employability gaps for socially and economically disadvantaged groups, particularly the Scheduled Castes (SC), who have historically faced exclusion and discrimination, including limited access to education.

While education remains crucial for India's development, historically marginalised groups, like the SCs, have encountered unequal access to higher education. Privatisation has worsened socio-educational inequalities by neglecting affirmative action or reservation policies intended to uplift disadvantaged sections of society.

With the rapid expansion of private institutions, concerns have arisen regarding access, equity, financing, management, quality, and accreditation within the higher education system. Parents now find it challenging to provide quality education to their children, while teachers from Scheduled Castes communities, many of whom are first-generation learners, grapple with adjusting to the evolving higher education landscape.

This study aims to investigate higher education policy-making, focusing on developments since the 1990s. It seeks to comprehend the structure and functioning of higher education in India and Karnataka and explore the viewpoints of students, parents, and teachers regarding the expansion of privatisation in higher education.

1.2 Purpose and Importance of Education

Education is a critical catalyst for human progress, fostering social and economic development by unlocking numerous doors of opportunity. Higher education is pivotal in transforming society into a knowledge-driven entity and contributes directly to sustainability. Generating innovative ideas and knowledge, enhancing individual and collective skills, and ultimately propelling the nation's sustainable growth are intricately linked.

In India, the English education system, introduced by European powers, mainly the British, during the early eighteenth century, has been embraced. Various administrative procedures witnessed the genesis and adaptability of modern English education. Even after gaining independence, the government followed the education system established during the colonial era for two decades. Over the past seven decades, education, including higher education, has attained significant milestones, leading to the establishment of an extensive higher education system.

However, despite these advancements, access to higher education remains an elusive dream for numerous marginalised communities, such as Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Women, Physically Challenged individuals, and several Religious Minorities. Scheduled Castes face the most challenging circumstances, having endured social and economic deprivation for centuries.

1.3 Education: Definition, Aim and Importance

Education is one of the significant necessities without which a person cannot live a respectful life. It has become the foundation for developing and empowering countries globally. Education, derived from the Latin word “*E-Ducere*”, meaning ‘To Lead Forth’, embodies a complex concept often characterised as a “persistent process of becoming”. Notably, influential Western philosophers such as Aristotle, Socrates, and Dewey have articulated their interpretations of education.

Aristotle states, “*Education is the process of training a person to fulfil their aims by exercising all their faculties to the fullest extent as a member of society*” (Kumar & Ahmad, 2008).

In the words of Socrates, education means “*Bringing out the ideas of universal validity that are latent in the mind of every individual*”.

John Dewey defines education as a “*Process of living through a continuous reconstruction of experiences.*”

Some Indian thinkers, such as Mahatma Gandhi, Dr. Radha Krishnan, Mahatma Jyothirao Phule, and Dr. B. R. Ambedkar, have also defined education in the following manner:

Mahatma Gandhi defines education as “*All-round development, drawing out the best in the child’s body, mind, and spirit.*”

Dr Radha Krishnan defines education as the “*Instrument for social, economic, and cultural change*” (Sharma & Srivastava, 2020).

Mahatma Jyothirao Phule defines education as essential to all other fundamental needs. Lack of education leads to poverty among farmers, women, Shudras, and Ati-Shudras”.

Dr. B. R. Ambedkar says, “*Education is the right weapon against social slavery, and it is education that will enlighten the downtrodden masses to gain social status, economic betterment, and political freedom*” (Kadlak, Salve, & Karwade, 2019). He also opines that education should reach every person in society without discrimination of caste, gender, or race.

All the definitions mentioned above share that knowledge-based education is the primary tool for fostering social change and community growth. The primary aim of education is socialisation and the transmission of knowledge and societal relations. While experiences may differ across various global geographical locations, in the Indian context, one section of society historically monopolised education, limiting the educational opportunities for many,

particularly the Dalits and Other Backward Castes (OBCs). As a result, access to education directly intertwines with the socio-economic development of these groups. The Kothari Commission (1964-65) asserted, “*The destiny of India is now being shaped within the walls of the classroom*”. The commission acknowledged that education is pivotal in shaping people’s prosperity, welfare, and security levels, particularly in a world increasingly dependent on technology and science.

Education is a purposeful activity with conscious effort. It should have a specific aim, and education without an aim is like a boat without a rudder. At every stage of development, human life maintains aims that directly connect to education. These aims are subject to change based on individual needs and are neither fixed, eternal, nor universal. However, one can broadly categorise the primary aims of education into two categories: ideal aims, primarily spiritual and predetermined, and pragmatic aims, which address life in its actual state rather than an idealised one. Generally, education strives to assist individuals in gaining essential knowledge, achieving success in their professions, and preparing for future trades or careers. Moreover, education should expand one’s perspective on knowledge, cultivating cultured individuals. If the state ensures the fulfilment of the above-stated aims in its formation and implementation of education policies, it will lead to an egalitarian and democratic society in the true sense.

1.4 Higher Education: Size, Structure, and Growth

In the 1998 World Conference on Higher Education: Vision and Action held in Paris, UNESCO defined higher education as “*All studies, training or training for research at the post-secondary level, provided by the universities or other educational establishments approved as institutions of higher education by the competent state authorities*” (The Independent, 2015). Education beyond high school, which includes colleges, graduate schools, and professional schools, is commonly referred to as higher education or tertiary education. Today, higher education has evolved into a crucial tool for survival. The World Bank and UNESCO Report (2000) emphasised that “*Higher education is no longer a luxury and is essential for survival. So, we are interested in higher education because we are interested in our survival*” (Rawat & Dabas, 2019).

Following China and the United States of America (USA), India possesses the world’s third-largest higher education system based on student enrollment (Rahman, Begum, & Yasmin, 2014). The country has emerged as a prominent centre for higher education, witnessing substantial progress in the number and size of higher educational institutions in recent years. Over the past 25 years, India has experienced a rapid rise in the number of higher education

institutions and their offerings. The number of institutions granting degrees rose from 103 to 692 between 1970 and 2014 (MHRD, GoI). Only 20 universities and 500 colleges, with 2.1 Lakh students enrolled in the higher education system, existed in India during its independence era. Nevertheless, there has been a striking increase in these numbers since then.

Presently, there is a recorded 29-fold increase in the number of universities, a 71-fold increase in the number of colleges, and a staggering 97-fold increase in student enrollment in the formal higher education system compared to the figures during India's Independence Year (Chatterjee & Noble, 2016). This significant enrollment growth would not have been possible without establishing more institutions, especially universities and colleges, and expanding course intake capacity. The increase in the number of institutions and enrollments indicates that the target of achieving a 15 percent Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) by 2012, set for the XI Plan, has almost been accomplished (UGC annual report, 2012).

The current institutional structure of India includes central universities established through Parliamentary Acts, state universities established by state legislatures, and deemed universities authorised to award degrees through announcements by the central government. Additionally, there are institutions of national importance designated by the parliament, organisations created through state legislature acts and aided and unaided colleges affiliated with universities. India treats technical higher education as a separate sector, with 65 institutes receiving government funding, including the IITs, NITs, IISc, and others. Technical institutions in disciplines including engineering, technology, pharmacy, architecture, hotel management, catering technology, management studies, computer applications, and applied arts and technologies are approved and regulated by organisations like AICTE and the Medical Council of India. (*ALL INDIA COUNCIL FOR TECHNICAL EDUCATION, 2008-2009*).

The country has also established an open university system to foster distance learning, with Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) pioneering the effort and fourteen other open universities nationwide (Dutt et al., 2015). Accreditation plays a vital role in ensuring the quality of higher education institutions. The National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) accredits general education programs at universities and colleges. The National Board of Accreditation (NBA), an autonomous body established by the All-India Council for Technical Education (AICTE), accredits technical education. The Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR) oversees the accreditation of agricultural education and operates as the highest governing body, coordinating and supervising agricultural education and research activities nationwide (Stella & Gnanam, 2005).

1.5 Operationalisation of Concepts in the Study

The term “privatisation” was introduced as a socio-economic process by Peter F. Drucker in 1969. Subsequently, other social scientists like Spann, Rutherford, and Fisk emphasised its significance in fostering economic growth and development. Technically, privatisation is concerned with the economy and industry, prioritising the industry’s interests over individual interests and seeking to maximise profits for a group. According to R.W. Bailey (1987), privatisation is a broad endeavour to increase the efficiency of public enterprises by exposing them to the incentives of the private market. There are various concepts and interpretations of privatisation. J.A. Kay and D. J. Thompson define privatisation as a term encompassing several means of altering the government and private sector relationship.

1.5.1 Meaning of Privatisation

Privatisation refers to the transmission of ownership or control of assets or shares of publicly owned enterprises from the state to the private sector. It can also be termed “De-nationalisation” in a narrower sense when explicitly relating to selling these assets or shares. However, in a broader context, privatisation is an all-encompassing term that includes various methods and policies to augment the role of market forces in the national economy.

1.5.2 Privatisation of a Global Scenario

Privatisation, as a significant economic phenomenon, emerged gradually across the world. It was initially witnessed in developed nations such as the UK, USA, Germany, and others and extended to developing and underdeveloped countries. The privatisation trend gained momentum in England during the late 20th century, mainly after Margaret Thatcher assumed power in 1979. Her government embarked on privatisation, involving the sale of state-owned enterprises to the private sector. From 1979 to 1998, the government divested several large public enterprises. Initially, the revenue generated from privatisation was relatively modest, with annual amounts being less than 500 million pounds. However, the pace of privatisation significantly accelerated during her second term of office in 1983, reaching a substantial 5 billion pounds annually.

Despite making these efforts, the government encountered challenges in aligning its goals of improving the operations of privatised businesses and decreasing the state’s economic involvement with the necessity of reducing public spending. As a result, the government retained ownership of unprofitable or incompatible businesses while transferring profitable enterprises to the private sector.

Similar trends were observed in other countries as well. In France, during the early 1980s, President François Mitterrand's government initiated the nationalisation of major private enterprises and designed a five-year plan to privatise state-owned and national enterprises. This model of privatisation also influenced countries like Germany and Italy.

In the USA, the Grace Commission recommended the adoption of privatisation. Likewise, Canada and Japan's federal governments implemented significant regulatory measures to introduce privatisation in their respective countries during the same period. Russia also embarked on privatisation in 1991, issuing more than 150 million privatisation vouchers by the end of 1992. This process was instrumental in transforming the economic landscape of the country.

In the developed countries of Europe and the USA, people historically regarded education, especially at the higher level, as a philanthropic pursuit until the 20th century. Non-profit entities like churches and social organisations were instrumental in providing private higher education. However, as time progressed, these nations also witnessed the emergence of profit-driven education institutions in the 21st century, and they transformed higher education into a commercial enterprise.

1.5.3 Privatisation in India

In India, the process of privatisation began in the early 1990s. Initially, policy documents refrained from explicitly using privatisation, favouring the more common term "Disinvestment." However, explicit acknowledgement of the concept did not occur until the fiscal year 2000-2001, nearly a decade after it was first mentioned in the parliament during a budget debate. As a result, India has witnessed a significant increase in privatisation efforts since the 1990s, marked by a growing emphasis on private sector involvement and ownership across various sectors in line with economic reforms.

Throughout its ancient history, education in India adhered to providing education free of cost. This foundational belief endured even during the colonial period. However, the introduction of Liberalisation, Privatisation, and Globalisation (LPG) policies in Indian society during the 1990s has brought about a significant transformation in the privatisation of education, particularly in higher education.

1.5.4 Privatisation of Higher Education

According to Chandrashekar R. N. and Vishwanatha (2018), privatisation and globalisation have contributed to higher education standards, but at a higher cost, particularly in higher education, where it plays a crucial role in shaping qualified and skilled human capital without much negotiation. Consequently, the significant expenses associated with post-secondary education create barriers for academically successful students from diverse socio-economic backgrounds.

Over the past 25 years, India has undergone substantial structural changes in its higher education landscape. There has been a decline in public funding for education, accompanied by a significant increase in private investment in the higher education sector. As a result, private ownership now dominates the Indian higher education landscape, with private institutions accounting for over 65 percent of all institutions and 70 percent of total student enrollment. The number of private universities at the state level has increased fifteen-fold, from 6 to 94. Moreover, over one-third of the 130 recognised universities are privately owned (FICCI 2011).

This privatisation of higher education in India has resulted in a predominantly profit-driven system, escalating costs that hinder access for economically disadvantaged students, depriving them of the advantages of quality higher education.

In India, private players have three avenues to establish their institutions, considering the relative novelty of private higher education. Firstly, they can establish private universities through state legislatures, each state enacting laws for this purpose. States like Haryana provide an umbrella Act for all universities, while others like Uttar Pradesh (UP) have separate Acts or legislation for individual universities. Rajasthan, for instance, has an Umbrella Act and a separate Act for university establishment.

Secondly, the Central Government can grant private institutions the status of “Deemed-to-be University” upon the recommendation of the University Grants Commission (Varghese & Malik, 2015). This status can apply to public and de-novo category institutions following specific criteria. General category institutions should possess a 15-year track record and display outstanding academic and research performance. Likewise, institutions that meet the UGC’s academic and infrastructure excellence standards qualify for the designation of “Deemed-to-be-University”.

Thirdly, private players or trusts registered with the Indian government can establish private colleges affiliated with public universities. Initially, these colleges affiliate with government universities; however, they operate with restricted administrative, academic, and curriculum independence as they adhere to the affiliation rules established by the respective government universities. Private institutions cannot commence admission procedures until they secure affiliation from the designated government university.

Indian private universities primarily focus on imparting professional courses, such as engineering, pharmacy, MCA, MBBS, architecture, and other courses, rather than general social sciences, languages, and humanities courses. Graduation-level colleges tend to prioritise science and commerce streams over humanities. The demand for private education is steadily increasing while public institutions grapple with infrastructural deficits, making it challenging to meet the growing demand for higher education.

1.5.5 Scheduled Castes in India

The term “Scheduled Castes” was first defined in the Government of India Act of 1935, and this definition was maintained in subsequent documents after India gained independence. According to the Act, Scheduled Castes are castes, races, tribes, or groups within them that correspond to the classes of people formerly known as “The depressed classes,” as specified by His Majesty in Council (Velusamy, 2010). These groups occupy the lower rung of the hierarchical Varna system and are considered sub-communities within the Hindu faith. Historically, they were treated as untouchables or outcasts in India and subjected to various social sanctions, leading to their deprivation of social, political, and economic opportunities by the upper-caste varna system (Savarnas). Over time, they have been referred to by various names, such as Dalits, depressed classes, Lingader (Designated in 1950), Dasas, and Harijan (Children of God), the term M.K. Gandhi referred to this subaltern society.

The percentage population of Scheduled Castes has steadily increased since the 1941 census, rising from around 48 million to 1,028,610,318, constituting approximately 16.6 percent of India’s total population according to the 2011 census. Despite their significant population share, Scheduled Castes’ socio-economic and political representation remains lower and unequal due to traditional social sanctions. These communities often possess fewer assets and face historical deprivation of developmental opportunities. Historically, Scheduled Castes were bonded labourers in upper-caste households, and even today, a majority of them work as landless agricultural labourers (71 percent) and in menial occupations like scavenging and

leatherwork, resulting in lower incomes. Illiteracy rates are high, with over 40 percent of the population still being illiterate, and the female literacy rate lags behind the national average.

Regarding higher education, accessibility has improved from 21.5 percent in 2012-13 to 27.1 percent in 2019-20, according to the AISHE report 2020. The Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) for the male and female populations has also increased during this period. However, the GER for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is approximately 23.4 percent and 18 percent, respectively, lower than the national GER of 27.1 percent. Sikkim has the highest GER at 75.8 percent, followed by Chandigarh, Tamil Nadu, and Delhi. Some states and Union Territories report lower GERs, such as Daman and Diu, Lakshadweep, Ladakh, Bihar, and Assam. States like Karnataka, Jammu & Kashmir, Haryana, Arunachal Pradesh, and Andhra Pradesh have GERs higher than the national average. Maharashtra and Punjab also recorded GERs higher than the national average of 27.1 percent.

1.5.6 Scheduled Castes and Higher Education in Karnataka

The decadal censuses of 1951, 1961, and 1971 did not separately compile data on the literacy rate of scheduled castes. However, studies since 1981 consistently show that the literacy rates of scheduled castes have persistently lagged behind those of the general population in recent censuses. In 1981, the literacy rate for scheduled castes stood at 27.62 percent, increasing to 38.10 percent in 1991 and 52.87 percent in 2001. According to the 2011 census, Karnataka recorded an overall literacy rate of 75.60 percent, 82.85 percent for males and 68.12 percent for females. Nevertheless, the literacy rate for Scheduled Castes in the state continued to trail, continuing the trends observed in prior censuses. In 2011, the Scheduled Castes in Karnataka reported a literacy rate of 65.33 percent, with 74.04 percent for males and 56.58 percent for females, resulting in a 21.06 percent gap compared to the general population.

Bengaluru urban district in Karnataka recorded the highest literacy rate among all districts in the state, with 87.67 percent of its entire population being literate. This district's literacy rate for scheduled castes was around 78.56 percent. Although the data suggests a positive growth in Karnataka's scheduled castes' population, it is still not comparable to the overall population's literacy rate. Recognising that literacy and educational advancement are not necessarily equivalent for scheduled castes is essential. According to the government's definition, literacy refers to individuals who are proficient in reading and writing, including those who can write their names. However, regarding attaining higher education, scheduled castes continue to lag behind the general population in Karnataka.

The dropout ratio is another significant concern among the scheduled castes population. Ahmad and Honakeri P. M. (2014) reported that the passing percentage of scheduled castes students in the 10th and 12th grades was considerably low, which poses a significant obstacle to further enrolment in tertiary education. The enrolment rate of scheduled castes has increased with a growth rate of 15.01 percent in 2011 compared to 2001. Despite this increase, the planning commission's proposed target for the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) remains unmet and falls below the specified goal.

1.6 Statement of the Problem

Caste-based disparities pose significant impediments to the development of human knowledge, particularly for individuals belonging to marginalised classes in India. Historical policy development until the 1990s emphasised education as a public good; however, scheduled castes and other marginalised groups faced barriers to equity in higher education. Implementing neo-liberal policies further exacerbated the gap in access and participation chances for scheduled castes.

The landscape of higher education has undergone remarkable changes since the 1990s, witnessing a shift in curriculum and pedagogy from arts, commerce, and sciences towards skill-based subjects catering to industry demands. This shift resulted in an increased demand for skilled human capital, which the government struggled to meet, leading to the entry of private players into the higher education sector. Profit-driven private institutions, unfortunately, showed little regard for the inclusion of marginalised classes, aggravating the challenges faced by scheduled castes students, parents, and teachers.

Bengaluru, India's third most populous city, has become a hub for various developmental activities, including higher education. Notably, private players dominate the higher education landscape in the Bengaluru urban district, as indicated by the AISHE report 2019-20, highlighting the city's leading number of colleges in the country.

Scheduled Castes remain the most vulnerable group in accessing higher education, especially in the post-privatisation era. Various issues, such as accessibility, affordability, attainment, exclusion, sociopsychological factors, and the prevalence of privatisation, hinder scheduled castes' pursuit of higher education, as revealed by Prabhakar J. C.'s study (2021). Moreover, despite 69 years of independence, Scheduled Castes have not consistently enjoyed equality with other groups. The study also identifies the reversal of affirmative actions in private institutions as a significant factor restricting the access and participation of scheduled castes in

higher education. Consequently, this research aims to understand students' challenges in accessing higher education in the Bengaluru urban district, Karnataka.

In addition to students, parents and teachers from Scheduled Castes face vulnerability due to historical and economic deprivation. Parents often engage in lower occupational structures, and any economic reforms in the higher education system directly impact their livelihood standards. The study seeks to investigate parents' perceptions regarding the economic burdens arising from the privatisation of higher education.

Furthermore, the research delves into the challenges Scheduled Caste teachers face in the growing privatisation of higher education. Many of these teachers are first-generation employees, and the current private higher education system expects quality work with comparatively lower compensation. These teachers often experience discrimination and a lack of facilities and benefits. The study aims to comprehend the issues and prospects of higher education privatisation in selected institutions within the Bengaluru urban district.

1.7 Research Questions

1. How has the structure and function of higher education in Karnataka evolved with the different phases of India's higher education policy?
2. Given the deprived socio-economic position, how do Scheduled caste families navigate increasingly privatised higher education?

1.8 Objectives of the Study

1. To review the historical development of policies within the Indian higher education system.
2. To understand the structure and functioning of Indian and Karnataka's higher education system.
3. To study the profile of privatisation of higher education in Bengaluru urban district of Karnataka.
4. To explore the perceptions of Scheduled Castes' students, their parents and teachers on the challenges and opportunities with the contemporary privatisation of higher education in the Bengaluru urban district.

1.9 Methodology of the Study

The principal objective of the following part is to meticulously present the study methodology, including details on the tools utilised for data collecting, sample procedures, and other relevant components. The researcher carried out the study in the Bengaluru urban area of Karnataka,

with a clear focus on facilities for higher learning. Data gathering is crucial for assessing the validity and significance of the study. Researchers carefully constructed their approach to achieve the study's objectives and acknowledge the structure and growth of higher education privatisation and its impact on scheduled castes in Karnataka.

This study uses theoretical and empirical research to analyse the socio-economic backgrounds of Student respondents, parents, and teachers. It also highlights how they view higher education privatisation and its commercialisation. Secondly, how it impacts learning and teaching also emphasises how they view higher education's commercialisation and how it affects teaching and learning. The study performs quantitative and qualitative analyses using techniques and primary and secondary sources. Personal interviews, structured and open-ended questionnaires, observations, and case studies are all used in the study to collect primary data. These techniques combine open-ended and closed-ended inquiries. Furthermore, the study draws upon secondary data from publications such as books, journals, newspaper articles, websites, reports from various NGOs, and data from the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD) or the Ministry of Education (MoE).

The research design adopted the cross-sectional method and it is descriptive. Descriptive research extends beyond mere data collection and tabulation. It involves data analysis, comparison, contrast, interpretation, and evaluation to draw meaningful conclusions and appropriate inferences. As such, this descriptive nature of the study allows for the meaningful depiction of information obtained through field research. Hence, the method employed can be considered a "Descriptive Survey" due to its suitability for straightforward comparisons.

The study seeks to investigate causal relationships among various samples by examining critical variables, such as the type of higher education institution (private and public) and parents' economic status, which the study treats as independent variables. Conversely, the study considers students' perceptions and satisfaction levels and their decisions regarding their children's schooling as the dependent variables.

The present study takes a descriptive approach, depicting the chosen respondents' attitudes, perceptions, understanding, and experiences regarding higher education privatisation and how it influences their lives.

1.9.1 Sampling Method

This study targets explicitly socially marginalised groups, particularly scheduled castes, including males and females pursuing higher education in Bengaluru. The respondents

comprise students, parents, and teachers. The choice of Bengaluru Urban district as the study's location resulted from its distinction in the AISHE report 2018-2019, boasting the highest count of private higher educational institutions, totalling 880 colleges. Therefore, this city emerged as a suitable setting for conducting the research.

The study adopted the purposive sampling method due to the absence of individualised data on student enrollments categorised by caste, medium, and other dimensions in the existing state and district reports on higher educational enrollments. Forty-two (42) educational institutions were carefully chosen, with particular attention paid to public and private educational establishments. Furthermore, the sampling process encompassed aided and non-aided colleges and Deemed-to-be-universities among the private higher educational institutions, ensuring a comprehensive exploration of the subject matter.

1.9.2 Tools of the Data Collection

The study involved participants with various educational qualifications, from illiterate parents to highly educated teachers. To gather primary data from these individuals, the researcher combined interview schedules for students and parents and questionnaires for teachers from selected colleges and universities in the Bengaluru District. The study chose structured interview schedules as a methodical tool to achieve specific research objectives. Furthermore, observation and face-to-face interviews were employed to gain insights into perceptions regarding privatisation in higher education within the Bengaluru district.

Among the teacher respondents, two distinct experiences emerged, both of which were considered vital case studies for this research. Because of the severity of the COVID-19 situation and the associated restrictions, we conducted telephonic interviews for these specific interviews.

1.9.3 Universe of the Study

The current study's target population comprises students, parents, and teachers from the SC community. It included a comprehensive sample of 150 students, 75 parents, and 50 teachers, resulting in a total sample size of 275 participants.

Table No. 1.1: Total Number of Sampling for the Current Study

Sl. No.	Designation	Frequency
1	Student/ Scholars	150
2	Parents of the Students	75
3	Lecturer or Assistant Professor	50
Grand Total		275

Source: The fieldwork survey, 2019-20.

The study titled “Privatisation of Higher Education and Its Impact on Scheduled Castes Students: A Study in Bengaluru District of Karnataka, India” sought to acquire a nuanced understanding of the perceptions and challenges faced by Scheduled Caste (SC) students in response to the swift expansion of privatisation in the higher education sector. This study, specifically focusing on Karnataka, examined SC students from the same community pursuing higher education across public and private institutions within the Bengaluru district.

The researcher chose to employ a purposive sampling technique to select 150 students. The researcher deemed it more suitable for ensuring accurate representation and voluntary participation among the student respondents. The students contributed valuable data concerning the challenges and opportunities associated with privatising higher education, especially in the Bengaluru urban area.

The study also recognised the need for an in-depth understanding of the process and progression of privatisation and its impact on the teaching sector. As a result, the study interviewed 50 teachers, including lecturers, assistant professors, and professors. The active participation of these teachers enhanced the research’s quality by allowing the researcher to comprehend their critical observations regarding the evolving landscape of higher education in India due to privatisation. Additionally, these respondents contributed to the study by proposing potential approaches for the qualitative enhancement of higher education, which could potentially inform policy development.

The researcher believed that documenting parents’ perceptions, experiences, and challenges in providing quality higher education to their children was essential for a comprehensive study. Consequently, the study interviewed 75 respondents, with the significant criterion for selecting parent respondents being residents in the Bengaluru urban area. This group constituted approximately half of the total number of student respondents chosen for the study and these

respondents provided valuable insights into the practical experiences of parents in supporting their children's pursuit of higher education.

1.9.4 Data Analysis Technique

The study methodically presented the collected raw primary data and subjected it to inclusive analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and MS Excel. The researcher used frequency tables, cross-tabulations, and other relevant statistical methods to extract valuable insights. Throughout the analytical process, they prioritised aligning the research objectives and questions with the data analysis and interpretation.

The researcher independently examined qualitative and quantitative data to ensure a robust analysis. This approach facilitated thoroughly exploring the research questions and comprehensively understanding the study's findings. By analysing qualitative and quantitative data separately, the study aimed to present a holistic view of the research topic and enable a well-rounded discussion of the results.

1.9.5 Fieldwork Experiences

The researcher conducted the fieldwork for this study in two distinct phases: pre-COVID and post-COVID. The initial phase began on 4th August 2019 and was extended until 3rd February 2020. Student data collection occurred in three intervals that closely aligned with the academic schedule: 4th August 2019 to 10th September 2019, 21st October 2019 to 5th November 2019, and 17th January 2020 to 13th February 2020.

However, the fieldwork was abruptly interrupted due to the unexpected lockdown imposed in March 2020 as the COVID-19 pandemic rapidly spread. This pandemic presented significant challenges to the security and health protection of the student community and the entire population. The lockdown measures persisted for approximately a year, and only in January 2021 did the government of India decide to reopen educational institutions. Nevertheless, most institutions adhered to social distancing regulations and adopted online modes of operation.

Unfortunately, during this period, the researcher contracted COVID-19 and required hospitalisation, causing a temporary slowdown in the fieldwork. Subsequently, the second phase of the fieldwork began on 3rd April 2021 and continued until 18th September 2021. This phase comprised data collection in four intervals: 3rd April 2021 to 7th May 2021, 20th May 2021 to 25th June 2021, 10th July 2021 to August 2021, and finally, from 3rd August 2021 to September 2021. During this phase, the researcher interviewed the parents of student respondents included in the study. Furthermore, the researcher administered questionnaires to teachers, including Lecturers, Assistant Professors, Associate Professors, and Professors.

During the fieldwork, the researcher encountered several challenges. Institutions were reluctant to share data about Scheduled Caste students and imposed restrictions on communication with their student body. Additionally, the post-COVID-19 environment posed difficulties in obtaining contact information for parents and teachers due to concerns related to infection transmission and adherence to social distancing guidelines. We diligently addressed these challenges to uphold the integrity and reliability of the research process.

1.10 Significance of the Study

This study dedicates itself to comprehensively exploring diverse dimensions of higher education privatisation in India, focusing on the state of Karnataka. It is rooted in empirical research, relies on extensive fieldwork, and is subjected to rigorous analysis guided by established theoretical frameworks. Due to its interdisciplinary nature, this research has significant potential to offer valuable insights into the existing socio-economic conditions and political dynamics within the higher education system. Moreover, the study emphasises sociological and social anthropological perspectives by investigating socio-economic determinants, power dynamics between state and private institutions, and issues of social exclusion.

A noteworthy feature of this research is its strong alignment with current policy frameworks and contemporary events. The study meticulously reviewed the evolution of policy developments in higher education, tracing its trajectory up to the implementation of the new education policy. This illumination sheds light on the evolving role of private entities in the higher education landscape. Additionally, the study provides a clear explanation of the changing structure and functions of the higher education system in India and Karnataka, enabling readers to comprehend significant structural advancements within this domain. The present study assumes significance, given that it is one of the early empirical studies after implementing the New Educational Policy-2020 (NEP 2020).

While earlier studies have explored higher education privatisation and its effects on the existing social structure, only a limited number have specifically examined its impacts on participants from SCs, including students, parents, and teachers. This research seeks to bridge this gap by offering vital insights into the experiences and challenges encountered by individuals from scheduled castes in the context of higher education privatisation. Beyond informing policymakers and administrators in the higher education sector, this study holds potential value for civil society organisations devoted to addressing privatisation concerns in Indian higher

education. Furthermore, it remains pertinent for researchers and scholars interested in delving into various facets of the education sector.

1.11 Scheme of Characterisation

The present study is organised into seven distinct chapters as follows:

Chapter-1: Introduction

The Introduction chapter provides a comprehensive overview to the reader of the entire research work, including the background of the study, the purpose and importance of education, the definition, aim, and importance of education, the size, structure, and growth of higher education, the operationalization of concepts in the study, the meaning of privatization, privatization of a global scenario, privatization in India, privatization of higher education, Scheduled Castes in India, Scheduled Castes and higher education in Karnataka, inequality in higher education, research questions, objectives of the study, methodology of the study, fieldwork experiences, significance of the study, limitations of the study, and scheme of characterization. The chapter provides a concise overview of the education system in general and specifically in higher education. It explores the interconnection between education and the caste system in India, focusing on the implications of privatisation on the education of Scheduled Castes.

Chapter-2: Theoretical Understanding and Literature Review

The second chapter of the research provides a critical review of relevant academic literature to establish the study's theoretical concepts and conceptual framework. The chapter covers various topics, including theories related to the principal aims of the thesis. The chapter also presents the various arguments related to social exclusion and higher education, the historical development of higher education, policy reforms, structural development of higher education in India and Karnataka, and privatisation's impact on the marginalised classes, particularly the Scheduled Castes. By pointing out the research gap, the current chapter aims to provide the necessary context for understanding the complex relationship between higher education, the caste system, privatisation and the challenges SCs face in accessing and participating in higher education.

Chapter-3: Evolution of Higher Education Policy-Making In India

Chapter three comprehensively analyses the Indian higher education system, concentrating on the policies and practices affecting marginalised groups during various periods. The researcher emphasises examining the changes in higher education both during and after the era of globalisation by covering the trends in higher education, such as the origin and development of higher education in India during the ancient, medieval, modern and globalised era. The chapter aims to provide a deeper understanding of the changes in higher education, focusing on the impact of privatisation of higher education on Scheduled Castes in India and Karnataka.

Chapter-4: Structure and Development of Higher Education In India And Karnataka

Chapter Four comprehensively analyses the history of higher education in India and Karnataka. The chapter covers the structure and development of the education system during the famous dynasties who ruled the Karnataka region and the development of higher education before and after independence in the Karnataka region. The study also addressed the educational changes during the period of reorganisation of the state and post-globalised era. This chapter aims to provide a deeper understanding of the growth and development of higher education in India and Karnataka and address the access and participation of SCs in the higher education system at the national and state levels. Additionally, it examines administrative reforms in education and higher education, shedding light on privatisation and its influence on the region.

Chapter-5: Profile of The Study Area

Chapter five of the current research presents a concise profile of the study area, the Bengaluru Urban district in Karnataka, India. Chapter tried to shed light on the profile of the study area, including its historical background, significance, demography, administrative divisions, literacy rate and other relevant information. It also dealt with the statistics of Scheduled Castes (SC) and their educational profile in the district and it provides a deeper understanding of the study area, which can be mirrored by the challenges and prospects experienced by the SCs in this region.

Chapter-6: Higher Education and Privatisation: Challenges and Perspectives of Scheduled Castes Students, Parents, and Teachers

Chapter six is a crucial segment of this research study. It explores the perspectives of four categories of respondents from the SC community, including students, parents, teachers and

the female respondents in four sections. The chapter mainly focused on how the growing rate of privatisation of higher education in India impacts the lives of Scheduled Castes respondents through analysing their socio-economic status, educational background and other details. The chapter quantified the opinions and perspectives of SC students, parents, teachers and female respondents and represented them in tables, graphical representations, and explanations based on empirical data collected from questionnaires and interview schedules. The chapter is very significant as it is one of those studies discussing the New Education Policy (2020) and its effect on access to higher education. The chapter included two case studies to show how discrimination persists even today in higher educational institutions. Finally, the chapter explores the challenges and opportunities for the Scheduled Castes female student respondents pursuing higher education.

Chapter-7: Summary, Findings, Recommendations and Conclusion

Chapter seven compiles the findings and observations from the preceding chapters and articulates the final arguments that substantiate the researcher's examination of the impact of higher education privatization on Scheduled Castes. This chapter encompasses the summary, highlights significant study findings, discusses key fieldwork observations, offers study recommendations, and suggests directions for future research. The chapter also addresses limitations in the current research and concludes with a summary. It provides readers with a comprehensive understanding of how higher education privatization impacts marginalized groups, specifically Scheduled Castes, within the study area, the Bengaluru urban district.

1.12 Summing up

In conclusion, the current chapter sheds light on the pressing issues plaguing the Indian higher education system, encompassing access, equity, financing, management, and quality concerns. The societal division into numerous castes and subcastes has led to inequalities in various spheres, including education, where privileged classes have monopolised the system. Among the most vulnerable are the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, who view higher education as a means of socio-economic upliftment and a path to reconstruct their social standing.

The chapter presents the research design used for the study, which is based on theoretical and empirical research to investigate the socio-economic status of students, parents, and teachers. Through interviews and questionnaire surveys, the study aims to uncover the challenges and opportunities faced by the scheduled castes population in the context of privatisation in higher education.

Despite some limitations, such as not interviewing college management and non-teaching staff, the study has endeavoured to collect primary data through interview schedules, valuing the respondents' honesty. Moreover, we successfully conducted interviews with half of the selected student's parents despite the challenges posed by their non-resident status and work commitments. As the chapter lays the foundation for the study's focus and methodology, the subsequent chapter will delve into the theoretical framework and literature reviews to comprehensively address the problems and prospects related to the privatisation of higher education in India and Karnataka. By exploring these issues, the study seeks to contribute valuable insights into the impact of privatisation on the scheduled castes in higher education.

Chapter-2

THEORETICAL UNDERSTANDING AND LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter focuses on the theoretical framework and the literature review concerning the empirical work on the privatisation of higher or tertiary education in India and its impact on Scheduled Castes students in various states. The chapter outlines the historical development of the Indian higher education system, including Karnataka. It also encompasses research on the expansion of privatisation in higher education within India and the state of Karnataka. Furthermore, it analyses the dimensions, composition, and challenges within higher education in India and Karnataka. Lastly, by examining the different scholarly works, this chapter also elucidates the implications of higher education privatisation and its effects on scheduled caste students in India and Karnataka and flags off the research gap that the present study attempts to study

2.1 Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework constrains the scope of the study by emphasising specific variables, establishing the researcher's perspective during data analysis and interpretation, clarifying the definitions of concepts and variables, and advancing knowledge by supporting or challenging theoretical assumptions.

One needs to uncover the different ideologies to understand the genesis of the privatisation of education. This privatisation of education has come about in modern societies with a particular way of operating the economy. In this section, an attempt has been made to trace these ideological trajectories that underpin the transformation of the education sector. Adam Smith's concept of the "wealth of the nation," published in 1776 and considered one of the significant and foundational texts for modern economy, gave the theoretical foundation for governing the economy in modern societies. His work focused on the principles of the market and the limited state's administration role in the economy. Smith believed capitalism or the free market was the best way to allocate resources and create wealth. He also argued that those individuals who act on their self-interests would lead to the greatest good for society. In this theory, citizens collectively control the country's prices of goods and services in a free market economy. The notion of national wealth fostered a strong belief in unrestricted commerce and a market-based economy (Smith, 1994). This notion allowed for the privatisation of education and was supported by many scholars. For instance, a renowned economist, Milton Friedman, supported Smith's perception. In his essay titled 'The Role of Government in Education' published in

1955, he argued that the government should not be involved in the provision of education and should left to the free market. Friedman asserts that opposing the free market equates to distrusting the freedom itself (Friedman, M 1955).

Contrary to this notion, the concept of welfare introduced by scholars like Alfred Marshall (year) emphasises the concurrent study of wealth and humanity rather than wealth alone. He believed that education is a form of human capital that could increase an Individual's productivity and earning potential. Marshall asserts that both the public and private sectors should provide education.

Karl Marx opposed capitalism as a mode of production and advocated for an economic system rooted in class conflict and division stemming from capitalism's social production relations. In this context, each commodity represents an average example of its class. The wealth of societies dominated by capitalist production manifests as a vast accumulation of commodities. Marx proposed the socialist mode of production to promote societal equality (Bhoi, 2013).

John Maynard Keynes, an influential economist, believed that the government had a crucial role in stabilising the economy at needy times through policy to manage economic fluctuations. He recognised education as a public good, which is non-excludable and non-rivalrous to the common masses, thus rejecting the argument of privatisation (Keynes, 1926).

Antonio Gramsci, an Italian Marxist and political theorist who introduced the concept of cultural hegemony, argued that the ruling class maintains its power through economic and political means and by ensuring control over cultural institutions, including education. He believed education should be the tool for the emancipation of marginalised sections in society and advocated for equal access to all social classes, not just the privileged elite ("Antonio Gramsci, prison notebooks," 2014).

Ronal Coase, a British Economist, is a prominent thinker who discussed transaction costs, property rights and the theory of the firm." He asserts that individuals act as economic agents within a corporation and the impact of privatisation as a process depends on the specific circumstances, including implementing the privatisation. Coase, a proponent of economic efficiency, believed that society should allocate resources to maximise overall welfare (Coase, 1937).

The term "Privatisation of higher education" pertains to the growing dependence on private funding and administration for educational institutions. The incorporation of the theory of the

firm into the context of privatisation in higher education in India is significant, as it offers a structured framework for comprehending the operational dynamics of private enterprises within the educational sector.

Prominent philosopher John Locke maintained that people have an inherent right to life, liberty, and property. He held that social order and human happiness depend on property rights. The “Theory of property rights” permits people to enjoy their property rights while functioning as economic agents within the economy without government interference in the production process. The theory of property rights argues that private investors who invest in educational institutions should have ownership and control rights over these institutions and the right to earn income from them. Proponents of privatisation use this argument to support the idea that private investors should have a more significant role in the management of educational institutions.

Unlike economic thinkers, Pluralist thinkers like H.J. Laski, E. Barker, Robert Dhal and David Trueman assert that privatising higher education can increase student diversity and choice. They argue that private institutions can offer distinct educational perspectives and provide unique programs and services unavailable in public institutions. Pluralist thinkers also maintain that privatisation can stimulate greater competition and innovation in education, yielding student benefits. Nevertheless, they recognise that privatisation may worsen inequality and restrict access to education for low-income families. Pluralist thinkers advocate for balancing public and private education provision to guarantee that all students have access to quality education.

Pluralist theory greatly emphasises educational pluralism, advocating that students should have access to various educational options, including both public and private schools. The proponents of privatisation argue that it can enhance educational pluralism by expanding the educational options available to students. They contend that private schools can offer distinct educational approaches and curricula compared to public schools, catering to students who may not thrive in conventional public school settings.

2.1a Functional theory, from a sociological standpoint, society is perceived as an intricate system wherein different components work together to maintain equilibrium and social harmony. This theory emphasises the functions of social institutions, such as education, and their roles in sustaining the overall operation of society. Proponents of functional theory, such as Emile Durkheim, Talcott Parsons, and Robert Merton, emphasise these principles.

Functional theory, also known as functionalism, perceives society as a complex system composed of interconnected components, each serving specific functions or purposes. Functionalists believe that institutions, including education, play pivotal roles in upholding social order and stability. They argue that these roles contribute to society's overall well-being and functioning. Here are key points concerning how functional theory perceives the privatisation of higher education:

Functionalism asserts that institutions, such as education, fulfil distinct social functions. In the context of higher education, these functions encompass the transmission of knowledge, the preparation of individuals for careers, and the promotion of social integration. Privatisation advocates contend that private institutions can better serve these functions by encouraging competition and efficiency. Functionalism emphasises meritocracy, where individuals are rewarded based on their abilities and efforts. Privatisation can be seen as a means to establish a competitive environment where the most exemplary educational institutions prosper, potentially leading to more meritocratic outcomes.

Privatisation increases reliance on private sources and resources instead of utilising government subsidies. One can perceive it as a method for allocating resources more effectively within the education system. By allowing market forces to dictate the allocation of resources, advocates argued that institutions providing high-quality education will attract more students and resources, while less effective institutions will face challenges. Critics of privatisation, however, contend that it may exacerbate social stratification and inequality. They argue that privatised higher education could lead to increased disparities in access to quality education, as tuition costs may be prohibitive for some students. It contradicts the functionalist concept of education promoting social integration. Functionalism also emphasises the role of education in promoting social cohesion and a sense of shared values. Some argue that privatisation may lead to a fragmentation of the educational system, as institutions prioritise their interests and profit motives over broader societal goals.

Privatisation proponents often argue that private universities can stimulate economic development by fostering innovation and research. From a functionalist perspective, one could view this as a positive contribution of higher education to society's overall well-being.

Conflicting with the pluralist and functional theories, the “**Ideational theory**” advocates reinstating the Keynesian strategy. Ideational theory for the privatisation of higher education highlights the influence of ideas and beliefs in shaping the privatisation of higher education.

This theory posits that privatisation is driven not only by economic factors but also by ideological factors. It suggests that the belief in the greater efficiency and effectiveness of private education provision than public provision plays a significant role in driving privatisation.

The laissez-faire capitalism doctrine emphasises competition, freedom of choice, and individualism. Within this “laissez-faire” individualism, ensuring equity in access to a welfare state becomes challenging. According to Adam Smith and his proponents, customers make utilitarian and logical decisions regarding the products and services they select. Ludwig von Mises (1881-1973) was a prominent economist and advocate of laissez-faire capitalism and associated with the Austrian School of Economics. His book “Human Action” (1949) articulated the case for a free-market capitalist system with minimal government involvement.

A French Marxist philosopher, Louis Althusser, did not explicitly argue about privatising higher education. Instead, his work primarily focused on how ideology and institutions, including education, function to reproduce and maintain the existing social and economic order. Althusser introduced the concept of “Ideological State Apparatuses” (ISAs) in his essay “Ideology and Ideological State Apparatuses,” where he discussed education as one of the key ISAs. According to Althusser, institutions like schools and universities are part of the state’s ideological apparatuses, which shape individuals’ beliefs, values, and worldviews to support the existing power structures. He argued that education, whether in public or private institutions, reproduces the ruling class’s ideologies and values. In a capitalist society, education can perpetuate the dominant ideology and contribute to maintaining social hierarchies. Althusser saw education as a tool used by the state to exert ideological control and maintain its authority.

2.1b Human Capital Theory

The economic and sociological theory known as “Human Capital Theory” sees education and training as investments in human capital that may boost an individual’s productivity, earning potential, and social mobility. It highlights the significance of obtaining competencies via education and training, regarded as vital assets that may improve an individual’s employability and earning potential. Human Capital Theory suggests that individuals who invest in education can expect higher economic returns over their lifetime compared to those with lower levels of education. It also posits that education can lead to social mobility, allowing individuals to move up the social and economic ladder by acquiring valuable skills and qualifications.

Prominent proponents and scholars associated with Human Capital Theory include Gary Becker, Theodore W. Schultz, Jacob Mincer, and their students and followers. Though there are differences in opinions, human capital theorists generally agree on several points regarding the privatisation of higher education. They frequently see education as an investment with potential financial rewards for people. This concept may be extended by privatising higher education, which gives people more freedom to choose their courses of study and maybe more significant returns on their investments. They contend that as educational institutions compete to draw students and impart valuable skills and information, privatisation may bring competition and choice to the field, thereby improving the quality of instruction. Some may see privatisation as a way to improve the effectiveness of higher education by cutting down on bureaucratic red tape and allowing institutions to better adapt to market pressures.

Nevertheless, it is essential to remember that there is debate concerning applying human capital theory to privatisation and education. Opponents contend that the idea can ignore the social and cultural aspects of learning, oversimplify the complicated nature of education, and reduce it to a simple commercial transaction. They also worry that privatisation may result in higher tuition fees, less educational opportunities, and a concentration on business rather than the advantages education offers society. Scholars and decision-makers may hold different opinions on these issues.

2.1c Conflict theory

According to the sociological perspective of conflict theory, society is marked by various types of inequality, conflict, and rivalry for power and resources. Along with symbolic interactionism and functionalism, it is one of the main paradigms in sociology. Conflict theorists concentrate on how societal structures, institutions, and processes support and amplify power disparities and other forms of inequality in society. They highlight the unequal distribution of wealth, power, and resources in society and contend that these disparities are purposefully kept to benefit particular groups. Conflict theorists believe conflict and struggle are intrinsic to society and frequently result from conflicting interests and moral standards among various social groupings. They look at how people in positions of influence and power exert dominance and power, frequently at the expense of marginalised or underprivileged populations. Conflict theorists frequently assert that conflicts and struggles between groups, aiming to enhance their position and challenge existing power structures, drive social change.

Prominent proponents and contributors to conflict theory include Karl Marx, Friedrich Engels, and Max Weber. Many regard Karl Marx as one of the foundational figures of conflict theory. His work, including “The Communist Manifesto” and “Capital,” focused on class struggle and the role of capitalism in perpetuating inequality. Engels was a collaborator of Marx and co-authored “The Communist Manifesto.” His writings and Marx’s laid the groundwork for many conflict theory ideas. While Weber is often associated with his work on the “Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism,” his ideas also contribute to conflict theory. Weber explored the multidimensional nature of power, class, and social stratification.

Conflict theorists’ views are generally critical and align with concerns about perpetuating social inequalities. Conflict theorists argue that privatising higher education can exacerbate existing social inequalities by reinforcing class-based disparities in educational opportunities. They argue that privatisation often determines access to higher education based on one’s ability to pay rather than one’s academic merit. It can commodify education, treat it as a marketable commodity rather than a public good, and prioritise profit over the quality of education and the well-being of students. Conflict theorists also raise concerns about the influence of corporations and private interests on curriculum, research agendas, and university governance in privatised systems, potentially shaping education to serve their interests.

2.1d Neo-liberal theory

Neoliberalism is an economic and political theory that emerged in the mid-20th century and has since significantly impacted economic policies and governance structures worldwide. It advocates for limited government intervention in the economy, free-market capitalism, deregulation, privatisation, and a focus on individualism and competition. Neoliberalism emphasises reducing state involvement in economic and social affairs, favouring market forces.

Neoliberalism promotes the idea that market mechanisms, such as supply and demand, should guide economic decision-making, and it seeks to minimise government regulation and control of markets. It often calls for reducing government regulations on businesses and industries, believing this will stimulate economic growth and innovation. Neoliberalism supports privatising state-owned enterprises and public services, including education, healthcare, and transportation. Neoliberalism strongly emphasises individual rights, personal responsibility, and self-reliance. It tends to favour fiscal policies prioritising reducing government spending, cutting taxes, and balancing budgets to promote economic efficiency.

Prominent proponents and advocates of neoliberalism include Friedrich Hayek, Milton Friedman, Ronald Reagan and Margaret Thatcher. The perception of neoliberal theorists towards privatising higher education is generally positive, as privatisation aligns with the broader neoliberal ideology. Neoliberal theorists argue that privatisation introduces competition and market forces into higher education, which can lead to increased efficiency, innovation, and improved quality of education. They contend that privatisation can reduce the financial burden on governments by shifting the responsibility for funding higher education to individuals, private institutions, and markets.

Neoliberalism emphasises individual choice and personal responsibility. Advocates argue that privatisation allows individuals to choose their educational options and take control of their education, aligning with the principles of individualism. Neoliberalism recommends that the market better allocate resources efficiently than the government. Privatisation can, in theory, allocate resources to universities and programs that are in higher demand and deemed more valuable by students and society. However, critics of neoliberalism argue that privatising higher education can lead to increased tuition costs, reduced access for marginalised groups, and an emphasis on profit over the quality of education. They contend that privatisation can worsen inequalities in education and limit the accessibility of higher education to those who cannot afford it.

The content offers an outline of various theoretical perspectives on privatisation, each offering unique insights into the topic. While proponents highlight the potential benefits of efficiency, diversity, and individual choice, critics express concerns about exacerbating inequalities, commodifying education, and reducing accessibility. These diverse perspectives contribute to ongoing debates surrounding the privatisation of higher education.

2.2 Social Exclusion and Higher Education

In the early 1970s, the concept of “social exclusion” emerged as a term signifying the exclusion of individuals or groups from the societal norms established by industrialised societies (Seth, R, 2001). The term “exclusion” itself derives from the English verb “exclude,” signifying the act of rejecting or disregarding something (Webster’s New World Dictionary).

European documents, such as the 1992 Second Annual Report of the European Commission’s Observatory on National Policies to Combat Social Exclusion, have defined social exclusion as “the denial of social rights to citizens, including access to a basic standard of living and

participation in significant social and occupational opportunities within society”. This definition underscores social exclusion as a multifaceted process that hinders equitable access to essential political, economic, and social activities across various domains for certain marginalised social groups (Thorat, 2013).

The term “social exclusion” itself is a compound formed by combining “social” and “exclusion.” Rene Lenoir, credited with coining the term, applied it to label individuals such as mentally and physically challenged individuals, suicidal individuals, abused children, delinquents, and asocial individuals as “excluded” from mainstream society (Amartya, S. 2000). This construct describes the process by which dominant groups deny specific collective groups or individuals’ access to social, economic, and political rights. It does not hinge solely on economic thresholds like poverty (Karwal B, 2021).

Social exclusion is a multidimensional and dynamic phenomenon characterised by a structural process of social isolation that diminishes various aspects of social interaction. Any society can be susceptible to forms of discrimination akin to social exclusion, and it is essential to comprehend this concept within the context of Indian society, which is inherently hierarchical and stratified, primarily due to the caste system with deep historical roots. In the Hindu social order, society categorises into four Varnas: Brahmin, Kshatriya, Vaishya, and Shudra, while they recognise a fifth category known as the “Untouchables.” (Kumar, V. 2014). Examining social exclusion through the lens of caste is critical since this particular group has endured historical prejudice based on their caste identity, resulting in unequal rights (Kumar, R. 2013). The classification of Dalits as “untouchables” within the caste system has played a significant role in their historical exclusion from educational and knowledge opportunities, with the associated stigma continuing to impede their access to and participation in education (Rao, S. 2012).

Dr. B.R. Ambedkar emphasised the role of education in emancipating SCs from illiteracy, injustice, and isolation. Nevertheless, various factors, including low socio-economic status and discriminatory practices, have left many scheduled caste children in India vulnerable to exclusion from educational institutions.

Amartya Sen’s concept posits that society excludes individuals when they cannot participate and when society does not recognise them. Ideally, these equality and equal opportunity principles should form the basis for participation and recognition, essential for upholding the fundamental principles of citizenship and preserving human dignity in social relationships.

Education, notably higher education, is pivotal in shaping children's development. It is not only a fundamental right but also imparts valuable skills. Moreover, education fosters societal engagement and respect, serving as a vital participatory process for children. Historical calls for widespread education in the 18th and 19th centuries prioritised inclusiveness in the educational process and the promotion of citizenship over mere skill acquisition (Rothschild, 1998).

The primary objective of education is to facilitate the transition of children from particularistic values to the universalistic values of contemporary society, irrespective of gender, ethnicity, caste, or social class (Parsons and Bales, 1956). However, caste-based discrimination continues to influence the functioning of educational institutions in modern India significantly. According to the 2011 Census of India, the overall literacy rate in India stands at 74.04 percent, with members of the Scheduled Caste community lagging at 66.1 percent. Discrimination experienced by Scheduled Caste children in schools adversely affects their self-esteem and dignity, often leading to dropout rates. Data from the Census of India 1991–2011 reveals that only 3.2 percent of Scheduled Caste individuals hold graduate degrees or higher. Their gross enrollment rate in higher education (7.3%) significantly lags behind that of the state of Punjab (19.4%) (Deloitte 2013).

Concerning higher education, Scheduled Caste children encounter numerous barriers due to their disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds, limited cultural capital, and historical disadvantages (Aikara, 1980). Even after completing higher education, they are often reminded of their caste identity and stereotyped as passive and incompetent. These students usually hail from low-income households, further impeding their academic achievements. They have limited access to social networks (Tierney et al., 2019). In contrast to high-status fields like engineering and medicine, the “traditional disciplines” of arts and humanities tend to concentrate on Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, exacerbating their challenges in pursuing higher education (Deshpande 2006; Rao 2006). Caste identity and socio-economic constraints further complicate their pursuit of higher education.

Nevertheless, education, notably higher education, remains a pivotal factor in children's development, with intrinsic value, a fundamental right, and a source of valuable skills. Promoting access to education enhances societal engagement and respect, recognising education as a critical participatory process for children. Historically, early calls for widespread

education in the 18th and 19th centuries emphasised fostering inclusiveness in the educational process and advancing citizenship over mere skill acquisition (Rothschild, 1998).

2.3 Historical Development of Higher Education in India and Karnataka

For India, higher education is not a new development. It has deep historical foundations through which a contemporary educational system has developed. Higher education institutions are the primary catalyst for social change in the nation's endeavour to strengthen its human resource foundation. An old educational system from the Vedic era served as the starting point for the sociohistorical journey of higher education. There were two educational systems in the past, the Brahminical and the Buddhist. Buddhist education was "secular" in nature, but religious principles governed the Brahminical educational system. However, the introduction of the British educational system resulted in a noticeable disparity in the educational system. As a result of the British system's creation of a new class that serviced the British overlords, the indigenous educational system suffered a significant defeat. The higher education system in India currently has the most institutions per capita globally. There are 17,973 higher education institutes in India (as compared to around 2,500 in China). India has more institutions than all of the United States and Europe combined, which is a difference of more than four times.

Johari and Pathak (1963): In their work, the authors narrated the complete genesis and development of the Indian education system from the Ancient to the pre-colonial periods. He carefully examined education developments, such as form, principles and philosophy, during pre-Vedic, Vedic Buddhist, Medieval and colonial rule.

Sharma, B. (2004) also worked on the history and development of the education system. His work deals with the developments of Ancient Indian education, education under the East India Company, and Diarchy. It concentrated on the philosophy and aim of education at various levels of the education system, such as primary, secondary, university, co-education, sex education, adult education, teaching and technical education in India. His work is beneficial in understanding the historical interpretations of the Indian education system.

Gosh, S. C. (2013) chronicles the history of education within India's administrative developments from 1757 to 2012. He examines the East India Company and British contributions to modern Western education, the decline of Brahminical and Islamic education, and their inability to meet the rising demand for higher education. Additionally, he addresses

the transformative impact of Western education on eradicating harmful practices like Sati and female infanticide in Indian society.

The author identifies the emergence of new political dynamics with the ascent of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, and Other Backward Castes. Their leadership has profoundly affected the Indian political landscape, challenging the government significantly. They introduced neo-liberal policies to address this by formulating the New Education Policy of 1986 and the revised Programme of Action of 1992. These policies, however, have enabled multinational corporations to establish control over India's education system, particularly in higher education. Unfortunately, the benefits of these developments have primarily accrued to the elite, who were already familiar with the advantages of the English-language-based public education system.

Further, he points out the exclusion of lower castes and those educated in regional languages from the education system, leading to a sharp reduction in job opportunities for these groups. He raises concerns about the potential consequences of such developmental trends, suggesting they could result in a dualistic India. One aspect would thrive under globalisation's prosperity, while the other would stagnate due to globalisation-driven disparities, ultimately deepening societal inequalities.

As a remedy, the author suggests implementing the recommendations of the Knowledge Commission. He asserts that such actions could address the challenges posed by globalisation in the long term, ultimately leading to a more equitable society.

Ghan Sham Shah (2002) opined that education is one instrument for accelerating social mobility. The study occurs in Gujarat, where Brahmins, Vantias, and Patidars hold dominant societal positions. In the traditional caste hierarchy, the Brahmins and Vantias belong to the upper castes. In contrast, the Patidar was considered Shudras, but Patidar, particularly in central Gujarat, improved conditions when cultivating commercial crops. Mainly, central Gujarat grew in that condition when they started cultivating commercial crops. As we understand it today, formal education with a Western orientation began in Gujarat at the beginning of the last century. The British government sponsored the Bombay Education Society. In 1815, to impart education to the children of European officers serving in the East India Company. Subsequently, Gujarat state introduced numerous schools and colleges, most located in towns or large villages. These institutions were primarily accessible to the upper castes who held sway

over village society. So, Shah says that education, which imparts marketable skills, is one way to facilitate their upward mobility and bridge the gap between high and low castes.

In his book “Problems of Higher Education in India,” Ramachandran C. M. (1987) discusses various issues with higher education that are ailing the system. Here, his primary focus is on education development during the British era. He asserts that with the arrival of European settlers in India at the start of the 17th century, significant shifts occurred in India’s governmental system and the organisation of educational institutions. The author has conducted an extensive investigation into the expansion of higher education in India before and after independence.

2.4 Policy Reforms in Higher Education during pre and post-Globalisation in India and Karnataka.

In his work, Sharma, V. (2010) The author extensively explores higher education and the influence of neo-liberal policies and government in this matter. This work was published as a collection of articles to reveal the government’s failure to prevent the commercialisation of higher education. The author asserts that despite achieving self-reliance in the education system, higher education remains dire. Only 7 percent of youth between 17 and 23 manage to access higher educational institutions, and there has been a substantial reduction in public expenditure on higher education.

According to the author, India’s judiciary actively shaped the privatisation of the higher education sector, but its stance contradicted itself on multiple occasions. The author also criticises governments for yielding to the World Bank and GATT principles, leading to altering procedures and regulations to integrate private universities into the Indian education framework. He observes that India increasingly relies on foreign nations to develop its intelligence community, which he fears could endanger national integrity. He firmly believes that strengthening public educational institutions is the sole solution to address the impending challenges.

Mane, V. (2013), Through his work, the author conveyed the process of globalisation and its influence on higher education from the perspective of a social scientist. He specifically delved into the theoretical framework of higher education globalisation and its repercussions on policy formulation in India. According to his analysis, the privatisation of higher education generally results from the massification of this sector, spurred by the escalating demand and social

mobility in India. Another contributing factor to privatisation is the financing of higher education, as the government believes that private entities should share the burden of its expenditure. The author maintained a distinct perspective that the privatisation of higher education fundamentally differs from that of the profit-driven public sector.

Tilak, B. G. (2004) pointed out a deficiency of policy and perspective in higher education, particularly in the post-1990s era. In the initial years following independence, he prioritised quality and equity, driven by the necessity to acquire knowledge for establishing a new socio-economic system after colonial rule. This emphasis had even extended to women and students from marginalised backgrounds, contributing to expanding the country's higher education system. Nevertheless, despite these efforts, only 8-9 percent of the 17-23 age group managed to access higher education institutions. While equity improved over the years, higher education remains inaccessible to the poorest segments of the population.

The author also contended that India's modern higher education history significantly shifted in the 1990s and subsequent years. During this period, they have witnessed a gradual reduction in funding for public higher education, earning it the moniker "decade of turbulence" in higher education. After the 1990s, authorities introduced numerous policies that coincided with a notable reduction in public spending across diverse sectors, including education. This phenomenon is termed disinvestment in higher education by the public. The author voiced concerns regarding the cost of higher education and contended that compromising quality and equity becomes unavoidable when public spending on education has been reduced. He observed a drastic decline in funding for college scholarships, impacting the enrollment of economically disadvantaged groups. The article unveiled the governments' misguided assumptions, revealing their hesitancy or refusal to allocate funds to education, particularly in higher education. The study comprehensively addressed pivotal aspects of higher education.

Kapoor and Mehta (2017) The authors delved into the complex role of tertiary education in India's economic and social transformation. They also addressed higher education's four key challenges: quality, access, financing, and internationalisation. As per the authors, the current challenge in higher education is grounded in its failure to meet human development expectations. Four factors drive the expansion of higher education in India. Firstly, the demographic dividend results from more than 30 percent of the population aged 15-24, causing a rise in higher education enrollment. Second, this demographic surge benefits from effective programs like Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan at the primary level and Rashtriya Madhyamika

Shikshana at the secondary level. Third, India's rapidly growing economy, intertwined with the global economy, has heightened the demand for knowledge and skilled human resources. It has created a 64 percent market opportunity for higher education globally.

Lastly, this surge in demand for higher education is intricately linked with both aspirations and state policy frameworks. Presently, India boasts the second-largest count of tertiary-level students, trailing only behind China.

The authors also argued that India's modern higher education history significantly shifted in the 1990s and subsequent years. During this period, they have witnessed a gradual reduction in funding for public higher education, earning it the moniker "decade of turbulence" in higher education. Post-1990s, many policies were introduced, accompanied by a substantial decrease in public expenditure across various sectors, including education. This phenomenon is known as public disinvestment in higher education. The authors expressed concerns about the cost of higher education and argued that compromising quality and equity becomes unavoidable when public spending on education is curtailed. They observed a drastic decline in funding for college scholarships, impacting the enrollment of economically disadvantaged groups. The article unveiled the governments' misguided assumptions, revealing their hesitancy or refusal to allocate funds to education, particularly in higher education. The study comprehensively addressed pivotal aspects of higher education. They shifted the cost burden to private institutions, and the financial system provided students with substantial loans. Today, the banking sector's higher education loans have risen more than 200fold in less than 15 years. However, as the authors discussed, the quality of Indian higher education remains low regarding access, deeply intertwined with the much larger social justice question, primarily due to prior economic and social disabilities.

In terms of internationalisation, post-independent India actively encouraged international collaborations, especially after the LPG period. As a result, the country attracted numerous foreign educational institutions to operate within its borders. These institutions come with high costs, including fees and other charges, often accessible only to elite students. In contrast, underprivileged sections struggle to access these institutions. Although MOOCs offer a promising channel for internationalising higher education, the financial constraints many disadvantaged sections face hinder awareness and participation in digitised higher education.

Through his study, **Gogoi L. (2002)** asserted that numerous nations have begun to cut back on government subsidies provided to the higher education sector, thereby giving private

organisations free rein. Thus, the private sector is expected to compete with the state sector. Private organisations have started to create, finance, and administer higher education institutions at an alarming rate during this process. The higher education industry in India has a hybrid system that combines the public and private sectors. The author claims that numerous respected education experts have stated that the private sector has benefited while public sector institutions continue to handle the non-profitable aspects.

Higher Education in India: Growth, Expansion, and Issues by **Goswami Dulumoni (2011)** critically analyses the many issues about higher education in India. The articles discuss issues like quality, extension as the third dimension of higher education, and the impact of globalisation on the Indian higher education system. In particular, Chapter IV of the book discusses Commercialisation and Privatisation. The author presents the argument that, in India, Privatisation only became significant after the Government of India's liberalisation policy went into effect. The swift economic reforms are what is causing it to spread globally.

2.5 Development of Size, Structure and problems in higher education in India and Karnataka.

Indian higher education system expanded quickly after independence. In 1980, there were 132 universities and 4738 colleges nationwide, with around 5 percent of those who qualified for higher education enrolled in those institutions. India currently boasts the third-largest higher education system in the world in terms of enrollment (after China and the USA) (after China and the USA). (Rubinstein & Sekhri, 2011) India has a substantial and diverse higher education system in the modern era, with over 44000 institutions and 1083 universities. There are currently over 4.3 million students enrolled in Indian higher education institutes. (Gandhi & Ahir, 2022)

Powar, K. B. (2006), In his work "Internationalisation of Indian Higher Education," the author identified that the current state of higher education development, both globally and in India specifically, stems from a shift in paradigm toward student-centric learning from traditional teacher-centric instruction. The author also underscored the challenges and outlook for developing countries in achieving the internationalisation of higher education. He expressed that Indian universities have not fully harnessed the opportunity to elevate themselves to international standards by enhancing their quality and teaching methods.

Patel, S. (2004) claims that the difficulties faced by higher education are not recent developments but instead have a historical background. Various issues currently confront

higher education institutions, contributing to the uneven distribution of these institutions. These issues encompass insufficient funding for salaries, research, and infrastructure, as well as outdated curriculum and political interference in the universities' daily operations. In addition, there has been a movement in students' interests away from conventional fields like basic science, social sciences, and humanities and toward practical ones. Because the state lacks a cohesive long-term policy on higher education and its expenditure-cutting programme, she further stated that private trusts act in their best interests. As a result, it is impossible to improve public institutions.

Furthermore, earlier education encouraged people across borders; thus, there was a migration outside underdeveloped regions such as India to access quality education. Now, education migrates from its location to a new site in search of its clients; thus, many private institutions situate their local franchises in developed countries like India. Moreover, it involves the new strata of students whom Western educational institutions train, and they coach the Western curricula to find a placement in the global market. As the author says, privatisation of Higher Education leads to problems like high fees and the nature of learning thoroughly in Western countries. Ultimately, it leads to the subversion of higher education's national goals. She concludes by saying that higher education is undoubtedly at a crossroads today. The earlier vision of higher education as an institution of learning is fast changing. Marketisation is becoming the location for imparting information rather than an institution of knowledge and learning process. Through her article, she also fears that quantity has found privilege over quality and the global system over national concern. Here, the author played a moderate role in explaining the process of globalisation of education. She analysed both the positive and negative aspects of the privatisation process.

Agarwal, P. (2009), The author's article "Indian Higher Education: Envisioning the Future" covered a majority of critical concerns, including India's higher education scope, organisation, and expansion. According to the author, inconsistencies exist in India's higher education system's size, composition, and growth. Nonetheless, India boasts a comprehensive and extensive higher education system that has the potential to amass a substantial pool of highly skilled human resources over time, positioning the nation as a formidable player in the global knowledge economy. Achieving equitable access and participation for students is pivotal in diversifying higher education.

The author also highlighted the contrast between public and private higher education. Private higher education experienced rapid growth globally and in India during the 1980s, outpacing public institutions. Today, private educational institutions invest five times more than public ones, propelling their growth ahead of public universities. Consequently, the demand for private higher education has outpaced the growth of the general population, driven by a lack of policy regulation.

Politicians, businesspeople, and industry members have established private higher education institutions through family trusts or societies. These institutions tend to be costlier than government-run ones, relying heavily on higher tuition fees for funding. The author apprehends that the increasing prominence of the private sector could significantly impact India's higher education future, causing a widening gap between public and private institutions. The author fears that expanding private higher education might necessitate public institutions to bridge this gap, ensuring equal opportunities and participation for students from marginalised communities to maintain equity.

The author concerns the state's inability to ensure equity and equality through a just, open, democratic regulatory framework. The author worries that the growth of private higher education might exacerbate disparities, necessitating public institutions to step in and ensure equal access and participation for students from underprivileged backgrounds.

Basant and Sen (2014) study examined how socio-religious affiliations influence higher education enrollment in India and whether their significance changes. The researchers utilised three rounds of the NSS employment survey (55th round in 1999-2000, 61st round in 2004-05, and 66th round in 2009-10) to gather detailed information on each member's age, gender, education level, household size, and other relevant factors. The study aimed to address unresolved issues related to India's long-standing policy of affirmative action, particularly in the form of reservations in higher education, primarily within the government sector. Additionally, the authors discussed the feasibility of extending affirmative action policies to encompass the private sector.

Upon analysing the data from two rounds, the researchers observed a narrowing educational achievement gap between upper-caste Hindus and marginalised groups at higher income levels. The paper explored the connection between affirmative action, as outlined by reservation policies in India, and levels of participation in higher education. The authors argued that job reservations could potentially enhance incentives for participation in higher education,

particularly in urban areas. They found that Hindu upper castes in urban areas were more likely to complete higher education. However, they believed that an exclusive emphasis on affirmative action was inadequate, as various criteria beyond socio-religious affiliations significantly influence participation. Ultimately, the authors emphasised the importance of factors such as the rural-urban divide, economic background, and residential location, highlighting the role of supply-side elements in influencing the participation of diverse groups.

According to **Bhagabati Dhiren (2005)** in his book *“The Condition of Higher Education in the Age of Liberalization and Globalization”*, the steady removal of the state from public utility services following the government’s liberalisation policies does not bode well for our country. To fulfil the demands of the market-driven economy, higher education’s original focus on pursuing knowledge has given way to a focus on skill development. The author makes it abundantly evident that higher education is progressively becoming a business and that access to education is a privilege reserved only for those who can pay for it. To support this assertion, he references the increasing number of for-profit higher education institutions, a considerable portion established solely for financial purposes. The author also asserts strongly that private higher education institutions are establishing a network of centres in this location to generate business revenue.

In his study, **Bajaj KK (2006)** discusses the new privatisation issues in higher education. India established the current educational environment following ratifying the GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade) Treaty. “Education” has developed into a service alongside other facets of global trade to guarantee a non-discriminatory open market for trade in commodities and services. However, the privatisation of higher education has become a reality due to the growth of the national and global economy, propelled by Information Technology (IT) and internationally savvy individuals. One must undertake study and analysis to gain a deeper understanding of the multifaceted aspects of private higher education.

In his 2014 article “Private Universities: Challenges and Opportunities in Higher Education,” Jeelani S. demonstrated the growth of private universities in India as profitable economic entities. These universities operate under the governance of the UGC (Establishment and Maintenance of Standards in Private Universities) Regulations 2003. The National Knowledge Commission envisioned 1,500 universities for India, yet the current count is merely 700, less than half the recommended number. Hence, the private sector can substantially contribute to alleviating the supply-demand imbalance. Private higher education has significantly influenced

higher education in countries such as the USA, Japan, and Malaysia, as evidenced by S. Jeelani's study.

Sangeeta Angom (2014) In his research paper titled "*Private Institutions in India, Status and Policy Perspectives*", the author examined twelve private universities' growth, enrollment, funding, governance, and academic environment. The study highlighted that these private universities exhibit governance and management on par with public universities. The State Private University Acts grant these institutions complete autonomy over their academic operations. As these universities rely solely on student fees, they strive to attract students by offering popular courses with high value in the job market. Nonetheless, tuition and other fees constitute 84 percent of their total income.

The research also highlighted that students who enrol in these institutions possess the necessary financial resources, often individuals not granted admission to esteemed public universities. The study raised significant concerns regarding the governance structure and the quality of education these private institutions provide.

Jandhyala B.G. Tilak (2014) In this article, the author emphasises that the rapid expansion of private higher education, especially since the early 1990s, is responsible for the notably high growth of higher education in India. Private institutions and student enrollments are twice as numerous as the public sector. Although these private institutions have highlighted benefits, the author firmly argues that this extensive dependence on private higher education for the comprehensive advancement of higher education in India is associated with numerous risks.

Parasar B.S. Nagendra (2013) Asserting the urgent need for education privatisation, the author's study titled "Deemed or Private Universities, Shattered Dreams" delves into the operational dynamics, academic climate, research, and various facets of private universities. Citing a recent ILO survey projecting a demand for 600 million profitable job opportunities worldwide over the next decade, the study recognises that the government alone cannot fulfil market demands, necessitating a substantial role for private players. The paper meticulously scrutinises the causes behind the inability of private universities to uphold standards and quality. In their fervent pursuit of reputation and prestige, these universities rush to ascend the ladder of success. Despite lacking the necessary instructional facilities and infrastructure, they launch numerous programs and strive to portray diligent efforts through various media, including print and electronic advertisements. The author vehemently advocates that statutory bodies must inform management of these factors before granting university status. The paper's

author contends that the immediate establishment of a controlling authority is imperative to oversee these private higher learning institutions.

In his 2005 book “*Higher Education in Changing Scenarios*”, **C.R. Mitra** extensively explores the Indian higher education landscape, which has undergone significant transformation in recent years. The author asserts that the higher education sector has experienced a domestic and international paradigm shift. With the opening of the Indian economy to the global market in 1991, new contenders entered the educational arena. These academic entrepreneurs perceive fresh opportunities for higher education to thrive in the marketplace. The book aims to spark an open and candid dialogue within the public sphere to prepare higher education for the challenges posed by the market economy. The book comprises a collection of essays addressing policy changes and institutional transformations between 1991 and 2000.

2.6 Privatisation of higher education and its impact on Scheduled Castes students in India and Karnataka

In his theory of cultural reproduction, **Pierre Bourdieu (1977)** made the highly pertinent claim that social and cultural injustices are passed down from generation to generation. (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990) offered a theoretical justification for the connection between children’s socio-economic position and educational achievement. According to Bourdieu, the advantage of having cultural capital in verbal skill, strong cultural awareness, and competency in a society’s high-status culture allows pupils from affluent households and the elite class to excel academically. High-class people benefited greatly from having access to higher education options thanks to their cultural capital.

Halsey, Heath, and Ridge (1980) employed a sizable sample of 8000 men to examine how socio-economic class has influenced men’s educational experiences. They divided the population into three social classes: the service class, the intermediate class, and the working class. Children from the service class outperformed those from the middle class regarding academic performance, and both groups outperformed those from the working class. It demonstrates that pupils from affluent social circumstances are much more likely than their less fortunate friends to achieve academic success.

Kirpal et al. (1985) delved into the academic and social integration of SC/ST students (Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes) at the Indian Institute of Technology (IIT). Their study revealed that SC/ST students from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds were more likely to secure admission to IIT than students from the general category. The study found

that urban surroundings had a moderate influence on academic performance. Within the low-income group, the SC or ST category exhibited the highest percentage of underachievers. The study shows that various factors, including income, influence academic performance. Interestingly, a student's underperformance did not necessarily correlate with their parent's level of education or educational achievements.

The study uncovered that some SC/ST students perceived their hometowns or residential conditions as substandard. The challenge for SC/ST students in maintaining regular and brief interactions with their parents significantly added to their daily struggles. The study also highlighted the stigma SC/ST students face due to special provisions and the resentment from others regarding their comparatively more straightforward admission to IIT. Furthermore, the study uncovered that SC/ST students dealt with challenges, including feelings of inferiority, language barriers, introverted personalities, and instances of harassment driven by a fear of "reverse discrimination." In light of their findings, the study recommended providing motivated SC/ST students with rigorous training in a competitive environment to equip them for their academic journey.

The decisions and experiences of children from various socio-economic categories, including the Dalit children, were examined independently by Jha and Jhingran (2005), who conducted thorough fieldwork in 37 villages and 15 slums in India. Teachers from the caste Hindu groups had a negative attitude toward Dalit students in the class, as was made clear by their fieldwork, notably in the villages. They indicate that upper-caste professors purposefully beat, mistreated, and harassed Dalit students.

Family income and a student's capacity for academic success and excellent health and nutrition may be related, claims **Mickelson, R.A. (2002)**. She claimed that having access to computers, luxurious living quarters, tutors, and teachers with more education made high achievement possible for wealthy individuals.

Thorat S.K. (2005) In his paper titled "Why Reservation in Private Sector is Necessary," the author presents the case for implementing a reservation policy in the private sector to safeguard against the long-standing discrimination faced by the marginalised segments. Additionally, he underscores the persistence of bias across social, economic, and political spheres, highlighting the imperative of affirmative action to bring about systemic transformation.

Gosh, J. (2006), In her concise note titled “Commercialisation and Privatisation of Higher Education” to NEIPA, New Delhi, she shed light on critical concerns regarding the prevailing policies, challenges, and potential trajectories for higher education in India. As she articulated, higher education in India inherently favours the elite, with a mere 6-7 percent of school entrants advancing to the university system. These students predominantly originate from privileged classes, urban environments, and upper or middle-class backgrounds, frequently belonging to non-backwards communities.

Today, the demand for higher education is escalating rapidly, yet public higher education struggles to accommodate and meet these demands. It has resulted in the proliferation of private institutions catering to the substantial demand for higher education. However, these institutions operate based on a capitation fee structure, effectively rationing access based on income. This exclusionary approach denies financially disadvantaged but potentially more talented individuals the opportunity to afford education.

The author also addressed both the issues of quantity and quality. She observed that many colleges and higher educational institutions grapple with qualitative deficiencies, such as inadequate facilities for students and instructors, disparities in teaching quality, and inadequate monitoring of class attendance. She expressed concerns over the waning attraction towards humanities and arts disciplines, noting that private institutions tend to popularise fields like management, law, medicine, and engineering, effectively transforming higher education into a marketable commodity.

Within this article, the author proposed potential remedies to foster the expansion and enhancement of higher education in India. She argued that increased expenditure on public higher education is necessary, necessitating consistent pressure on the government. However, she emphasised that public funding alone will not ensure the desired levels of quality higher education. She stressed the importance of inclusivity in higher education institutions, drawing attention to the pitfalls seen in privatising health and hospitals, which often fall short in serving the needs of underprivileged patients. A similar scenario in higher education could exclude disadvantaged groups such as SCs, STs, and OBCs.

Finally, the author contended that private involvement in education should persist and be encouraged, albeit without a profit-oriented approach. She underscored that the entry of private players cannot resolve the multifaceted challenges of quality and quantity in higher education, as many private institutions still grapple with inadequate infrastructure, teaching quality, and

training. She advocated for developing actionable strategies to enhance access for socially marginalised groups and financially needy students to curtail dropout rates among such demographics.

Bhushan S (2006), The author of the essay “Privatisation and Commercialisation of Higher Education in India”, claims that although coming from the privileged class, private higher education in India was motivated by philanthropy to meet societal needs. On the other hand, the privatisation of education refers to for-profit entities’ management and ownership of educational institutions. Meanwhile, commercialising education entails private ownership and management of educational institutions, involving investments to generate profits. He argues that education was historically considered a social good for which the government took on the primary responsibility of funding and management, as it was considered a public good. Private players managed it for financial gain but did not view education as a commodity to trade in the market. Higher education has become increasingly in demand, but the government has been unable to keep up. Due to the high market demand, private education investment has gained importance. Investors in education who were part of the privatisation of education included people from various backgrounds who ran family-based businesses. The author of the article raised some social issues regarding the commercialisation of higher education, noting that issues of social accountability take on significance in the form of educational opportunity equality and that the dominant role of public investment in higher education ensured protection for specific focus groups, which is in jeopardy due to recent de facto commercialisation and privatisation. According to India’s judicial system, the right of self-financing institutions to autonomy cannot be infringed upon by the imposition of reservation in those institutions. He added that it is a recent phenomenon for foreign universities to enrol students. They are mainly experimenting with unrecognised, entirely private educational institutions that have sprung up in response to consumer demand and with little to no regulation to restrain or guide their actions, which will promote pure commercialisation from the corporate sector and ultimately lead to commercialisation. In order to ensure that all social groups have an equal opportunity to participate, he suggested that the state take control of these private institutions. He concludes by urging the centre to consider passing three pieces of legislation governing fees, admission standards, and equality for self-financing, private, and foreign universities.

Wankhede, G. G. (2008) studied the educational disparities among Scheduled Caste groups in Maharashtra. He revealed that students from Scheduled Castes and their subcastes consistently underperformed in Maharashtra’s primary, intermediate, and higher education.

In her investigative research concerning the experiences of scheduled caste children in schools, **Nambissan, G. (2009)** made several observations. Her study focused on sixty-four children from various Dalit subcastes attending government and private schools in two locations: a village in the Phagi tehsil of Jaipur district and a slum in the city of Jaipur. The study revealed numerous instances of exclusionary practices within these schools. For instance, even though earthen pots were the shared water source for all children, Dalit children were not allowed to use them. Moreover, they faced discrimination during meal services at school events and programs, including lunchtime. “Naming children by caste” was a regular occurrence in the schools. This process exposed their stigmatised identity to public scrutiny, leading to emotional distress and reduced self-esteem among Dalit children.

Daniel. C. Levy (2012). Privatising higher education is one of the most significant global shifts. This focus centres on the partial privatisation of public institutions. The author asserts that the privatisation of higher education impacts approximately one-third of the world’s population. Although the United States marked the initial surge of higher education privatisation, its influence rapidly expanded to Asia, Latin America, the Middle East, Central and Eastern Europe, and Africa. Nevertheless, the demand for private higher education varies considerably, with certain institutions serving as hubs of group identity while others offer exclusive or semi-exclusive options, as highlighted by the author in the case of the United States.

Levy observes that there has been limited comprehensive study of privatisation since the early 2000s. Even policymakers possess a limited understanding of higher education privatisation. To thoroughly understand the global trend of increasing higher education privatisation, it is essential to analyse it within the context of the US reality. When comparing different progressive eras, the United States experienced the earliest stages of higher education privatisation, and private higher education’s overall market share remains substantial. Japan leads in terms of the percentage of higher education encompassing identity, elite, and non-elite demand-absorbing categories within the United States. In the US, religious and culturally oriented institutions maintain a significant presence in higher education, although non-elite institutions have become numerically dominant sources of demand absorption that the public sector fails to meet. The author concludes by asserting that the privatisation of higher education in the US is an exceptional case due to its evolution, absolute size, cultural aspects, and relative position in the developed world, among other unique characteristics hardly replicated elsewhere in the modern world.

Albatch, P.G. (2012) The author argued that one could comprehend modernisation through various contexts, particularly in developing nations. However, he emphasised the significance of higher education in fostering national unity, equipping workers with skills demanded by modern industries, and training educators and administrators capable of disseminating cutting-edge perspectives and teaching methods. According to him, higher education must inevitably play a crucial role in India's social, political, and technological advancement. Further, he argued that neglecting higher education would result in minimal economic and social progress, hindering the country's growth and development.

He asserted that India constantly grapples with crisis due to its higher education system heavily mirroring Western countries and adopting their organisational and intellectual traditions. Post-independence, India displayed a paradoxical blend of haphazard and arbitrary growth and close ties between the educational system and the government. The lack of governmental planning for higher education led to no global accreditation for any Indian university. This article offered insightful recommendations for Indian policy reforms. The author believed that India possesses the potential to establish a world-class higher education system, given its advantages like a youthful demographic dividend with nearly half of the population aged between 15-34 years.

Additionally, the author observed that many students entering higher education lack the intellectual preparation necessary to succeed in the global economy. He proposed abandoning outdated academic traditions and modernising institutions. Finally, he strongly urged the Indian government to double its investment in public higher education to enable Indian institutions to compete with the world's best successfully.

Khushwaha, J.K. (2013) In his doctoral research study titled "Stress and Mental Health Related Problems among Students due to Discrimination during Higher Education in Uttar Pradesh," the researcher identified multiple factors and situations contributing to discrimination against students from specific castes or communities. These factors encompass poor socio-economic conditions, personality traits, rural behaviours, cultural biases, caste identity, and prior educational accomplishments. Furthermore, these factors significantly correlated with heightened anxiety levels and subpar academic performance among affected students.

Jha, J. (2015) In her article "*Education India Private Limited*", she focused primarily on two aspects of the privatisation and commercialisation of higher education. Firstly, she discussed

how the commercialisation of higher education has impacted the Indian educational system. Secondly, she delved into the arguments advocating for elevating educational standards.

According to her analysis, the proliferation of fee-charging private institutions, encompassing both schools and higher education establishments, is a prominent phenomenon in present-day India. These private institutions have witnessed high enrollment figures, often surpassing those of public institutions. Their revenue largely derives from students' tuition fees and other institutional charges. Notably, there has been a decline in enrollment shares in public institutions in both urban and rural areas, as indicated by NSSO (71st round) data. The expansion of services owes much to establishing new private colleges and universities. However, the term "university", which historically represented a diverse range of subjects and disciplines, now frequently refers to institutions specialising in just one or two academic domains, notably engineering, medicine, and management.

On the contrary, traditional fields of study like arts, humanities, and other subjects have received relatively limited attention. Skill-based education also remains neglected. The author contends that such disparities create distinct lines of discrimination, particularly along caste lines and various societal dimensions. Most marginalised groups, constrained by financial constraints, find accessing quality education at public and private institutions extremely challenging. Indian institutions still lag far behind in terms of ensuring educational quality.

Additionally, she highlighted that despite its recognition as a public or quasi-public good, international rankings, including those from the Times Higher Education Supplement, have not placed a single Indian university or institution within the top 200. She argued that an education system centred around profit motives might yield short-term economic gains and contribute to the nation's growth. However, such an approach could eventually encounter significant limitations. It could hinder efforts to reduce inequality, suppress progressive ideas, and undermine social cohesion.

Malish, C.M., and Ilavarasan, P.V. (2016) examined ethnographic descriptions of the educational experiences of 14 Scheduled Castes (SC) engineering students. According to their analysis, institutional habitus better captures how institutions influence underprivileged students and significantly shape the learning experiences of S.C. students. The study revealed that despite spending several years in college, the oppressive culture and practices continue to impact the student's academic and non-academic aspects. They often face reminders that their admission was primarily due to reservations. Unlike high-status fields such as engineering,

medicine, and other professional education, SCs and STs primarily concentrate on the “traditional disciplines” of arts and humanities.

Baweja (2017), In his article titled “Privatisation of Higher Education in India Needs Impact and Suggestions,” the author argued that despite significant efforts in the post-independence era, access to higher education in India remains inadequate, particularly for disadvantaged groups. He emphasises that higher education should achieve goals such as access, equality, justice, quality, employability, inclusiveness, and creating a knowledge-based society or economy. However, India’s overall higher education landscape falls short of global quality standards despite its historical tradition of quality higher education.

The author points out that the government’s decision to relinquish responsibility for this crucial sector carries profound implications. Public and private sectors collectively account for approximately 62 percent of total enrollments in higher education in India. The widespread privatisation of higher education could exclude a significant portion of the Indian population from accessing higher education opportunities. The author also emphasises that the privatisation of higher education has taken various forms in recent decades.

Firstly, privatisation occurs within government higher education institutions when introducing self-financing courses. Secondly, the transformation of government-aided private institutions into self-financing private entities is taking place. Thirdly, whether recognised or not, self-financing private institutions are granted permission to operate. One can categorise these institutions as commercial private higher education institutions. Fourthly, there is a shift in the types of higher education institutions, with the number funded by public sources stagnating while the number supported by private funding experiences rapid growth.

In conclusion, the author believes that the government must increase public expenditure on higher education to enhance access to higher education for weaker sections of society. The positive aspect of privatisation is that it makes education accessible to rural students and increases the number of degree holders, but it also contributes to unemployment.

2.7 Research Gap

Upon reviewing extensive literature, the study concluded that the expansion of professional education occurred concurrently with the growth of private education. The excessive emphasis on Business, Science, Engineering, and other professional programs negatively affects social

sciences and the humanities. Moreover, the government reduced financial allocations for these courses.

Research has limitedly explored the implications of higher education privatisation for scheduled caste communities regarding enrollment, educational quality due to financial constraints, and professional success. Researchers have not extensively investigated the challenges parents, teachers, and students from scheduled caste groups face in initiating, sustaining, and completing higher education in public and private educational institutions. Socio-cultural and economic barriers related to caste, religion, income, and patriarchy hinder marginalised groups from accessing higher education, especially scheduled castes, who comprise a significant portion of the population. The proliferation of private schools exacerbates this issue by introducing more complex challenges, making it harder for students to pursue higher education. In this context, this study will be the first to analyse these components by engaging with respondents in Bengaluru.

Researchers have conducted limited studies to establish a higher education policy framework, objectives, scope, and impacts on scheduled caste students in the metropolitan Bengaluru region. This study aims to fill the gaps in the available aspects of the higher education policy in the State of Karnataka.

The review of existing literature also revealed that the participation of the scheduled caste group in higher education is still far from satisfactory due to their social and economic circumstances and the nature of the educational system. Therefore, the current study aims to address the gaps that have hindered the full participation of this group in the system since the privatisation of higher education began.

Chapter -3

EVOLUTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION POLICYMAKING IN INDIA

3.1 Introduction

Since 1000 BC, Indian higher education has maintained its presence, disseminating Vedic knowledge through educational institutions. Over time, various models of Buddhist, Jain, and Islamic education also emerged. However, colonial rule, spanning more than 200 years, gave rise to the modern educational system. The East India Company, the British parliament, and direct British influence played pivotal roles in advancing higher education. During colonial rule, the British Parliament oversaw numerous development projects and recognized educating Indians as a top priority through the Charter Act.

In 1818, missionaries received complete freedom to propagate an educational model, establishing the Serampore College as an evangelistic institution. Between then and 1935, the Indian educational system experienced significant developmental changes. During this period, the British delegated the authority to provincial politicians to formulate a practical framework for the Indian educational system. The transformation of “colonisation of education” into localisation or Indianization was highly esteemed during this era. India had 241,369 students enrolled in its 496 colleges and 20 universities at its independence. With the greater responsibility of expanding the educational structure and size to the frontiers, the newly elected Indian government faced challenging post-independence initiations. The original documents stated that the state’s primary duty was to educate the Indian population, and until the 1980s, education was considered a public good. State funding for higher education, in general and specifically, underwent gradual reductions. The growing middle class and shifting global economic conditions compelled India to explore foreign investment in higher education. This exploration materialised in the latter part of the 1980s when India embraced the Liberalisation, Privatisation, and Globalisation (LPG) model.

Following three decades of adopting liberal policies, private entities privatised nearly seventy-five percent (75%) of India’s educational system. Furthermore, they transformed education from a public good into a commercial commodity. According to Prabath Patnaik, the “*commoditisation of education*” process was evident in the Indian higher education system. The education market continues to be upheld under the pretext of “quality” as private stakeholders compete and market attractive educational resources to the general public. (Patnaik, P. 2018)

Regarding the number of institutions and the enrolment rate, the private sector currently dominates the entire educational system compared to the public. Additionally, it is fostering inequality within Indian society. Consequently, the chapter tries to comprehend the historical development of higher education from the ancient period to the adoption of the New Education Policy (2020) have been discussed by observing the traces of privatisation of education in the history of the Indian educational system. Additionally, the chapter provides demographic information regarding the privatisation of higher education in India.

3.2 Origin and Development of Higher Education in India

Education was quite unconscious in the infancy of humanity (Das, S, K. 1986). The first phase of education for a human is through observation. In addition to trying to get food, shelter and safety, man learns to observe nature. Later, he experienced and understood his physical and mental power in saving himself from the destructive forces of other animals. In further development, the elder's assistance to their younger generation has created the mode of training as a mode of education. However, the invention of domestication of animals, fire and language became significant steps in advancing his prosperity through words, which helped him settle in one place and form a societal relationship. Gradual man learns to control the things around him firstly from their family by imparting patriarchal values; later, he assumes the powers of a small community of living in the form of a village head and later formed and bounded by certain customs and laws. It was considered the genesis of conscious education during ancient times.

To properly understand the education system in ancient India, it is essential to analyse the original nature of the people who lived at that time and their active developments in terms of capacities within the character of the environment. The genesis and development of the education system in India have a rich and exciting history, and the bird-view of the trends and practices of ancient India reveals that it does not belong to one race. Throughout history, diverse people have lived on Indian soil at various stages, leaving their marks on society. An anthropological investigation of the study of these races has stated that the four major races had existed and proved their incidence, viz., Dravidians, Aryans, Scythians and Mongolians. The Aryan race, nevertheless, controlled the entire ancient Indian education system. (Das, 1986)

During the ancient period, many believed that education spread through signs of imitation and oral communication, with pictorials and letters transitioning from oral to written forms of communication. Scholars of that era utilised palm leaves and tree bark extensively, contributing

significantly to the spread of literature in written form. The Hindu Education system was a prevalent term used to describe the education system, encompassing literature on religious values and rules like Vedas, Smritis, Puranas, and Nibandhas.

Initially, temples and community centres served as education centres, later evolving into gurukuls, traditional Hindu residential schools where the teacher's household (guru) or monastery (ashram) became the focal point of learning. ("Education," 2019) Access to the Gurukul education system was restricted, available only to a few races. In the ancient Hindu context, higher studies primarily meant Vedic studies, encompassing various subjects, including religion, scriptures, philosophy, literature, warfare, statecraft, medicine, astrology, and history (Ray, K 1984).

Over time, the 'Parishad' or assembly of learned Brahmins, hermitages, schools associated with Hindu temples, and various Mathas emerged as key centres of learning for Hindu education based on Vedic studies. The advent of the Buddhist and Jainist education systems delivered the first-ever blow to the rigid education system propagated by the Hindu religion. Unlike the Hindu education system, the Buddhist monastic colleges initiated the imparting of education to the common masses (Ray, K p 66). Buddhism, born from a rebellion against the Hindu caste system, covered almost all the subjects taught by the gurukuls. However, it also incorporated the Pali language into its curriculum, a language understood by the layman, aiming for widespread comprehension of education and its values throughout society. This system was open to all, without any discrimination, in contrast to the exclusion of Sudras in Hindu education.

Prominent educational centres within the Buddhist education system were set up across India, encompassing Nalanda, Kanchipuram, Odantapuri, Sri DhanyaKataka, and Vikramasheela. Among these, Nalanda stood out as the most significant centre, offering a broad spectrum of knowledge and hosting around 10,000 pupils at its zenith. Claims assert that these universities or knowledge centres underwent destruction on multiple occasions during the rule of Muslims in India (Ray, K, 1984).

3.3 Education in Medieval India

Islamic rule in India significantly shaped many aspects of medieval Indian history, primarily documented in contemporary Persian chronicles. Ray (1984) categorised the historical works produced during the period of Muslim rule into four significant groups. Firstly, some chronicles encompass the entire span of Muslim rule (Tabaqat-l-Akbari). Secondly, there are those focused

on the history of a particular dynasty (Tabaquat-i-Nasiri). Thirdly, some chronicles delve into the reign of specific rulers, such as the works of Amir Kusrov. Lastly, some works explore specific provinces, like Abu Tharab's Tarikh-i-Gujarat.

During the medieval period, a few Persian chronicles in the Persian language retained significant importance as historical references. One notable example is Abul Fazi's Ain-I Akbari, an encyclopaedic source for the era. It is a comprehensive reference that discusses education, covering Hindu and Muslim primary, secondary, and higher education systems. Additionally, it provides insights into the curriculum at various educational stages. Though the Muslim rulers mainly dominated the medieval education system, they followed the policy of laissez-faire for education, which was society's responsibility rather than the state's. The Muslim rulers formed no particular department to impart education. The educational institutions were attached to the mosque or temple. The principal aim of the education system in this period was the illumination and extension of knowledge and the propagation of Islam. In the early period of Muslim rule in northern India, the Muslim demography was mainly settled and concentrated in the towns and cities. Initially, the Muslim rulers patronised Muslim education alone; thus, Muslim education was confined only to urban areas. Gradually, the Maktab and Madrasah imparted Muslim education. It has become the state's responsibility to provide financial assistance to the teachers and stipends to the children.

In various instances, the Muslim rulers demonstrated a keen interest in developing non-Muslim languages, particularly Sanskrit. They encouraged translating numerous Sanskrit literary works into Arabic and Persian, as Ray highlighted. However, most Hindus considered Muslims tainted, leading to efforts to avoid interactions with them. Consequently, Muslim education remained largely disconnected from the majority of Hindu communities.

Despite this, Persian became the court language of the Mughal Empire. While the Maktab and Madarasa had their main intention exclusively for Muslims, the rulers of that time urged the doors unlocked to Hindus. Unlike Hindus, Muslims did not uphold a hierarchy of race or caste when imparting knowledge. Thus, according to the Hindu social structure, Muslim education reached those within the lower castes deprived of education for centuries.

Gradually, the Indian populace also began to learn Persian, leading to inter-translations between Persian and Hindi. This linguistic exchange gave rise to a new form of language, Indo-Persian, which emerged through the fusion of Hindi and Persian elements. Much of the literature produced during this period was composed in the Indo-Persian language. The Mughal rulers

founded many colleges and higher educational institutions, and historical places like Agra, Delhi, Lahore, Gujarat, and Kashmir have made the major learning centres of Muslim education. Mathematics was considered the first science subject, and during the regime of Akbar, he issued an order to make mathematics a compulsory subject in the Madarasa. Apart from mathematics, Astrology and astronomy, medicine, philosophy, history, and Geography are significant subjects of instruction.

The Islamic education system is a foreign good to Indian soil and has no genomic roots. The Islamic invaders started from the Mahmud Ghazni (998-1030) during the eighth century, who invaded seventeen times on India and did initial damage to the Brahmanical education system, and later the Muhammad Ghorī (1191-1192), who led the foundation for the Islamic rule in India till the rule of Alamgir (1658-1707), the Muslim rulers have given a significant contribution higher education. The Islamic education system differed from the Brahminical and Buddhist education of the ancient system. Still, like Buddhist education, the Islamic education system also opens its doors to all Hindus without any caste barriers. In this way, the Islamic education system has allowed the deprived classes of India to educate themselves after the initiatives of the Buddhist education system. Until the arrival of European powers in India, Islamic education has witnessed its heights in the aftermath of developments in the higher education system that have changed the entire scenario of the education system of India.

3.4 Higher Education in the Pre-Colonial Period

During the pre-colonial era from the mid-1700s to the early 1800s, indigenous education thrived in India. European powers and the British crown did not create education in India. Instead, it has existed since the Vedic period, although the education system differed from then to now. F. W. Thomas's work "*History and the Prospect of British Education in India (1981)*" states that an unbroken succession of teachers and academics fostered a love for study, exerting a lasting and powerful influence. This tradition spanned from the simple poets of the Vedic age to the present-day Bengali philosophers.

However, during the Vedic age, education primarily focused on higher learning and was conveyed through Sanskrit, Arabic, and Persian. The curriculum centred around literature, philosophy, and religion. Brahmins held a monopoly over education among Hindus, gathering students from all corners of the country in gurukul-like environments in their Ashrams (Tols or Chatuspathis). Teachers provided full boarding and lodging to students without charging fees. The course was rigorous, extensive, and demanding, lasting from fifteen to twenty years in

places like Mithila, Banaras, and other centres, which Brahmins maintained with the patronage of rulers.

For Muslims, these learning centres were referred to as 'Madrasas,' which were smaller than Hindu seats of learning. Madrasas primarily imparted law, scriptures, literature, grammar, logic, rhetoric, natural philosophy, and arithmetic knowledge. The duration of study in Madrasas ranged from ten to twelve years. An exciting aspect of Gurukuls and Madrasas was that they did not cater to elementary education but focused on higher learning. In the Hindu system, 'Patsalas' facilitated elementary education, while in the Islamic system, 'Maktabas' fulfilled this role, with teachers known as Gurus and Maulvis, respectively. Children from elite or aristocratic families did not attend these Patsalas and Maktabas.

Girl education remained confined to indoor settings, and most Indians were unwilling to enrol their daughters in the school system. Education for underprivileged groups in India was challenging, as they faced social, economic, and educational deprivation during this dark age. The discovery of a new sea route to India from the European countries has changed the entire scenario of the education system of India. In the 16th century, the European powers entered the Indian subcontinent. Initially, they were least bothered about Indian internal affairs, such as education, religion and other social practices. However, gradually, the traders turned into the country's rulers, and the British crown extended its administration wings through its East India Company. Therefore, they found it vital to impart their education system to disseminate the education system and disseminate the gospel across the country.

As a part of their service to East India, company officials spent most of their lifetime in India and added new structures to the Indian education system; Warren Hastings was the first among them. He was the governor-general of the Bengal province in 1772 and loved the Indo-Persian education culture and encouraged the works held for developing the Indo-Persian culture of education. Furthermore, he established the Calcutta Madrassa, intending to prepare the sons of Muslim nobility for prestigious and lucrative positions within the state despite the predominantly Hindu dominance of that era. Hastings independently acquired the land, constructed a madrassa on it, and instructed the court of directorates to endow the institutions by paying rent to one or more nearby villages to fund the madrassa.

After Hastings, William Johns, a scholar in the Persian language, established "*The Aesthetic Society*" of Bengal on 15th January, aimed at discovering, editing, translating, and publishing rare manuscripts.

Later, in 1792, Lord Cornwallis, the governor-general of Bengal, permitted Jonathan Deccan to construct a Sanskrit college in Banaras, where they preserved Hindu scriptures and literature. This college also provides stipends to its students. In 1765, Governor-General Wellesley established Fort William College as a training school for East India Company personnel, where instructors taught them Persian and Sanskrit. Oriental experts or Indian pandits were selected to teach these classes. The East India Company initiated a policy towards educational reform by establishing the Asiatic Society at the college, a step that marked the beginning of an educational revolution in the following centuries.

3.4.1 Charter Act of 1813

Until the enactment of this Act, the East India Company and its officials had been promoting oriental education. However, during his stay in India from 1767 to 1786, 'Charles Grant' observed Indian society and its practices, including the Sati, Caste System and other social ills. He noticed that the Brahmins maintained a monopoly over the education system, leading to a hierarchical structure and societal degradation. Grant believed that introducing Christianity to the masses, particularly the underprivileged classes, could alleviate their suffering and eradicate societal evils. Additionally, he suggested spreading education through the English medium four decades before Macaulay's famous minute.

Despite Grant's suggestions, the crown hesitated to act, aiming to maintain harmony by avoiding introducing Christianity or English education. However, when the East India Company extended powers on July 21, 1813, the authorities granted a board of control the power to license missionaries, and the Act considered promoting education among Indians. This clause allowed Christian Missionaries to enter India to propagate their faith and introduce Western education.

Initially, they spread this education among princes, employees, and members of the native government. Consequently, one of the British administration's responsibilities in India was to disseminate primarily Western education among the Indian populace. On September 6, 1813, the court of directors notified all governors-general about these provisions, but they did not provide clear implementation instructions until June 3, 1814. Clause 43 of the Charter Act of 1813 aimed at encouraging learned native Indians, revitalising literature, and fostering scientific knowledge among the disadvantaged. However, the directors made limited efforts to promote Western education.

The East India Company engaged in various conflicts with Nepal and the Marathas during this time. A pact concluded the war with Nepal, ending prolonged hostilities by 1821. On July 17,

1823, the corporation allocated funds for education for the first time. Holt Mackenzie, a secretary for the territorial department, recommended English as the preferred language of instruction in India, along with establishing a general committee for public instruction, which the governor-general council endorsed.

Due to past experiences of intervening against religious prejudices of Indians, the committee was cautious about taking steps that could disrupt the administration. There was also confusion about the type of education system or policy to adopt. Additionally, the committee faced substantial resistance from Indian natives. Conversely, some members of the General Committee for Public Instruction, inspired by 'Utilitarian' ideas from James Mills and Jeremy Bentham, opposed promoting oriental education. Orientalists lost further support during the company's renewal in 1833. Consequently, on June 8, 1834, Lord Macauley was appointed as a law member of the council of the Governor-General of India.

3.4.2 Mountstuart Elphinstone's Minutes of 1823

Mountstuart Elphinstone was a diploma and administrator and served as the Leutinet Governor of Bombay from 1819 A.D to 1827 A.D. Elphinstone, during his tenure in India, rightly understood the Indian Society as the society is "*Social Institutions and moral values were deeply rooted in the society*", and he believed that overnight changes could not happen in this society. So, he wanted to have the faith of the Indian society in the existence of the British administration on Indian soil. Thus, he wanted to educate the natives about revenue work, as the appointment of Englishmen for clerical jobs was difficult. Another reason behind this thought was that he knew that Indian labour would be cheaper than the English and would help remove the prejudice about the British among the Indian Masses. In a report submitted to the Commissioner of Deccan in 1819, he stated, "*There is no way to increase the morals in the people, except by Improving their education.*" (Verma, S. 1970) The central concern of his report was education for all. The report made significant recommendations, suggesting the appointment of district examiners, school supervisors, and other supervisors to ensure the reach of education to the Indian masses. It also proposed conducting regular training courses for teachers. Finally, it requested the government to keep aside some of the amounts for developing educational institutions in India. The University Grants Commission felt that Elphinstone's report (1823) recommendations are the basis for the current higher education system as it emphasises the need for establishing English and European science schools.

3.4.3 Macauley's Minute

Lord William Bentinck, the then Governor-General of India, appointed Macauley to the general committee of public instruction as a member of the law. He opposed the teaching of Oriental languages and the continuation of Oriental learning. He proposed that since they were useless, they should be closed. He believed that *"it was the job of England to educate Indians what is beneficial for their health, not what was appealing to their taste"* in response to Indian people's prejudices against English education. He wanted education to be more Anglicised.

Macauley asked that Bentinck's government refrain from spending much money on maintaining educational institutions in Asia. Apart from Delhi and Benares, the main centres of Eastern learning, the authorities decided to halt the publication of oriental books, demolish oriental colleges, and discontinue stipends. On 7 March 1833, Bentinck transferred his authority to Macauley, who authorized the construction of a medical college in Calcutta to teach medicine and surgery in English. This decision also paved the way for English to become a potent instrument in British India, establishing an efficient and effective government nationwide. For the first time, they have allowed the underprivileged access to education irrespective of their religion. The grant was increased from one lakh to ten lakhs annually, regardless of place of birth, race, or caste.

3.4.4 Auckland's Minute (1839)

In contrast to William Bentinck, Lord Auckland holds different opinions. On November 24, 1839, he shared his opinions for one minute. He noted that Indians were unwilling to give up their educational system, whereas following Macauley's Minute, orientalists stood up to Bentinck and stoked the flames of a civil war to receive their fair portion of government funding. Despite Auckland's desire to implement English education equal to that of Macauley and Bentinck, when he saw that Orientalists opposed it, he paved a middle ground that calmed their anger and reduced their fear.

He reinstated the previous subsidies made to orientalists before 1835 and gave funding for those institutions priority over English-language training. For one-fourth of the students playing the part of the students at the oriental institutions, he also substituted a scholarship for the stipend. In order to print priceless works in ancient languages like Arabic, Persian, and Sanskrit, he raised the necessary cash. He is adamant that promoting European sciences and literature is the only way to improve people's moral and intellectual standing. He promoted doing so by translating English literature into regional tongues. He emphasised to the Indians that they needed to acquire English to work in administrative capacities.

He struggled to incorporate the study of topics like morality, law, and governance. He advocates connecting the Zilla schools and colleges so that a student's inability to continue their education due to financial constraints will not be an impediment. He also suggested that the Hindu college continue using its current scholarship programme. So, a student can stay there for a more extended amount of time. The court directors gave their approval to Auckland's scheme in January 1841. Due to the previous Bentick administration's gross underestimation of the challenges facing English education and disregard for the claims of vernaculars, the minute became critical. The government finally realised that studying alongside the vernacular languages was necessary in order to educate the Indians because it was impossible to do it solely via the use of English. Because of these factors, Lord Auckland, with some modifications, established an objective and comprehensive educational strategy, making him the first governor-general to do so.

3.5 Higher Education during the Colonial Period

The education system followed in India today is rooted in the influence of European powers at the outset of the nineteenth century and the Renaissance period marked the entry of foreign powers onto Indian soil, starting with the Portuguese, followed by the Dutch, the French, and ultimately the British, who established their respective administrative footholds across the country. While various European powers held sway, the British solidified their administrative authority over India, evolving from rulers to the emperors of modern India by 1815. These developments piloted significant policy changes that paved the way for substantial advancements in higher education in India.

3.5.1 Woods Dispatch (1854)

During the renewal of the East India Company's (EIC) charter in 1853, an evaluation of education in India took place. The findings from this assessment led to the recognition of the necessity to promote education for Indian students. They formalised these observations and recommendations into an educational charter widely recognised as the Woods Dispatch of 1854, a cornerstone of great significance in the history of the Indian education system. For the first time, the EIC was designated with the sole responsibility of educating the Indian populace, underscoring the importance of this matter.

The dispatch articulated the objective of spreading European Arts, Science, Philosophy, and Literature in English while promoting Indian languages. This dual focus was of primary concern. They recommended establishing public services and departments of public instruction

in Bombay, Madras, Bengal, Punjab, and the North-Western provinces. Furthermore, the proposal included the establishment of universities with well-defined organisational frameworks. The dispatch highlighted the need for a comprehensive educational network encompassing elementary schools, high schools, intermediate levels, and university Education. The introduction of the Woods Dispatch holds immense historical significance. Its implementation prompted a remarkable surge in the establishment of educational institutions and fostered a culture of schooling for all.

3.5.2 Hunter Commission (1882-83)

The Viceroy Lord Rippon appointed the Hunter Commission, headed by Sir William Wilson Hunter, and the commission submitted its report in 1882. The commission was appointed to analyse the implementation of recommendations and suggestions of the Woods Dispatch in India and to understand the status of primary education in India. It also aimed to identify the hurdles to the enlargement of Secondary and higher education in the post-East India Company situation by enquiring into the most appropriate agency for expanding secondary education. During their study, the commission observed that secondary education between 1854 and 1882 had seen remarkable progress, and there was considerable negligence in the propagation of vernacular education, especially after 1862 when the school students had answers in the English language. There was not much scope for Vocational education except in the province of Bombay. School teachers remained untrained and observed a considerable shortage. In this scenario, the Hunter Commission proposed the following recommendations,

- To address which agency should oversee the expansion of secondary education, the Hunter Commission suggested that municipal management and district boards should be entrusted with elementary education schools. Concerning secondary education, the commission recommended gradually transferring schools to private enterprises through the Grant-in-Aid system. However, the commission considered government oversight essential to ensure education standards. Furthermore, the commission recommended providing grants-in-aid for indigenous schools.
- It emphasises the role of physical and moral education, especially at grant-in-aid educational institutions.
- It is encouraged more and more liberal grants for girls in Grant-in-aid education.
- It encourages the vernacular languages as the medium of instruction.

- It felt that Muslim education in India is at an alarming stage. So, it recommends that there should be special attention to educating Muslims in India.
- Finally, it opined that there is a need to educate the teachers as there was a huge scarcity of teachers with the growing demand for education.

3.5.3 Educational Policy Development Under Lord Curzon - Shimla Education Conference (1901) and Universities Commission (1902)

Lord Curzon, a staunch imperialist and autocrat, took significant actions to reshape the structure of educational policies in India. He believed that Indian universities lacked proper structure and processes and had become outdated. In response, he convened an educational conference in 1901 in Shimla and established the Indian Universities Commission in 1902. These initiatives brought about significant changes to the university education system. Lord Curzon formulated approximately 150 recommendations, subsequently integrated into the Indian Universities Act (1904). The commission's noteworthy recommendations encompassed: Recognising the plight of primary education, the commission highlighted the issue of limited funding allocation. Consequently, they recommended increased funds for municipalities and local governments. They have arranged financial support for students from families facing poverty, illness, and famine. The commission terminated the 'payment by result' system introduced by the Hunter Commission in 1882. Additionally, the commission recommended efforts to improve teachers' status, including expanding training institutions and stipulating a minimum training duration of two years. The commission also pinpointed a notable wage disparity among teachers, especially at the primary level, and consequently advocated for equalising pay scales and implementing increments.

Moreover, the commission proposed the transformation of existing and new universities into teaching institutions. It advised expanding the universities' autonomy in appointments, training, and curriculum development. Further recommendations included reducing the number of syndicate members to nine, possibly allowing up to fifteen members in exceptional cases, all of whom will undergo election through the electoral process. The commission advised delineating territorial boundaries for universities and concurrently diminishing the count of senators. The maximum duration of their tenure was limited to five years. Finally, the commission proposed ensuring sufficient representation for teachers, college, and university officials within the Senate.

3.5.4 The Indian University Act (1904)

The Indian University Act (1904) primarily incorporated the recommendations of the Indian Universities Commission (1902). The Act introduced significant changes, including a reduction in the size of the Senate. The number of fellows was lowered from 100 to 60, with their tenure limited to five years. Among the older universities, Bombay, Calcutta, and Madras, the syndicate was to comprise 20 members each, while other institutions would have 15 members. The Governor General-in-council defined the territorial boundaries of each university. The expansion of university functions included granting them the authority to appoint teaching staff, equip laboratories and libraries, and arrange student hostel accommodations.

The Indian University Act (1904) was crucial in advancing higher education institutions. It facilitated essential financial support for infrastructure improvement and the learning environment, equitably distributing approximately 13.5 lakhs among the provinces' universities. Furthermore, the Act led to a quantitative rise in affiliated colleges.

3.5.5 National Council of Education (1906)

In 1906, the authorities established the National Council of Education (NCE) in response to the controversies generated by implementing the Indian Universities Act of 1904. According to the nationalists, the British government nominated the senate members full of British men, and many private colleges were de-affiliated, denationalising the education system. They also opined that the current education system utterly neglected the national interest, and there is colossal negligence over the vernacular teaching and the native teachers. It was also the situation of rebelling against the British government after the partition of Bengal in 1905. The entire nationalist called for the Swadeshi movement by boycotting foreign goods, including their education system. A council comprising 92 members, each with a five-year term, was established. This council convened a meeting in 1906, presided over by Ashutosh Chowdary. During this meeting, they inaugurated Bengal National College and established Bengal National School within the same year. The objective of the National Council of Education was to provide general, technical, and scientific education following national guidelines, exclusively under national administration, and utilising the vernacular medium. Consequently, the National Council of Education (1906) influenced the Indian education system until 1917.

3.5.6 Resolutions on Education Policy (1913)

In 1913, the education system experienced significant changes with the declaration of educational policy passed through a resolution. By that time, the progressive state of Baroda had introduced compulsory primary education throughout its territory. Inspired by this development, Gopala Krishna Gokhale, the moderate leader of the Congress party of India, proposed a bill to make elementary education free and compulsory for children between 6 and 10 years. The British government rejected Gopala Krishna Gokhale's proposed free and compulsory education bill. However, it accepted the policy to eradicate illiteracy by educating the poor and backward castes and urged the provincial governments to tackle these problems. The resolution also included the overall development of higher education and decided to establish a university in each province.

3.5.7 Saddler Commission (1917)

The government of India appointed the Saddler Commission in 1917, commonly known as the Calcutta University Commission (CUC). The government selected Dr. Michal Saddler as the chairman, and they tasked the commission with investigating the status and prospects of Calcutta University. The commission's significant recommendations included:

- It proposed dividing higher education at the intermediate level instead of the matriculation level.
- It suggested the establishment of secondary education and intermediate education boards to oversee the school and intermediate education, including conducting examinations.
- It Recommended transforming Calcutta University into a teaching university by consolidating teaching resources and establishing a new teaching and residential university in Decca.
- It advocated for creating the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE).
- It Proposed an extension of the duration of undergraduate colleges from one year to three years.
- It Advances the idea that universities should establish a Department of Education to provide learning education at the undergraduate level.
- It also emphasised the university system's independence, free from excessive government and administrative control.

The Saddler Commission's recommendations offered a fresh perspective on the university system and steered the university education system toward a developmental trajectory. These recommendations led to the establishment of numerous colleges aligned with this approach.

3.5.8 Hartog Committee (1929)

At a time when national political groups were intensifying efforts to establish a country-specific educational system, the British government's response through the Government of India Act (*Montego Chelmsford*) of 1919 fell short of Indian expectations. Consequently, the British government appointed a commission led by Sir John Simon to address these concerns. Under the leadership of Sir Philip Hartog, the Simon Commission established an auxiliary committee responsible for investigating India's educational system and proposing potential changes to primary, secondary, higher education, and university instruction.

The committee primarily focused on assessing the outcomes of Indian educational institutions. Their investigation revealed that the proliferation of educational institutions in India had led to a decline in the quality of instruction and learning. They also highlighted a stagnation of standards and substantial wastage of resources. The committee recommended implementing comprehensive policy approaches to address these issues of wastage and stagnation, particularly within the primary school system. Furthermore, the committee voiced concern over the indiscriminate admission practices in secondary and higher education at the university level, as such practices were diminishing the overall educational standards. They suggested introducing a diverse curriculum at the matriculation level. In their waning years of governance in India, the British government utilised the committee's recommendations to aid in establishing and structuring educational policies.

3.5.9 Abbot-Wood Report (1937)

In 1935, the British government enacted the Government of India Act, which categorised educational activities into Federal and State jurisdiction. In 1937, the Indian government established a committee led by S.H. Abbot, a former chief inspector of technical schools for the English Board of Education, and A. Wood, the board's director of intelligence, to provide recommendations on the necessity of vocational education across primary, secondary, and higher secondary schools.

The committee asserted that general and vocational education are not distinct branches, emphasising that vocational education students should receive sufficient general education. Consequently, they recommended employing women teachers at primary and pre-primary

levels to deliver general education and equip children with proper training through designated institutions. The committee also proposed incorporating a middle school curriculum on environmental and moral subjects. Attention to children's physical development was strongly advised, with provisions for playgrounds and various physical exercise options. Additionally, the committee suggested the inclusion of Fine Arts within the general education curriculum for children.

3.5.10 Wardha Scheme of Education (1937)

In 1937, seven significant provinces of India saw the establishment of a newly formed government, which prioritised addressing the prevailing issues in educational standards. During the same year, M.K. Gandhi chaired an All-India National Education Conference that extensively deliberated on the mode and medium of the education system and put forth various resolutions. These resolutions led to the appointment of a committee chaired by Dr. Zakir Hussain, which submitted its report in 1938. The Scheme's notable aspects, discussed and outlined in the report, encompassed:

- We are introducing free and compulsory education for individuals aged 6 to 14, including co-education up to the Fifth standard.
- Designating the mother tongue as the medium of instruction.
- Formulating teaching strategies to accommodate costs and expenses.

The Haripura session of the Indian National Congress in 1938 embraced all of the points proposed by the Scheme of National Education.

3.5.11 Sargent Report (1944)

In 1939, the onset of World War - II shifted the British focus in India towards the conflict, leading to the resignation of Congress members in numerous provinces. This period saw a significant policy development vacuum, particularly in education. It was due to the absence of popular ministries, the Indian political scene's dominance over the British, and the government's preoccupation with the war effort. Recognising the need for post-war educational development, the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) initiated a study in 1944 to assess the situation. The Government of India appointed Sir John Sargent as an educational counsellor. This document, known as the Scheme of Post-War Development in India, the

Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) report, or the Sargent Plan, is considered the first comprehensive national education program. (James, 1955)

The scheme proposed significant recommendations, including:

- Establishing free and compulsory primary or basic education for children aged 6 to 14.
- Enhancing the teaching standards, training, and recruitment conditions.
- Appointing an Attendance officer to enforce compulsory attendance.
- Provision of secondary education exclusively for selected students aged 11 to 17.
- Division of higher education schools into Academic High Schools and Technical High Schools.
- Promoting occupational and professional courses to benefit students transitioning from school.

3.5.12 Sarkar Committee (1945)

In 1945, the British government constituted a committee with Nalini Ranjan Sarkar as its chairman, along with 22 other members. The committee was responsible for formulating optimal approaches to enhance technical education in India. 1946, the committee submitted its report, endorsing establishing four strategically located ‘Higher Education Institutions (HITs)’ across India. Furthermore, it recommended substantial funding for these HITs to facilitate the development of a premier technical education system. The newly established independent congress government endorsed the committee’s recommendations, leading to the foundation of India’s first Indian Institute of Technology (IIT) in Kharagpur in 1950.

3.6 Higher Education in The Post-Colonial Period (till the 1990s)

The newly formed government, led by then Prime Minister Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, faced significant challenges in adopting a new national framework for the country following India’s independence. Gosh S. C. (2013) noted that India’s independence represented not only a division of its physical entity but also a division of its essence, including its educational aspects. Both Western and Indian educational components transformed. Given the considerable diversity in size, significance, and status of the more than five hundred states at the time of independence, the need for a standardised education strategy became paramount.

Furthermore, education within Indian states was contingent upon the desires and moods of the Indian princes. Thus, a comprehensive structural overhaul of the education system was necessary for the nation. Jawaharlal Nehru emphasised that the prevailing system must not

persist and that conferences held to plan India's education tended to perpetuate the existing framework with minor modifications. Given the significant changes the country had undergone, the educational system needed to reflect these developments, leading to a revolutionary transformation of its fundamental principles. However, fulfilling this commitment was challenging due to the partition of Pakistan and the necessity of aiding refugees from East and West Pakistan.

Eventually, the integration of princely states into the Indian Union was achieved, along with the integration of bureaucracy and the military. To navigate these circumstances, India had to establish itself as a republic and adopt its constitution. Amidst these trials, the government embarked on efforts to recommend changes to the education system in India and appointed the first major initiative for education in independent India.

3.6.1 University Education Commission or Radhakrishnan Commission (1948)

Dr. S. Radhakrishnan chaired a commission on university education established in 1948 to provide recommendations for redesigning higher education and addressing the increasing demand for scientific, technical, and other human resources crucial for the comprehensive development of the newly independent nation. The commission submitted its final report in 1949. In the same year, India adopted a constitution drafted by Dr. B. R. Ambedkar and approved by the constituent assembly on 26 January, and the nation declared itself a republic the following year. In the same year, a planning commission was established in India to formulate five-year plans encompassing all development aspects, including education. The Radhakrishnan Commission put forth the following recommendations:

- Emphasise rectifying '*Extreme Specialisation*' in courses and adopt the 10+2 structure at the pre-university level.
- Establish research for expanding understanding and professional training in various fields, such as agriculture, commerce, law, medicine, education, science, technology, and emerging areas like business and public administration.
- Implement an examination system and year-round assessment of students.
- Introduce religion and philosophy courses into the curriculum.
- Enhance student welfare through financial aid, scholarships, stipends, hostels, libraries, and medical facilities.
- Gradually replace Regional, Federal, and English at the university level with Indian languages to support the '*Three Language Study*.'

- Establish '*Rural Universities*' to cater to industry and agriculture needs.
- Grant institutions independent standing.
- Create the '*Central Grants Commission*' for fund allocation.
- Suggest placing education on the Concurrent List.

These recommendations significantly shaped a robust education policy for India, with the then-Indian government adopting many of them. However, the Indian constitution assigned education as a state subject and allocated educational responsibilities between the union and states. The first five-year plan allocated approximately 153 crore rupees, accounting for 7.8 percent of the total plan outlay. The Radhakrishnan Commission's recommendations laid a positive foundation for the significant development of education in the days to come.

3.6.2 Secondary Education Commission or A L Mudaliar Commission (1952)

The Indian government, prompted by the significant recommendations of the Radhakrishnan Commission (1948), considered the reorganisation of secondary education as an essential step towards advancing university education. Thus, in 1952, it appointed the Secondary Education Commission (SEC) under the leadership of Dr. A. L. Mudaliar. The commission finalised its report in 1953. Similar to the Radhakrishnan Commission, this body also focused extensively on higher education and the interests of the elites. (Bacche, 2022)

The commission primarily concentrated on addressing the needs of skilled yet unemployed youth of the nation. It advocated allocating substantial funds to curb the uncontrolled and unplanned expansion that was deteriorating educational standards and exacerbating the issue of unemployment. Additionally, the commission recommended reducing the duration of courses from 12 to 11 years. It proposed transferring the authority over secondary school leaving examinations from universities to a specially constituted board of secondary education. Furthermore, the commission endorsed establishing multi-purpose schools offering comprehensive courses in technology, fine arts, agriculture, and home sciences as part of upper secondary education. Unfortunately, the said commission's recommendations impacted India's general education system and higher education remained limited. Nevertheless, the Indian government persisted in its determination to revitalise the educational framework and explored all available avenues.

3.6.3 Srimali Committee (1954)

The Ministry of Education, Government of India, appointed a committee in October 1954, famously known as the ‘Committee on Higher Education for Rural Areas’. Dr. K. L. Srimali served as its chairman. The committee’s primary purpose was to propose comprehensive and promising concepts for higher education institutions in rural areas. It was also responsible for recommending potential models for rural universities, delineating their objectives, organisational structure, and relationship with secondary education and addressing other related challenges associated with establishing such institutions. The committee recognised that the fundamental aims and objectives of higher education in rural areas were not fundamentally distinct from those in urban settings, leading to the formulation of several crucial recommendations:

- Establish rural institutions to bridge the gap between rural and urban populations, dismantling economic and geographical barriers and fostering collaboration between the humanities and technology.
- Incorporate significant elements like economics, health hygiene, education, sociology, and culture into these institutions’ curriculum and extension activities.
- Deliver instruction primarily in regional languages, Hindi and English.
- Facilitate measures to utilise students’ leisure time for their development or community service.
- Introduce short residential courses to benefit a wider rural population.
- Lastly, propose the establishment of Lok Vidyapeeth in each district of India.

With these recommendations, the committee introduced novel perspectives for educational policymakers to consider in promoting the rural development of the Indian economy.

3.6.4 Education (D S Kothari) Commission (1964-66)

The Kothari Commission differed in its international composition from the earlier Radhakrishna and Mudaliar commissions. The commission included five members from diverse countries: the United States of America (USA), the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), France, Japan, and the United Kingdom, out of its fifteen members. Additionally, twenty international consultants were engaged. In 1964, M.C. Chagla, the Union Minister, appointed the education commission under the chairmanship of D.S. Kothari to provide the government with general principles and policies for all stages of education. This commission

aimed for a revolution in education and presented its extensive report in 1966, envisioning a much-needed social, economic, and cultural transformation in the national education system. Although advocating for a revolution, the recommendations of the Kothari Commission were firmly grounded in realism. It emphasised elementary education and measures to enhance education quality and stressed the importance of achieving universal elementary education. The commission introduced concepts like multiple entry and education beyond formal institutions through part-time courses and self-study, embodying a blend of idealism and pragmatism.

Regarding language policy, the Kothari Commission ardently advocated for regional languages to serve as the medium of instruction at all education stages. However, this policy faced challenges due to anti-Hindi sentiments in Tamil Nadu after the commission's formation. The commission suggested a single medium of instruction at the university level across the country, initially English and eventually Hindi. It identified issues with the three-language formula adopted in 1961, such as opposition to a heavy academic load in school curricula. To address this, the commission revised the formula, staggering language introductions to reduce the academic burden and implementation costs. The commission recommended offering Sanskrit as an optional subject from the eighth grade but did not endorse establishing Sanskrit Universities.

The commission also focused on teacher service conditions, university governance, student welfare services, and the reorganisation of the University Grants Commission. Its significant recommendations for higher education development suggested a selective admission policy, aligning total higher education enrollments with workforce requirements. The commission proposed linking the economy's human resource needs with higher education access. It also recommended determining the intake of each higher education institution based on available facilities. The commission proposed establishing six new universities, IITs, and agricultural universities and transforming them into world-class institutions.

For the first time, the commission suggested that public education spending should be at least six percent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The commission concluded its report in 1966, marked by significant political transitions and challenges in India. The transition from Jawaharlal Nehru to Lal Bahadur Shastri and later to Mrs Indira Gandhi, coupled with factors like Congress' defeat in the 1967 general elections, inflation in 1964, unexpected droughts, and a war with Pakistan, had a profound impact on the reception of the Kothari Commission's recommendations during the consultation process. Ultimately, the commission failed to fully appreciate the dynamic role of expanding higher education.

3.6.5 National Policy on Education (1968)

The National Policy on Education (1968) emerged as the inaugural initiative for establishing a policy framework based on the recommendations of the Kothari Committee. The nation implemented this policy during a significant political and economic crisis. While derived from the Kothari Commission's report, the national policy failed to effectively act upon its significant recommendations. Among the commission's notable suggestions, adopting the 10+2+3 pattern in the education system and initiating universal elementary education nationwide were implemented. However, the NPE 1968 deviated from its operational aspects and neglected to define a clear timeframe for achieving Universal Elementary education.

A protracted debate surrounded the appropriate placement of intermediate education within the policy. Instead of endorsing the establishment of significant universities as recommended, the policy proposed elevating university departments meeting specified criteria to advanced study centres and clusters. These centres would eventually achieve the highest research and training standards in selected disciplines.

Regarding financial mechanisms for education, the 1968 national policy did not provide specific details, opting to gloss over the Kothari Commission's recommendations. While stressing the adoption of the three-language formula, which promoted the study of a modern Indian language apart from Hindi and English, the policy rejected the notion of a modern foreign language as the third language. The issue of language instruction in higher secondary and university education remained unaddressed.

The NPE (1968) advocated for increasing education spending to six percent of the national income, yet it failed to implement significant policy implications. Overall, the NPE 1968 emerged as a document replete with general statements and calls to action, yet it struggled to implement its policy recommendations effectively. This policy's shortcomings stemmed from its lack of a comprehensive long-term perspective on educational development, which is necessary to engage all stakeholders in building a robust national education system.

3.6.6 National Policy on Higher Education (1986)

The assassination of Mrs Indira Gandhi on the last day of October 1984 and her succession by Mr Rajiv Gandhi in 1985 generated more hope and optimism in policy-making, particularly in education, compared to the previous administration. As announced in the national broadcast on 5 January 1985, Mr Gandhi reaffirmed the intention to develop a new education policy. The government established anodal ministries to oversee various aspects of development. Upon assuming office, he initiated a thorough evaluation of the ministries' existing policies, strategic

objectives, and structures. In his first press conference, he expressed the desire for his government to be known for its swift action.

Pursuing this goal, his administration worked diligently and achieved significant progress in the education sector, particularly in higher education. Initially, he directed his administration to draft a new policy within a month, although this proved impractical due to the need for consensus among the states, as education was not solely a central subject. During this period, the administration prioritised certain developments that did not necessitate extensive consultations with the states. Notably, the establishment of Navodaya Vidyalayas, initially called '*Model schools*', marked a significant step. These residential schools adopted a modern educational curriculum based on the NCERT syllabus, catering to students from the Sixth to Twelfth standards. These schools also promoted integration by reserving twenty percent of seats for students from outside the state.

Another significant development was the creation of the Ministry of Human Resources Development (MHRD), with P. V. Narasimha Rao appointed as its first Minister. The government also passed the Act to establish IGNOU in September 1985, with G. Rami Reddy, Vice-Chancellor of Andhra Pradesh State Open University, becoming the first Vice-Chancellor of IGNOU.

The formulation of the new education policy in 1986 was notably faster than the earlier policy in 1968. To expedite the process, the Rajiv Gandhi government initiated government-citizen interactions through a program called '*Janvani*' (Voice of the People) aired on Doordarshan, starting in February 1985. Various experts engaged in discussions and provided feedback, meticulously analysed by the National Institute of Education and Planning (NIEPA) and published as a document titled "*The Challenges of Education*". This compilation of consultations and responses served as a foundation for policy-making.

The New Policy on Education, eventually adopted by Parliament in 1986, was a culmination of these efforts, drawing on insights from previous committees and commissions. The policy outlined critical initiatives aimed at developing higher education. It emphasised equal access to education for all citizens and stressed merit-based appointments, particularly for teachers. The policy highlighted the urgent need for higher education development and proposed redesigning courses to meet specialised demands. The policy suggested implementing state-level planning and coordination of higher education through higher education councils. Additionally, the policy proposed the establishment of a national body to oversee higher education across various fields, aiming to enhance coordination and cooperation (Varghese, 2015).

3.6.7 National Policy on Higher Education (revised) (1992)

The union government appointed a committee in 1990 to review the National Policy on Education (NPE), 1986 (NCPRC), under the chairmanship of Acharya Ramamurthy. The committee submitted its report on December 26, 1991, and both houses of parliament discussed it in January 1991. Later, in March 1991, CABE held a meeting and appointed a committee under the leadership of N. Janaradhana Reddy, the then Chief Minister and minister of education, to review the implementation of the National Education Policy (NEP). Considering the recommendation of the Ramamurthy Committee and relying on the Janaradhana Committee Report, the NPE 1986 underwent a few modifications, and the parliament discussed the revised documents in May 1992. It is the National Programme of Action (NPA) of 1992. The committee proposed significant changes in the government's approach toward primary and higher education. It suggests the standard schooling system to compensate for the educational discrimination of marginalised children and establish the Navodaya Schools in all the state districts.

Regarding higher education, the committee stressed the importance of higher education, and it suggested establishing autonomous colleges and other institutions under the directives of UGC. An All-India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) appointment, Open and Distance Learning (ODL) was encouraged to promote accessibility and participation in higher education. A central open university, The Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU), coordinates learning at a distance. It also suggested the establishment of rural universities and institutions to promote the Gandhian thought of primary education (Shin & Teixeira, 2018).

3.6.8 Nayudamma Committee (1986)

The Government of India appointed a committee chaired by Dr. Y. Nayudamma, the chairman of The Centre for Development Alternatives, Madras, to review the functioning of the five IITs: Kharagpur, Bombay, Madras, Kanpur, and Delhi. Before this, separate committees had been formed for each IIT, but this committee represented the first comprehensive effort to oversee all five IITs. The committee presented several significant recommendations, which included:

- Regularly reviewing Undergraduate and Postgraduate courses and modifying them to align with the country's evolving needs in science and technology.
- Granting increased autonomy to departments and allowing them to manage themselves through their respective management committees.

- Maintaining a 1:1 ratio between student enrollment in Undergraduate and Postgraduate courses.
- Introducing curriculum flexibility for B.Tech. Level Programs.
- Additionally, the committee suggested that instead of creating new IITs, the government should provide financial backing to existing Regional Engineering Colleges (NITs) and elevate them to the status of IITs. (Saha & Ghosh, 2012)

3.7 Developments of Higher Education during the Globalisation Period.

The invention of Fire and the Wheel has transformed human behaviour. Regarding mechanisms and reforms, the 'Globalisation' process has also acted as the primary turning point for driving evolution and changes in world nations' socioeconomic and political ties. The term globalisation originated in the second half of the twentieth century. Many authors provided definitions for the term globalisation. Nobel laureate Joseph Stiglitz defines globalisation as *“The reduction of obstacles to free commerce and the closer integration of national economies.”*

Dr. C. Rangarajan, another notable figure in Indian economics, characterises globalisation as integrating economies and societies through the cross-country flow of information, ideas, technology, goods, services, capital, finance, and people. An intriguing perspective comes from Robert J. Samuelson in the International Herald Tribune, stating that *“globalisation is a double-edged sword; a powerful vehicle that fosters economic growth and increases living standards in both rich and poor countries, but it is also an immensely controversial process that challenges national sovereignty, erodes local culture and tradition, and jeopardizes economic and social stability.”* These three statements collectively illustrate that globalisation is a process that impacts socio-economic, cultural, and political facets.

3.7.1 Interdependence of Globalisation, Liberalisation and Privatisation

Globalisation encompasses the social and economic spheres of life. However, initiating it cannot be accomplished all at once. Its initiation depends on the prerequisites of liberalisation and privatisation. Liberalisation entails states or nations restructuring and regulating their policies to establish a free market system within their respective economies. This process can yield significant outcomes in trade, commerce, and rural and urban development programs while relieving the government's budget burden and enhancing organisational efficiency. Liberalisation clears the path for privatisation, wherein private entities assume an equivalent

role to the government in various aspects. This situation becomes evident in numerous socioeconomically developing countries across the globe.

In India, the era of globalisation saw the adoption of numerous neo-liberal policies aimed at transforming higher education. Consequently, the higher education sector underwent substantial changes in the early 1990s. The triad of liberalisation, privatisation, and globalisation was poised to drive the Indian economy forward. Post the 1990s, effects like the liberalisation of the Indian economy, privatisation of crucial public sectors, and reduced public investment became evident. This period also marked the inception of disinvestment policies within the public sector, leading to a significant increase in private sector control and commercialisation, resulting in rapid growth.

Up until the early 1980s, the Indian education system was predominantly under government control, both in general and in higher education. The government established numerous colleges and universities and assumed the accountability of overseeing institutions set up by the private sector, known as Grant-in-Aid institutions or privately aided institutions. Despite these privately aided institutions contributing significantly to the expenditure, public subsidies covered recurrent and other expenses. These subsidies came with government-imposed regulations on private institutions. During this period, increased government regulations hindered the progress and autonomy of private institutions, effectively leading to their de facto nationalisation.

Furthermore, there were fewer engineering and medical colleges in the country, with the curriculum largely confined to arts, commerce, and science. Meanwhile, the global arena pressured developing countries to consider higher education a non-public good. The World Bank's report "*Financing Higher Education in Developing Countries*" (1986) suggested shifting the burden of higher education costs on parents and promoting cost recovery. The report also advocated emulating private institutions, which charged fees sufficient to cover costs, and offering student loans to those desiring higher education.

In 1994, the World Bank continued its pressure by publishing "*Higher Education: The Lessons of Experience*", asserting that higher education should not claim the highest priority for public resources due to its lower social rate of returns than primary and secondary education. As a result, the demand for institutions to cater to the student community increased, leading to a push for privatisation in tandem with India's rapidly growing economy. Public institutions supplemented private educational institutions in meeting the artificially generated demand. Financial constraints rendered the government incapable of establishing new colleges or universities, prompting the withdrawal of responsibility for providing public higher education

to Indian students. Consequently, the government of India embraced the World Bank's higher education regulations recommendations. (SHARMA, 2007)

In 1997, the government issued a discussion paper titled "Government Subsidies in India," which aligned with the World Bank's perspective and categorised higher education as a non-merit good. The paper suggested reducing government subsidies to private institutions from 90 percent to 50 percent over three years and further to 25 percent within an additional two years. Nonetheless, this proposal encountered substantial national resistance and ultimately faced rejection.

3.7.2 Developments in Higher Education after the 1990s

Higher education underwent numerous policy changes during the 1990s and the twenty-first century's first decade. Consequently, public spending on higher education witnessed a significant decline. This period also marked increased participation from the private sector and the introduction of a new student financial loan program. (Shin & Teixeira, 2018)

An abrupt surge in demand for higher education occurred. According to Rani, P. G. (2014), funding for higher education stems from three primary sources: government, fees and other student charges, and philanthropy. Dependency on government resources for higher education stood at 49.4 percent during 1950-51, escalating to 75.9 percent by 1986-87. In contrast, fee income sources plummeted from 36.8 percent to 12.6 percent during the same period.

As the second-largest country after China, India faced numerous inquiries regarding education access and quality, particularly in higher education. Established committees recommended augmenting public expenditure on higher education. However, the growing educated population and limited government resources compelled them to explore implementing liberal policies in higher education to accommodate the rising demand for accessible and quality education. Consequently, the cost of higher education gradually shifted from being borne by the government to students and their parents through heightened fee structures.

The predominance of the private sector facilitated the establishment of several technical and professional institutions. The founders of these institutions based their establishment on two primary ideas: first, to address the educated higher and middle-class segments who had previously enjoyed free education, and second, to cater to those with the capacity to afford market-driven tuition fees. The post-globalisation era also revealed that challenging market conditions led to a surge in the net cost of higher education. This circumstance has resulted in limited access and compromised quality for a substantial portion of India's underprivileged and economically disadvantaged populations.

3.7.3 Gnanam Commission (1990)

In January 1987, the Government of India designated a committee chaired by Professor A. Gnanam, who served as the Vice-Chancellor (VC) of Bharathidasan University, Thiruchinapalli. The committee's purpose was to evaluate management patterns, encompassing the structure, roles, and responsibilities of various university bodies, and to establish criteria for evaluating the performance of educational institutions. The committee recognised the crucial role of higher education not only in shaping academic pursuits, advancing knowledge, and contributing to national development. The committee's key recommendations include:

- Universities are pivotal in formulating the National Policy on Education, with funding subject to regular review and refinement based on changing circumstances and needs.
- Involving students, teachers, administrators, and representatives of societies in formulating the goals and objectives of universities.
- Granting 'Autonomous' status to university bodies and empowering them to determine the management patterns of the university system.

The committee had given suggestions to the various stakeholders of the education system,

To the Government of India or the Central Government:

It has recommended enacting the model act to ensure the development of the university structure by making the necessary legislation.

- To review the acts of central universities for initiating necessary changes to the structure, size and growth.
- To establish the Council of Central Universities

To the State Government:

- To constitute the State Council for Higher Education to assist and coordinate the functioning of the universities.
- To review the acts of state universities to make the changes in the terminology, size and structure, governing and other bodies and modes of appointment under the recommendations of the UGC

For UGC

- Establish 4-5 regional offices to effectively implement and supervise programmes and funding procedures.

For Universities

- To notify the State Council of Higher Education and the State Governments to make necessary changes in the university system.
- To pool the endowment funds to reduce the dependency on the universities

For Colleges

- To establish a planning and evaluation team responsible for formulating the institution's goals, with periodic reviews to incorporate essential changes in the administrative structure.

3.7.4 Working group of CAGE report on Higher Education (1991)

During its 46th meeting held on 8th and 9th March 1991, the CAGE appointed this working group as one of its seven groups. Vikram Varma, the Minister of Education, Madhya Pradesh, chaired the group. The working group made significant recommendations concerning the academic calendar, quality of higher education, university finances, promotion of sports in universities and colleges, and distance education. Recognising the far-reaching importance of the Gnanam Committee's recommendations, the group proposed carefully considering these recommendations by all states. Accordingly, it recommended that state governments engage in discussions and submit the report to the UGC within three months.

The group asserted that addressing the academic calendar was paramount, as restoring it was crucial for re-establishing the credibility of the higher education system. Consequently, the group resolved that all universities adopt and implement the academic calendar prescribed by the UGC, making necessary modifications to suit local conditions without reducing the number of working days.

Regarding the quality of education, the group identified several reasons behind the decline in quality education at higher educational institutions. Primarily, colleges faced numerous problems related to quality education. As a solution, the group recommended permitting new colleges only after they meet all criteria for quality education. It also proposed that the UGC establish norms and guidelines to present before universities for approval.

University finance emerged as a significant concern for the CAGE group. The deteriorating financial situation of certain universities, which struggled to meet staff salaries, prompted the group's attention. In response, the group directed state governments and the UGC to allocate and disburse funds promptly to facilitate the smooth functioning of universities. Additionally, it recommended that universities reduce their reliance on government grants and seek independent resource generation.

Addressing the promotion of sports in universities and colleges, the group emphasised the need for adequate attention to sports and youth activities. It further recommended upgrading sports facilities in colleges and universities and taking necessary measures to enhance coaching, training, and overall infrastructure. Lastly, advocating for the open learning system, the group recommended the establishment of an open university in each state.

3.7.5 Amitabha Bhattacharya Review Committee (1991)

The government appointed the Bhattacharya Committee in 1991 to examine the problems and perspectives of the Technical Teachers' Training Institutions (TTTIs). The committee made significant recommendations, suggesting utilising allocated funds and introducing flexible and modular training programs in TTTIs. Additionally, the committee advised adopting innovative techniques in research and developmental activities to enhance the quality of technical teaching. The government reviewed and acknowledged most of these recommendations, considering them for further enhancements in technical teaching.

3.7.6 Mashlekar Committee (1996-1998)

Between 1956 and 1960, authorities established regional engineering colleges to address the anticipated surge in technical human resources across various states. On 17 June 1996, they formed a high-power committee led by Dr. Raghunath Anant Mashelkar as its chairman. The committee's mandate was to review the achievements of the Regional Engineering Colleges, evaluate the progress achieved by these institutions, and offer recommendations for their potential future roles in advancing a high standard of technical education nationwide. In 1998, the committee submitted its conclusive report titled "*Strategic Road Map for Academic Excellence of Future RECs*".

3.7.7 Ambani-Birla Committee (2000)

On April 24, 2000, Mukesh Ambani, the head of Reliance Industries and the Convenor, along with Kumarmangalam Birla, the head of Kumaramangalam Birla and a Member, jointly submitted their report titled “*A Policy Framework for Reforms in Education*” to the Prime Minister’s Council on Trade and Industry (PMCTI). The Ambani-Birla committee unequivocally endorsed the privatisation of higher education in India, particularly in the technical field. (Kulshreshtha, 2017)

The report’s comprehensive analysis firmly advocates the strict enforcement of the ‘User pay principle’ for higher education, accompanied by loan schemes and financial grants targeting economically and socially disadvantaged segments of society. The report recommends depoliticising education, suggesting that all political parties refrain from involvement in colleges and other educational institutions and prohibit political activities within university campuses.

The committee strongly supports Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), especially at advanced education levels, in the field of education. It calls for permitting foreign direct investment in education, particularly in science and technology-related disciplines. The committee strongly advocates enacting a Private University Bill to promote the establishment of new private universities in fields such as management, finance, and science.

Additionally, the report stresses the importance of market-driven education, urging educational institutions to consistently enhance their facilities and curricula to align with market demands. However, the report has garnered significant criticism due to the nature of its recommendations. It has been branded as an advocate for the initiation of commercialisation of higher education in India, as it suggests raising university fee structures, proposes allocating 25 percent of recurring deposits from internal resources, and supports the establishment of Private universities. Critics have scrutinised these recommendations for their potential to hinder the access and participation of India's marginalised and economically disadvantaged classes.

3.7.8 Prof. P.V. Indiresan Review Committee (2000)

The government of India designated a committee chaired by Prof. P.V Indiresan, a notable thinker, to identify several deficiencies in the institutes, as outlined in its report. According to the report, significant disparities exist in state and federal training policies, marked by insufficient financial and administrative autonomy, inadequate funding, faculty shortages, and decreased productivity. The committee proposed the following suggestions to maximise the utilisation of resources, expertise, and experience across the four TTIs. Additionally, the

committee considered upgrading the TTTIs from their present regional status to a national institute status as a potential advantage, aiming to enhance TTTI's performance and productivity and foster healthy competition among TTTIs. They proposed renaming the TTTIs to "National Institutes of Technical Education and Research" (NITER) to alter their focus. As a result, the TTTIs were replaced and enhanced by establishing the National Institute of Technical Teachers' Training & Research (NITTTR).

3.7.9 U. R Rao Committee (2002-2003)

To become a world-class organisation that guides the nation's technological and socioeconomic growth by boosting the technical workforce's worldwide competitiveness and ensuring that all societal segments receive high-quality technical education. Under the direction of famous scientists and former chairman of the Indian Space Research Organisation, U. R. Rao, a five-person committee was formed in 2002 to assess the performance of AICTE, and its report endorsed the goal mentioned above (ISRO). They presented their report in 2003 under the heading "*Revitalising Technical Education*" by highlighting the significant gaps in technical education, and their controversial and minor recommendations attracted much attention.

According to this report, unchecked growth has increased the number of private sector institutions, and these institutions have been neglecting other areas in favour of concentrating on a select few lucrative ones. Additionally, the committee stated that there is a poor-quality assurance framework in the accreditation process and a significant disconnect between industry and academia that contributes to the high unemployment rate among engineering students. The committee also believed that many private institutions charge exorbitant tuition rates. The U.R. Rao committee's recommendations highlighted the gap between AICTE system recognition and accreditation. (Sathyanarayana, 2017)

3.7.10 P. Rama Rao Committee (2002-2004)

On 27 June 2002, the Indian government established a committee with Dr. Rama Rao as its chairman to evaluate the collaborative operations of the Indian Institutes of Technology. This committee followed the Nayudamma Committee in 1986 and marked the second joint review committee. The committee's 2004 report included several recommendations, such as increasing the retirement age for highly qualified faculty members from 62 to 65 years old. Furthermore, the committee recommended that the IITs establish a distinct Human Resource

Unit overseeing faculty recruitment and retention. They also suggested adjusting the difficulty level and content of the entrance exam to match the aptitudes of talented students appropriately.

3.7.11 The National Knowledge Commission (2006)

The year 2006 witnessed the emergence of the National Knowledge Commission (NKC) Report as a pivotal and indispensable component of the education system. Mr. Sam Pitroda led the commission, which received a three-year mandate from 2005 to 2008. It subsequently submitted its recommendations to the then Prime Minister of India, Dr. Manmohan Singh. The report's fundamental purpose was to foster excellence in the education system and address the quality requirements and challenges of the 21st century. Its terms of reference encompassed a range of objectives, including promoting knowledge in science and technology laboratories, facilitating knowledge applications in agriculture and industry, enhancing government effectiveness, transparency, and accountability through knowledge sharing, and maximising public benefits.

Following a comprehensive assessment of various areas such as Literature, Libraries, Translation, Language, Networks, and Knowledge portals, the NKC submitted significant recommendations. The commission presented these recommendations across various areas of emphasis, including higher education.

The NKC noted that a substantial proportion of Indians lacked access to higher education, and the quality was inadequate. Following consultations with stakeholders, including parliamentarians, government officials, civil society, private partners, and industries related to higher education, the NKC arrived at the unanimous perception that higher education must be accessible to all without compromising academic standards. As a result, they recommended reforms to transform and enhance higher education by ensuring expansion, excellence, and inclusion.

I. Expansion

To facilitate expansion, the commission recommended the establishment of numerous higher educational institutions. It emphasised the necessity for extensive opportunities and institutions for higher education. Intending to achieve maximum accessibility, the commission proposed the establishment of 1500 universities nationwide, aiming to achieve a Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) of 15 percent by 2015.

Given the significant deficiencies in the existing regulatory framework, the commission suggested the creation of an Independent Regulatory Authority for Higher Education (IRAHE). It outlined the role and responsibilities of IRAHE to address these issues. (Mandal, 2018)

The commission provided various viable solutions to boost public spending and diversify funding sources. For instance, it suggested that the government allocate an additional 1.5 percent of the GDP from the overall 6 percent increase in education. Additionally, it recommended exploring alternative means to supplement public expenditure.

Recognising that many university resources, such as land and facilities, were underutilised, the commission recommended parameters to utilise these resources as a '*Source of Finance*'. Additionally, the commission recommended that universities set the fee structure, stipulating that it must account for a minimum of 20 percent of the total expenditure. The commission also endorsed the establishment of 50 National Universities, which would exemplify high educational standards for the nation. These universities, whether publicly or privately sponsored, would offer education across various disciplines, including humanities, social sciences, commerce, sciences, and professional courses. It emphasised that these national universities should be department-based and devoid of affiliated colleges.

II. Excellence

The National Knowledge Commission presented three significant recommendations to enhance the excellence of higher education in India:

Restructuring Existing Universities:

The commission outlined procedural steps to enhance the quality of existing universities. It included transitioning to a modern choice-based credit system, fostering an environment conducive to research and development, revising curricula regularly, integrating continuous internal assessments alongside annual exams, establishing modern infrastructure, and ensuring stress-free and effective learning environments.

Revamping Undergraduate Colleges:

Recognising that affiliating undergraduate colleges to universities was outdated, the commission suggested restructuring these colleges. It recommended granting autonomous status to individuals or groups of colleges based on stringent quality measures. It would entail providing regular and vocational courses and creating the Central and State Boards of Under-graduation to distinguish between academic and administrative functions.

Enhancing Quality:

The commission emphasised the importance of internal and societal accountability in the educational system. It stressed that expanding higher education would benefit students through increased choices and foster healthy competition among institutions. Therefore, the commission recommended stringent policies for disclosing comprehensive institutional information, improving teacher quality through continuous assessment and training, addressing salary disparities, allowing foreign and Indian universities to operate abroad, promoting pluralism in higher education, and rejecting the '*One-Size, Fits All*' approach.

III. Inclusion

The National Knowledge Commission identified inclusivity as a crucial necessity to bring about desired changes in higher education within Indian society. To achieve this, the commission proposed two key steps:

Ensuring Access for Deprived Communities:

The commission reaffirmed that education is pivotal for social inclusion by generating more opportunities. It maintained that the government was responsible for ensuring every student had access to higher education. The commission recommended implementing a needs-blind admission policy in higher education institutions to prevent financial discrimination during admissions. It also proposed introducing national and state-level scholarships for economically deprived students.

Affirmative Action:

The commission highlighted the importance of affirmative action to include socially and economically disadvantaged communities in higher education. It acknowledged that while reservations were one form of affirmative action, a comprehensive approach was required to address various factors, including caste, income, religion, and more. The commission recommended a new framework to tackle these multifaceted challenges.

Like the Ambani-Birla report, the National Knowledge Commission endorsed private investment in higher education in India, advocating for land grants and other facilities, as government financing alone was insufficient to sustain the entire higher education system in the country.

3.7.12 Yashpal Committee (2008-2009)

In 2008, the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD), representing the Indian government, constituted a committee with Prof. Yashpal as its chairman. This committee comprised references that could guide innovative actions for the "*Renovation and Rejuvenation*

of Higher Education in India.” The committee submitted its primary recommendations in its 2009 report, which endorsed providing universities with autonomy to compete in a healthy environment. It also believed that the grants allocated to universities by both federal and state governments were inadequate. As per this perspective, there should not be a distinction between central and state universities.

Furthermore, the committee advocated for limiting the geographical scope within which universities could operate. The committee firmly disagreed with the government’s decision to privatise higher education in India, asserting that initiatives in higher education should not solely pursue profit. Instead, it should limit itself to management, accounting, medicine, and other business-related courses.

Despite the generally challenging state of higher education in India, the Indian Institutes of Technology and Management (IITs and IIMs) have maintained high excellence and quality. They have consistently upheld rigorous standards in engineering and management education, respectively. The committee urged the expansion of the purview of IITs and IIMs to encompass humanities and literature in their curricula, enabling these institutions to function as comprehensive universities. (Malhar, 2009)

3.7.13 Dr Anil Karodkar Committee (2010-2011)

In 2010, the MHRD initiated the establishment of a committee with Dr. Anil Karodkar as its head to propose autonomy measures for enhancing the achievements of IITs. The committee recommended annual tuition fees ranging from Rs 2 to Rs 2.5 lakh for each student. It would be reasonable considering the substantial demand for IIT graduates and the anticipated salaries for IIT B. Tech graduates. Additionally, the legacy commitment of retirement benefits under the former pension plan (totalling around Rs 221 crore for all IITs in 2010) should continue to be covered by the government until the scheme’s conclusion. Furthermore, the Committee suggested that all government ministries should allocate a minimum of 20 percent overheads, without limitations, for approved R&D projects at IITs. It is crucial to prevent the institute’s resources from becoming strained while they engage in expanded R&D activities. (Karodkar, 2011)

3.7.14 K.B. Pawar Committee

The UGC established the K.B. Pawar Committee, which proposed the following four PPP models for higher education:

- *Model I - Basic Infrastructure Model (BIM)*: The government oversees operations and management, while the private sector invests in infrastructure and receives annual payments from the private investor. This model benefits the real estate, infrastructure, and financial sectors the most, as they prefer not to engage in the education sector's operations.
- *Model II - Outsourcing Model (OM)*: The government pays the private investor for necessary services, and the private sector handles operations and management. The government is responsible for paying for the selected services it uses from the institution, while the private sector invests in infrastructure and assumes control over the institutions. Real estate and infrastructure players utilise the build-own-operate-transfer (BOOT) strategy to manage educational institutions.
- *Model III - Equity or Hybrid Model (EHM)*: The private sector manages day-to-day operations, while the public and private sectors share infrastructure investments. Private entities operate and manage institutions funded by both sectors. This model suits existing private companies operating higher education institutions with expansion plans.
- *Model IV - Reserve Outsourcing Model (ROM)*: In the Reserve Outsourcing Model, the private sector takes charge of management and operations after public funds invest in infrastructure. The private sector manages the institution, while the government funds infrastructure. This approach is suitable for entities experienced in operating and managing schools under contracts, such as school management organisations. (Education industry in India, an overview - Blogs, 2018)

3.7.15 Committee on Corporate Participation in Higher Education / Narayana Murthy Committee (NMC) (2012)

The consolidated working group, consisting of the departments of higher education, technical education, and private sector participation, has outlined various higher education initiatives in the Twelfth Five-Year Plan. Given the limited public resources available, the government appeared hesitant to meet this substantial demand, as these initiatives anticipate implementation with an estimated budget of 4,13,367.65 crores, encompassing public-private participation in higher education.

The Indian Planning Commission established a committee led by Mr. N. R. Narayana Murthy, the founder of Infosys Technologies, to address the situation and offer potential solutions to the

looming challenges. The committee included 21 members representing organisations such as the Aziz Premji Foundation, Tata Sons, the National Association of Software and Services Companies, the Indian Institute of Science (IISc), the Indian Institute of Technologies (IIT), Indian Institute of Management (IIM), National Innovative Council (NIC), National Thermal Power Corporation (NTPC), Oil and Natural Gas Corporation (ONGC), and others.

In the report's foreword, the committee acknowledged numerous problems within the higher education system, including inadequate institutions for eligible students, poor graduate employability, declining research standards, an inflexible academic structure, archaic regulations, diminishing autonomy, and low public funding (GOI:2012).

The committee emphasised several points. Firstly, it noted a positive correlation between Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) in higher education and economic growth, advocating for raising the GER to 30 percent to sustain economic progress. Secondly, the committee stressed the need for sufficient institutions to meet demand, emphasizing faculty and research. Thirdly, it highlighted the global impact of the corporate sector's involvement in higher education, suggesting active ownership and management by the corporate sector.

The Narayana Murthy Committee (NMC) categorised their recommendations into three main areas:

- **Creating Enabling Conditions:** Providing higher education institutions with academic, financial, and administrative autonomy, enabling them to design curricula, select instructional materials, and appoint skilled faculty with competitive salaries.
- **Improving Quality:** Elevating faculty and research standards for better education quality. It includes liberal research funding, corporate involvement through collaborative programs, and leadership development training for academic administrators.
- **Building New Infrastructure:** Collaborating with the top 75 universities and higher education institutions to establish new campus facilities and technology parks to promote research and innovation.

The committee also discussed specific outcomes from corporate sector involvement:

- Upgrading the top 75 universities and institutions would cost 175 to 200 crores of rupees. Establishing 20 new world-class universities and higher educational institutions through the PPP model would cost around 500 crores.
- It is investing 500 crores in new national knowledge clusters.

- Recruit 5500 faculty members, of which one-third should be recruited internationally, at a total cost of 40,000 crores, with contributions from the central government, state governments, and the corporate sector.
- The committee recommended establishing the “*Council for Industry and Higher Education Collaboration*” (CIHEC).

Critics have argued that the NMC committee’s recommendations primarily favour domestic and international corporate interests rather than the long-term advancement of higher education.

Critics have criticised the recommendations for overlooking gender, geographic, economic, and social disparities. Some believe that the committee viewed education as a market commodity to benefit India’s corporate sector.

3.7.16 FICCI Higher Education Summit (2013)

Immediately following the release of the XII five-year plan, the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce & Industry (FICCI), a non-governmental trade association and advocacy group located in India, organised an education summit to assess the potential for private partnerships in higher education. The FICCI envisioned that as India reaches 80 years of constitutional democracy, 40 years of economic liberalization, and 20 years of rapid educational reform, it will accomplish its goals.

The document ‘*The FICCI Vision 2030*’ outlines that by then, India would anticipate a rapid expansion in higher education, creating an additional capacity of 40 million students with a 50 percent Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) in under 20 years. However, the FICCI summit concluded that achieving the projected state by 2030 would require significant interventions in curriculum and pedagogy, faculty, research, partnerships, infrastructure, funding, and governance or leadership in higher education. Consequently, the summit proposed the following recommendations to realize ‘Vision-2030.’

Curriculum and Pedagogy

Developing learner-centric content, pedagogy, and assessment frameworks that facilitate exploratory and interactive learning is crucial. Introducing liberal arts and methodologies to enhance communication, creativity, conceptualisation, and problem-solving abilities is essential. Incorporating multidisciplinary courses will offer students broader exposure and aid in developing a holistic worldview by exposing them to various subjects encompassing

political, economic, and social contexts. Integrating courses focused on fundamental skills that enhance employability should be introduced. It is recommended to encourage MOOCs and blended learning to deliver high-quality education.

Research

Consider employing professors with postgraduate degrees to teach undergraduate courses rather than excessively emphasising the requirement for doctoral degrees. Modify the faculty recruitment regulations to highlight the advantages of teaching as a viable career path for them, taking into account industry experience appropriately. Promote adopting a tenure-based system with an initial probationary period of five to six years for all faculty members in higher education institutions. This implementation will enhance the performance-based incentive structure within the faculty.

Partnership

Offer appealing incentives to foreign organizations to attract their participation in research projects with Indian institutions. Establish centres of excellence within higher education institutions for conducting world-class research. Develop a framework to formalise and ensure industry interactions at all operational levels, aligning business demands with the capabilities of the country's higher education system. Introduce a policy that grants accredited certification for skill training programs that align with higher education standards.

Infrastructure- Physical and Digital

Relax norms to permit reputable colleges and universities to admit more students in popular streams on their existing campuses; Expand facilities and improve campus layout and design by utilising vacant land within higher education institutions for more efficient land use; Establish sufficient bandwidth to ensure swift and reliable worldwide connectivity for higher education institutions.

Funding

Set up a merit-based system enabling competitive access to government research grants to foster and bolster R&D activity; Expand the network of students and alumni through regular alumni gatherings and conferences to encourage alumni funding, particularly for elite industries.

Governance

Establish a national accreditation agency and multiple smaller, independent organizations with specialized missions. Allow these organisations to evaluate both public and private higher education institutions. Emphasise creating a distinguished governance structure that aligns with the quality of institutions. This approach aims to promote information disclosure by all higher education institutions and enhance accountability and transparency in the system.

3.7.17 National Higher Education Mission or Rashtriya Uchchatar Shiksha Abhiyan (RUSA) (2013)

In 2013, the MHRD of the Government of India introduced a comprehensive development plan for higher education. This plan aims to provide strategic funding to higher education institutions. The creation of RUSA aimed to oversee the allocation of funds from the UGC to colleges and other educational institutions. Before establishing the RUSA, state governments believed that UGC's funding for state universities was direct and beyond their regulatory control. It led to significant delays in fund disbursement, as reported by universities and colleges. Furthermore, observers noted that certain institutions could not efficiently use the allocated resources.

Recognising that institutions not falling under the 12-B and 2(f) categories were unable to access UGC financial resources, the Twelfth Five-Year Plan introduced the Rashtriya Uchchatar Shiksha Abhiyan (RUSA) or National Higher Education Mission. Operating as a Centrally Sponsored Scheme (CSS), this flagship government initiative facilitates state-level reforms. It enhances the autonomy of universities and colleges while emphasizing equitable development and elevating standards in teaching and research. (KAWLNI, L. 2020)

Key characteristics of RUSA

- The plan's implementation will occur as a mission-mode project, rendering all other plans in the industry unnecessary.
- The Ministry of Higher Education will distribute central funding to Institutions through the state budget.
- The basis for the state funding decision (SHEPs) will be a thorough assessment of State Higher Education Plans, outlining each state's approach to tackling the challenges of excellence, equity, and access to higher education.

- RUSA relies on superior academic and administrative performance for all its funding, making it entirely performance-based.
- An exceptional feature of this program is that all colleges and state universities nationwide, not falling under UGC categories 12 B and 2 (f), will qualify for funding through RUSA.
- The centre-state funding ratio would be 90:10 for North-Eastern States, Sikkim, Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, and Uttarakhand. For other states, the ratio would be 65:35. Government-sponsored private institutions would also be eligible for a 50:50 funding split.

The primary Objectives of the RUSA include

- It is necessary to increase the GER from 18 to 30 percent.
- Ensure all state institutions adhere to the set criteria and norms to raise quality.
- Introduce accreditation as a necessary system for quality control.
- To raise a few universities to a level of research excellence comparable to the greatest in the world.
- To ensure the implementation of higher education academic and exam reforms.
- To improve institutional management and promote independence at state universities.
- Promote an environment in higher education that prioritizes research and innovation.
- To promote the inclusion of females, underrepresented groups, and individuals with impairments.
- Providing sufficient options for SC, ST and OBC students will enhance equity in higher education.

Prerequisites for States and Institutions to Access RUSA Funds

States must unequivocally approve RUSA coverage and establish a five-year plan for the higher education sector through a State Higher Education Council. Moreover, states must adhere to accreditation standards and examination reforms to address faculty vacancies.

Institutions anticipated to exhibit a robust dedication to equity, research, and innovation as they carry out reforms in academics and administration and encourage cross-disciplinary learning. The institutional structure responsible for implementing and monitoring RUSA includes the

National Mission Authority, Project Approval Board, National Project Directorate at the Centre, State Higher Education Council, and Project Directorate at the State Level.

3.7.18 New Education Policy 2020

The Indian education system boasts of being the oldest and richest in its virtues. However, its policy framework has become outdated when compared to modern requirements. The previous education policy for the country was adopted in 1989 and modified in 1992, but it encountered numerous issues in addressing the structure and procedures of the higher education system. Therefore, the necessity of updating the education system has become imperative. Almost 27 years later, the Government of India introduced a new education policy. The Ministry of Human Resource Development released a draft of the New Education Policy-2019 in 2019.

The academia received the draft, and the organizers conducted multiple public consultations to gather feedback. The Draft NEP examines various aspects, including reducing curriculum content to enhance critical thinking and experiential learning and fostering comprehensive, discussion- and analysis-driven learning. Notably, the draft also explores the transformation of the curriculum and pedagogical framework from a 10+2 system to a 5+3+3+4 system design, aiming to optimize student learning based on the cognitive development of young children. Moreover, on July 29, 2020, the cabinet sanctioned a new National Education Policy, bringing about several changes to the existing Indian educational system. Hence, NEP-2020 stands as India's National Education Policy. (Kalyani, P. 2020)

NEP-2020 has few significant changes or new features.

- The current 10+2 curricular framework, which corresponds to ages 3–8, 8–11, 11–14, and 14–18, will undergo replacement with a 5–3, 3–3, and 4–structure.
- Develop a new national assessment centre, PARAKH (Performance Assessment, Review, and Analysis of Knowledge for Holistic Development), to define standards.
- NEP strongly emphasizes the establishment of Gender Inclusion Funds and Special Education Zones for underserved communities and groups.
- The National Council for Teacher Education, in collaboration with NCERT, SCERTs, educators, and professional organizations, will develop a common National Professional Standard for Teachers (NPST) by 2022.

- NEP 2020 aims to increase the Gross Enrolment Ratio in higher education, including vocational education, from 26.3 percent in 2018 to 50 percent by 2035. It plans to add 3.5 crore new seats to higher education institutions.
- Multidisciplinary Education and Research Universities (MERUs) will offer top-notch multidisciplinary education and become national models.
- The primary organization for fostering a strong research culture and enhancing research capability across higher education will be the National Research Foundation.
- The Higher Education Commission of India (HECI) will supervise all higher education, except for medical and legal programs.
- Both public and private higher education institutions will adhere to the same norms for governance, accreditation, and academic standards.
- The college affiliation process will be phased out within 15 years, introducing a system to grant institutions varying levels of autonomy.
- Private higher education schools will provide more scholarships and free aid to students.
- Institutional collaborations, professor and student mobility, and establishing campuses by prestigious international universities in India will facilitate the internationalization of education.
- Universities specialising in technological, medical, legal, and agricultural studies will strive to transform into multidisciplinary institutions. (Kalyani, P. 2020; Sharma & Kumar, 2023)

The new education policy focuses on the aspects mentioned above and has also faced criticism for its favouritism toward the heightened participation of private entities, ostensibly in pursuing quality education and enhanced student employability. Additionally, the creation of Multidisciplinary institutions encounters budgetary constraints and cannot be sustained solely by the existing 6 percent of GDP. This situation could potentially lead to private entities reaping the benefits of these institutions. Nonetheless, despite the array of challenges, the nation is progressively aligning itself with the proposed objectives of the National Education Policy.

3.8 Summing Up

Education did not hold the public good status in the past, particularly during the height of Hindu philosophy. Only a privileged few were encouraged to access and partake in education, thereby rendering it a private good. The primary eligibility criteria for attending Gurukuls, the primary

educational institutions, were birth and social standing. The curriculum incorporated and excluded Vedic and other religious texts. The closed education system presented limited prospects for universal education. During the era of Buddhist and Jain schools of thought, the system shifted toward liberality. Monasteries and both secular and religious viharas emerged as centres of higher learning. Taxila was among the renowned Buddhist centres of higher learning, where students could engage in various subjects.

In the Middle Ages, the Hindu educational system in India remained confined to a select number of Hindu kingdoms. However, following India's conquest by Islamic rulers, many lower-class individuals adopted the religion and studied Persian and Arabic to secure positions of authority within the courts and monarchies of Muslim rulers.

By the 11th century A.D., colleges known as Madarasahs had emerged as centres of higher learning, focusing on religious texts and often connected to mosques. Under Akbar's policy of religious tolerance, the educational system extended its welcome to Hindu students, thereby reflecting a secular dimension. As a result, the Mughal rulers initiated diverse projects and highly emphasised women's education. The medieval educational system thus struck a balance between authority and administration.

The entry of colonial powers into India brought about a fresh perspective to the Indian educational system, which was earlier rooted in religious and literary foundations. It included subjects like dance, painting, surgery, medicine, and law as part of the primary learning system. While these systems were relatively closed, the British colonial approach to mass education introduced significant changes to the higher education landscape. Until establishing a Hindu college in 1817, the East India Company had been observing education and disseminating Western educational practices from a distance. Subsequently, revolutionary policy advancements were initiated, with institutions such as Mount Elphinstone's Minutes of 1823, Macaulay's Minute of 1835, Woods' Dispatches of 1854, Serjeant Report of 1944, and further developments until India's independence.

The colonial-era educational system displayed a secular character. However, these educational advancements were concentrated mainly in urban areas, with rural regions receiving less attention. The primary beneficiaries were men from higher castes, while marginalized groups began to experience increased access to higher education. Despite this, significant disparities persisted, often fueled by colonial policies.

Post-independence, the education system in India embraced multiculturalism. Newly formed independent governments crafted policies to cater to the diverse segments of society, encompassing religious, secular, and democratic facets of education. Public education was

encouraged in the formulation of public policies. However, a greater responsibility arose alongside the advancements to propel educational progress. The Dr. Radhakrishnan Commission, the first education commission established after India gained independence, presented numerous recommendations to enhance the country's education system, many of which emphasised the obligations toward public education. Recognising education as a substantial catalyst for rapid technological advancement, it sought to align education with Indian culture and values, a theme later echoed in the Kothari Commission's suggestions.

However, it was in the 1990s that the trajectory of the Indian educational system underwent a significant change. Private-supported and unsupported institutions played a pivotal role in the growing privatisation and commercialisation of higher education. As per the UGC Report 2006, the private sector contributed 63.2 percent of higher education in 2005. Presently, nearly 75 percent of higher education institutions are privately supported. The transition from a public to a more privatised nature in education was gradual, influenced by various reports and committees. Technical education experienced a surge in enrollment, and education evolved into a non-merit good. The introduction of neo-liberal policies placed priority on multidisciplinary courses. While Scheduled Castes and other marginalised classes experienced marginal improvements in accessing low-cost private colleges, these policy developments did not significantly benefit these groups. Privatisation yielded positive and negative outcomes, yet it amplified discrimination based on caste, class, gender, religion, and region across broader domains.

Chapter - 4

STRUCTURE AND DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIA AND KARNATAKA

4.1 Introduction

India currently hosts one of the world's largest higher education systems. Estimates indicate that a large chunk of young students will seek admission in the coming years, which will significantly strain the country's higher education institutions. The public and institutions within the rapidly growing private sector are addressing new management and regulatory challenges that demand significant attention. As a result, India must now enact significant changes to its outdated management structures, which were implemented before gaining independence and were in use for most of the 20th century. The state of Karnataka has also undergone tremendous changes in higher education. It implemented the National Education Policy 2020 in its curriculum, making it the first state to do so. Against this backdrop, the current chapter will address the structure and development of higher education in India and Karnataka.

4.2 Profile of Higher Education in India

After gaining independence, the Indian higher education system experienced a substantial expansion. This expansion resulted from a national decision to establish numerous universities, technical or research institutions and professional or non-professional colleges nationwide. (Chakraborty, 2020) The primary objectives were to foster the creation and dissemination of knowledge and provide easier access to higher education for the average Indian. (Hublikar, & Pujar, 2019)

At that time, public initiatives were predominant and exerted influence. The affiliating system enabled most universities, which were public institutions, to exert authority over academic activities on their campuses and within their jurisdictions. Notably, commercial organisations also received substantial financial assistance through grants from the public treasury. Private funds and individuals made significant contributions to the advancement of higher education. However, as expanding and diversifying the country's higher education system to meet growing demands surpasses public funding capacity, incorporating private initiatives becomes necessary to address the myriad challenges. The deregulation process began in the 1970s by granting "Autonomous Status" to specific colleges. Over time, several of these colleges have

transformed into “Deemed to be Universities.” Presently, various states are fostering the development of private institutions in response to the nation’s preparedness for them. The subsequent table presents the existing profile of the higher education system in India.

Table No. 4.1: Profile of Higher Educational Institutions in India: An Overview

Sl. No	Particulars	Total No.
1	Number of Colleges	42343
2	Number of Stand-Alone Institutions	11779
3	Number of Affiliating Universities	307
4	Number of Dual Mode Universities	110
5	Percentage of Colleges in Rural India	60.56%
6	Percentage of Colleges Exclusively for Girls	10.75%
7	Number of Autonomous Colleges	780*
8	Number of Foreign Students Enrolled	49348
9	Number of Teachers	1503156

Source: Higher Education Profile 2019-20

Table number 4.1 illustrates the profile of higher educational institutions in India. The country counted 42,343 colleges during the 2019-20 academic year. In alignment with the All-India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE), India boasts 11,779 Stand-Alone Institutions, which can offer online and traditional courses within dual-mode universities. (All India Survey on Higher Education 2020-21, 2021)

India is home to 110 dual-mode universities, as documented by data from the nation’s higher education ministry. The percentage of colleges accessible in rural areas amounts to 60.56 percent. Furthermore, colleges exclusively for female students constitute 10.75 percent of the nation’s total.

“Autonomous College” controls its daily operations and academic programs independently. As a result, a network of 780 autonomous colleges spreads across the nation. India accommodates a substantial enrollment of 49,348 international students. The higher education landscape also employs a noteworthy workforce of 1,503,156 teachers nationwide.

Table No. 4.2: Number of Degree Awarding Universities / Institutions by Type (As of 25/11/2022)

Sl. No	Type of Institutions	Total in Number
1	Central Universities (CU)	54
2	Central Open Universities (COU)	1
3	The Institute of National Importance (INI)	161
4	The State Public Universities (SPU)	460
5	The Institutes under the State Legislature Act	5
6	The State Open Universities (SOU)	14
7	The State Private Universities (SPU)	430
8	The State Private Open Universities (SPOU)	1
9	Deemed to be a University (Government)	36
10	Deemed to be a University (Government Aided)	10
11	Deemed University - Private,	80

Source: Consolidate list of Universities - University of Grants Commission (UGC) - 2022

The above table, numbered 4.2, presents the statistics of universities and degree-awarding institutions engaged in higher education within the nation. India's higher education system is vast and continuously growing, with the number of students and other academic participants increasing daily. According to the provided table, India possesses 54 Central Universities. Among these, 40 receive central funding through the University Grants Commission (UGC), overseen by the Ministry of Education (MoE), while nine others hold autonomous status and receive direct funding from the Indian government (GoI). Every state in India, except Goa, houses at least one central university.

Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU), established by a parliamentary act in 1985, is the sole centrally located open university. A total of 161 Institutes of National Importance (INI) exist—these academic institutions are pivotal in science and education, and acts of the Indian Parliament stipulate their designations. INIs provide exceptional opportunities for research and development alongside industry alignment.

The system encompasses 460 State Public Universities and public institutions governed by the state governments of the union territories and states. Typically, these universities are established by acts of the respective local legislative assemblies, with authority derived from

the University Grants Commission Act of 1956. Another category, the Institute under the State Legislature Act, consists of five universities that cater to students who cannot enrol in regular classes for various reasons, including those who are already employed.

Furthermore, sponsoring bodies such as registered societies under the Societies Registration Act of 1860, public trusts, or companies registered under Section 25 of the Companies Act of 1956, or corresponding state laws established 430 State Private Universities. Moreover, India boasts 127 deemed universities, including a state-owned private open university named Venkateshwara Open University in Arunachal Pradesh. The Department of Higher Education, a component of the Ministry of Education, is responsible for accrediting higher education institutions in India. In the fragmented landscape, India hosts 80 deemed private universities, 11 deemed government-aided universities, and 36 deemed government universities. (MHRD, India & The Confederation of Indian Industry (CII), 2013)

Table No. 4.3: Number of Colleges by Type of Management

Sl. No	Type of College	In Numbers	In percentage (%)
1	Government Colleges	8565	21.4%
2	Private Aided Colleges	5336	13.4%
3	Private Unaided Colleges,	26054	65.2%
Total		39, 955	100 %

Source: Higher Education Profile 2019-20

Table 4.3 reveals the presence of 39,955 colleges in the nation. The majority of institutions are constituted by private-unaided colleges, accounting for over 65 percent of the total (26,034). This depiction mirrors the current reality in India, where the number of private colleges providing higher education rapidly increases. Both government and private-aided colleges encounter substantial challenges in terms of growth and development within the Indian context. As a result, private-unaided colleges significantly influence the privatisation process.

Table No. 4.4: Number of Colleges by Type of Affiliation

Sl. No	Type of Affiliation	In Numbers	In Percentage
1	Recognised Centres	1906	4.3%
2	Affiliated Colleges	41114	92.5%
3	Constituent/University Colleges	1297	2.9%
4	PG Centre/Off-Campus Centres,	138	0.3%
Total		44,455	100 %

Source: Higher Education Profile - 2019-20

Table 4.4 presents data from a national study on higher education, projecting that the number of colleges in India will reach approximately 44,455 by 2020. The majority of these colleges, precisely 41,114, belong to the category of affiliated colleges, which account for 92.5 percent of the total. Notably, India embarked on its journey with Recognised Centres in 1906. Furthermore, there are 1,297 university colleges, making up 2.9 percent of the total.

Across India, numerous colleges are affiliated with various universities, which collectively offer undergraduate programs in diverse fields such as science, agriculture, business, and humanities. Among these institutions, the most prestigious also provide postgraduate programs; a noteworthy subset possesses the necessary resources to offer PhD and research programs. Interestingly, the country owns 138 PG centres or Off-Campus Centres, contributing to 0.3 percent of the total.

4.3 Demographic Details of Karnataka

Karnataka is on a plateau where the Western and Eastern Ghats mountain ranges meet, forming the Nilgiri Hills complex. The latitudes defining its approximate boundaries range from 11° 35' N to 18° 30' N, and the longitudes range from 74° 5' E to 78° 35' E. Southern India hosts a state known as Karnataka. The creation of Karnataka resulted from the enactment of the States Reorganisation Act on 1st November 1956. Before its name changed to Karnataka in 1973, people knew the state as Mysore. Karnataka shares its borders with several states: Andhra Pradesh (AP) to the East, Tamil Nadu to the Southeast, and Kerala, Goa, and Maharashtra to the North. The Arabian Sea forms the Western border. The state spans approximately 750 km from North to south and around 400 km from east to west. It encompasses 5.83 percent of India's total land area, translating to 74,122 square miles (191,791 km²).

Table No. 4.5: The Demographic Profiles of the Karnataka State

Sl. No	Particulars	Total	Male	Female
1	Total State Population (2011)	611	309.7	301.3
2	Literacy Rate (2011)	75.4 %	82.5 %	66 %
	Gross Enrolment Ratio (2011)	25.5 %	25.5 %	25.5 %
3	Sex Ratio (2011)	973	-	-
4	Share of State 18-23 Population to All India Population (2011)	5.3 %	5.2 %	5.4 %
5	Population in 18-23 age group (lakhs), (2011)	74.0 (12.1 %)	38.1 (12.3 %)	35.9 (11.9 %)

Source: Census 2011, Government of India

Table 4.5 shows that it has 30 districts and is the ninth most populous and eighth-largest in terms of area. The state has a total populace of 6,11,30,704 people, 3,10,57,742 men and 3,00,72,962 women, according to the 2011 Census. The state has a literacy rate of 55.98 percent and a population density of 319 people per square kilometre. 968 females to 1,000 males are the gender ratio.

4.4 Profile of Higher Education in Karnataka: A Historical Overview

The education system in Karnataka has undergone many changes, and Karnataka has contributed a significant part to education development, especially at higher levels. The various dynasties ruled the land throughout history. The people of Karnataka have witnessed various developments in these periods, and the following chapters will provide a glimpse into the historical development of the educational system during the rule of various dynasties. It also deals with the State of Karnataka's policy developments in higher education. (Hublikar, & Pujar, 2019)

One of the four states in southern India, Karnataka is located in the country's southwestern area. The Arabian Sea and the Lakshadweep Islands border it to the west, Goa, Kerala, Maharashtra to the North and Tamil Nadu to the Southeast. Nearly 6 percent of the total geographic area of India, or 74,122 sq miles (191,976 km²), was covered by the state. The State Reorganisation Act, which took effect on 1st November 1956, created the state. Mysore, the previous name of the state, was changed to Karnataka in 1973. The capital of Karnataka, Bengaluru, along with other significant cities like Mysore, Tumkur, Hubli-Dharwad, Shimoga,

Hasan, Bellary, Dakshina Kannada, Uttara Kannada, Belgavi, and others, make up the state's 30 districts. The state's official tongue is Kannada.

4.5 Educational Developments during the famous Dynasties who ruled the Karnataka Region.

The Karnataka region provided the stage for the rule of many famous dynasties. The education system also found escalation and transformation during these dynasties. The education systems under various rulers and dynasties provided a rich culture of educational outcomes in arts, paintings, plays, drama and prose. The following section will deal with the various significant educational achievements during the dynasties that ruled the land of Karnataka at various periods.

4.5.1 The Shatavahanas (250 B.C - 240 A.D)

The Shatavahanas, also known as the Andhra dynasty, established the first royal dynasties in the Karnataka region. Seemukha, the founder of this dynasty, ascended to power following the collapse of the Mauryan dynasty. They governed the entire Deccan region, including Andhra Pradesh to the east until Srikakulam, for over 450 years. Coins, inscriptions, and the abundant literature from their era serve as the primary sources for comprehending the history and contributions of the Shatavahanas. They displayed a deep appreciation for literature, actively learning and fostering a distinct interest.

During their reign, the Prakrit language underwent significant development, with a majority of the Shatavahana inscriptions being composed in the Prakrit language itself. The king 'Hala' was a poet who authored the *Gathasaptashati*, a collection of 700 slokas in Maharashtri Prakrit. Gunadhya, a prominent scholar in the Shatavahana court, also composed the 'Brihat Katha,' an Indian epic in the Paisaci language. Another scholar named Sarva Varma wrote a treatise on Sanskrit Grammar.

The Shatavahanas also left their mark on architecture. Their rulers constructed numerous Viharas, Chaityas, Stupas, monasteries, meditation centres, and rock caves. The Amaravati stupa and Nagarjuna Konda stupa are among the most renowned examples.

4.5.2 The Kadambas of Banavasi (325 A.D - 540 A.D)

The Shatavahanas followed this dynasty, succeeded by the Kadambas, the second significant rulers. They held sway over Karnataka's central, western, and northwestern parts from Banavasi for approximately two hundred and twenty-five years. The dynasty's initial Kannada

record, known as the 'Halmidi Shasana,' was discovered near Beluru, demonstrating that the Kadambas were the first rulers to use the Kannada language in their administrative affairs.

The Kadambas made noteworthy contributions to architecture as well. In the 10th century, they constructed the Madhukeshwara Temple, dedicated to Shiva, in Banavasi. The dynasty's rulers earned recognition for patronising literature, arts, and generous grants. The Kannada literary sphere acclaimed Pampa's writings as groundbreaking, and the Kadambas praised him as the "Adikavi," the inaugural poet in Kannada literature. (KAMATH, 1983)

4.5.3 The Gangas of Talakadu (325 A.D - 1004 A.D)

The Gangas of Talakadu are the third most significant dynasty in Karnataka. Their rule spanned around seven hundred years, encompassing the early 4th to 10th centuries. Initially centred in Kolar, they later shifted their capital to Talakadu. Their dominion extended over parts of old Mysore, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Kodagu, Coimbatore, and Salem.

While the Gangas are most renowned for their remarkable sculpture of the Bahubali statue at Shravana Belagola, they also left a notable imprint in literature. One instance is the 'Shabdavata,' a work authored by Durvinitha. This work serves as a commentary on a Sanskrit piece developed by the celebrated Jaina Grammarian Pujiyapada. Durvinitha also composed a commentary on a chapter of the well-known poem 'Kiratarjuniya' by Bharavi and further translated Gunadhya's 'Vaddakatha' into Sanskrit.

Furthermore, Sripurusha contributed 'Gajashasthra,' a treatise focused on elephants, and Shivamara-II authored the 'Gajashtaka,' a work in Kannada. These accomplishments underline the Gangas' significant role as patrons of both literature and architecture.

4.5.4 The Chalukyas of Badami (500 A.D - 757 A.D)

The Chalukyas of Badami emerged as one of the most formidable dynasties from the sixth to the eighth century. They were the pioneering dynasty that unified Karnataka under a single rule. Designating Vathapi or Badami as their capital, they exercised authority for over Two Hundred and Fifty years.

The Chalukyas of Badami also played a significant role in advancing literature and education. This era saw the rise of luminaries such as Adikavi Pampa, Sri Ponna, and Ranna, collectively revered as the "Tri-Ratnas" or 'Three Pearls' of Kannada literature. Additionally, Nannaya Bhatta facilitated the birth of Telugu literature with the support of the Eastern Chalukyas. Someshwara-III took on the task of compiling all arts and sciences into a work known as the

'Manasollasa.' Contributions extended to various domains, encompassing prose, astronomy, and other literary endeavours.

4.5.5 The Rashtrakutas of Malkhed (757 AD - 973 AD)

The ancient royal lineage of the Rashtrakutas found its establishment in Karnataka under the leadership of Dantivarman, also known as Dantidurga II. Their administration facilitated the construction of significant structures like the renowned Ellora temple and Elephanta erected by the Rashtrakutas. They are believed to have constructed 34 rock-cut temples, with the Kailas Nath temple being the largest among them. The Rashtrakutas played a pivotal role in advancing literature, both in Sanskrit and Kannada. This period saw the emergence of 'Trivikraka,' the author of Nalachampu, and Halayudha, who composed the Kavirahasya and Mritha-Sanjeevini. The reign of the Rashtrakutas witnessed notable growth in the Kannada language and literature. Historians credit Amoghavarsha-I Nripathunga's ruler with creating the 'Kavirajamarga,' the foremost monumental work in Kannada literature. Moreover, many scholars and literary works contributed substantially to the domain of knowledge and literature throughout this period. (KAMATH, 1983)

4.5.6 The Chalukyas of Kalyan (973 A.D - 1189 A.D)

In 973 A.D., after defeating the Chalukyas, the Chalukyas of Kalyana assumed power. The ruler, Someshwara I, established their capital in the Kalyana region called Basava Kalyana, located near Bidar District. During this period, Kannada writers such as Durgasimha (Panchatantra), Ranna (Gadayuddha), and Chavundaraya II (Lokopakara) thrived and contributed to their times. Basaveshwara and his followers were instrumental in creating rich Vachana literature in Kannada.

However, the Chalukya rule declined due to their feudatories' increasing effectiveness and power, including the Hoysalas, Kakatiyas, and the Saunas (Yadavas).

4.5.7 The Cholas of Thanjavur (985 A.D - 1122 A.D)

Between the tenth and twelfth centuries A.D., the Cholas dominated South India. They governed from Thanjavur in Tamil Nadu for approximately 150 years and extended their authority from Shrirangapattana, Cuddapah, and Dharnikota in the North to Rameshwaram and Sri Lanka in the south. The Cholas of Thanjavur held sway over Tamil Nadu, Sri Lanka, southern Karnataka, Kerala, and Andhra Pradesh.

During their reign, Rajaraja (985 AD - 1016 A.D) conquered territories including Gangavadi, Rattavadi, Nolambavadi, Andhra, Kongu, and Kalinga. The Cholas were ardent patrons of the Tamil language and literature, with Kamban composing the Ramayana and Sekkilar penning the Periyapuranam.

4.5.8 The Yadavas of Devagiri (1198 A.D - 1312 A.D)

In 835 A.D., the Yadavas of Devagiri initially ascended to power within the Nashik region. By the close of the twelfth century, they triumphed over substantial portions of the Chalukya empire in the northern Deccan. Their Hemadapanthi temples have demonstrated the influence they exerted, which one can witness in various locations, including Sinnar, Ramtek near Nagpur, Nilanga in Maharashtra, and Yadur (Chikodi taluk) in Karnataka.

Among their notable figures, the scholar Hemadri authored 'Chaturvarga Chintamani' in Sanskrit, Sarangadeva penned 'Sangita Ratnakara', and the Kannada poet Chaundarasa composed 'Dashakumara Charite'. Nevertheless, the advent of the Delhi Sultans marked the conclusion of the Yadavas' rule.

4.5.9 The Hoysalas of Dorasamudra (1000 A. D - 1346 A.D)

The Hoysala dynasty stands as one of the pivotal ruling families within the Karnataka region. They dominated substantial areas of Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, and Tamil Nadu from the tenth to the 14th century. Additionally, the Hoysalas fostered education in the Agraharas. Scholars still consider the literary works from that era as masterpieces in Kannada literature.

During this time, Nagachandra (Abhinava Pampa) emerged as a paramount scholar, notable for his acclaimed works 'Ramacharithrapurana' and 'Mallinathapurana'. Another distinguished scholar, Harihara, authored 'GirijaKalyana' and produced 'Harischandrakavya' during Narasimha-I's reign. In the court of Narasimha II, Janna served as the court laureate, while Ballala II contributed works like 'Yashodhara Charithe' and 'Anathanatha Purana'. Concurrently, Rudrabhatta wrote 'Jagannatha Vijaya', and under Vira Someshwara's rule, the scholar Mallikarjuna composed the 'Sukti-Sudharnava'. Kesiraja, another scholar, contributed 'Shabdamanidarpana'. Thus, the nearly 350 years of Hoysala rule made significant contributions to Kannada literature, the education system, and various other advancements.

4.5.10 The Vijayanagara Empire (1336 AD - 1565 AD)

In 1336, the renowned Vijayanagar empire established its presence in southern India, governing for nearly two hundred and thirty years from 1336 AD to 1565 A.D. The founders of the Vijayanagara dynasty were Harihara and Bukka, with their capital in Vidhyanagara. Their rule encompassed the southern bank of the Tungabhadra River and its suburb, Anegundi, on the northern bank.

During the Vijayanagar empire, children's education mirrored ancient India's practices. Temples were instrumental in overseeing schools that provided primary education. The schools affiliated with temples focused on spiritual education, covering subjects like Vedas and Puranas. On the other hand, state-owned institutions offered a curriculum that included astrology, astronomy, and medicine topics. Due to the lack of paper, they wrote on palm leaves. The Vijayanagara rulers allocated lands to ensure the preservation of these educational centres and designated specific areas within the temples to safely keep educational materials, known as 'Suvadies,' also known as 'Saraswathi Pandarams.'

4.5.11 The Bahmani Kingdom (1347 AD - 1527 AD)

Hassan established the Bahamani kingdom in 1347 AD, and its duration spanned approximately One Hundred and Seventy-five years. More than 18 sultanates held dominion over the Karnataka region throughout this period. Another significant ruler of this dynasty, Firoz Shah, a scholar, constructed an observatory in Doulatabad. He founded a town named Firozabad, providing sanctuary to the Sufi saint Bande Nawaz in Gulbarga.

Furthermore, the Bahamanis constructed forts in Gulbarga and Bidar and numerous tombs and Madarsas. These endeavours significantly contributed to the propagation of Islamic education alongside native languages.

4.5.12 Education During Bahamani Period

Religious institutions functioned as learning centres, with mosques and Kanghas crucial in disseminating education. Mosques were the venues for primary and secondary education, overseen by Imams. Additionally, temples and other pathshalas taught subjects in Sanskrit and local languages. The Bahamanis displayed a strong appreciation for learning, with many being well-versed and skilled in Turkish, Arabic, and Persian. They appointed notable educators and established schools within their domain.

Allauddin Hassan Bahaman Shah, the founder of the Bahamani kingdom, held a deep interest in and respect for scholars and their works. He took the initiative to establish schools for young

children, offering stipends and appointing teachers who received salaries. Mohammad Shah II furthered this educational focus by setting up schools in all towns under his jurisdiction, specifically catering to the needs of the poor and orphans. They provided free boarding and lodging to these students. All of this underscores the significant importance of education during the Bahamani rule, with Islamic education mainly being of prime significance during this era. (Source: Parveen Rukshana, 1991 - System of Education in Brahmin Era)

4.5.13 The Adil Shah is of Bijapur (1489 A.D - 1686 A.D)

In the early 15th century A.D., the Bijapur Sultanates, asserting their independence from the Bahamani Kingdom, commenced their rule from Bijapur in the Western Deccan region encompassing Maharashtra and Karnataka. Bijapur earned the moniker Banaras of the South due to its status as a prominent learning centre, which predated the advent of Muslim rule. The Adil Shahis of Bijapur significantly advanced the pursuit of learning. It gained recognition as the ‘Second Baghdad’ for its scholarly activities in the Islamic world, leading Ibrahim Shah II to designate it as ‘Vidhyapur.’

The Shahi dynasty sultanate demonstrated exceptional knowledge in religion, science, logic, language, and literature. They were known to engage in literary reading and scholarly discussions within the royal court and other settings. An imperial library containing 800 manuscripts existed, with the court poet of Ibrahim II, Baquir Khurd-e-Kasm, serving as a transcriber.

Prominent scholars of the era, including Shah Nawaz Khan, Shaikh Alimullah Muhaddis, Shah Sibagatullah Hussaini, and Abdul Rasheed-al-Bastagi, delivered lectures at the Jami Mosque. Maktabas provided primary education, teaching Arabic and Persian, and mosques delivered this education. Furthermore, during this era, there was a notable emphasis on languages like Sanskrit, Marathi, and Kannada.

4.5.14 The Barid Shahis of Bidar (1487 AD - 1619 A. D)

The Barid Shahis constituted one of the five kingdoms that emerged following the decline of the Bahamanis. Their reign extended from Bidar in Karnataka, spanning approximately one hundred and twenty years, from 1487 AD to 1619 AD. The tombs erected by the Barid Shahis exhibit remarkable artistry and grandeur. Among the significant constructions attributed to the founder of the Barid Shahi Kingdom is the Bagh-e-Hamam. In the year 1619 AD, Bijapur assimilated this kingdom.

4.5.15 The Nadaprabhus of Yelahanka (1420 A.D -1728 A.D)

The Yelahanka Nadaprabhus, renowned for building the Bengaluru district, are commonly recognised as the Kempe Gowda cult. They governed for 350 years, from the mid-14th century until 1728 AD. The Nadaprabhus' dominion centred in the Yelahanka Nādu region and extended across areas like Magadi, Ramanagaram, Kunigal, and Savana Durga. Their pivotal contribution was in shaping Bangalore into a thriving commercial hub. Ultimately, the rule was brought to a close by the Mysore rulers in 1728.

4.5.16 Contribution of the Keladi dynasty to education and literature

The Nayakas of Keladi, also known as the 'Palegaras' of Karnataka, served as subordinates to the Vijayanagara kingdom. Following the Talikota battle, they seceded from the Vijayanagar Empire and established their kingdom. This dynasty's first ruler and founder was Cowdappa Nayaka, who was heroic in the kingdom.

One can consider numerous Sanskrit works as encyclopaedias at different levels. Among them, Varahamihira's Brihatsamhita, a Sanskrit book of this nature, is frequently referenced. The first is "Lokopakara" by Chavundaraya, composed in Karnataka in 1025 AD. The second work, "Sivatattvaratnakara," was written by Keladi King Basavappa Nayaka during his reign from 1697 to 1714 AD. This work is considered an encyclopaedic Sanskrit piece and asserts the establishment and propagation of a new religion by Basavanna, known as 'Veerashiva.'

Under the rule of Sadashiva Nayaka, the Keladi dynasty minted a gold coin featuring the depiction of Shiva and Parvathi along with inscriptions. The educational system predominantly focused on imparting Hindu mythological texts and literature.

4.5.17 The Wodeyars of Mysore (1399 AD - 1761 AD)

The rule of the Wodeyars was divided into two phases: one before and the other after Hyder Ali's and Tipu Sultan's administration. The first phase began from 1399 AD to 1761 AD. During this period, the early Wodeyars' Mysore Kingdom extended from Shimoga and Madhugiri North to Dindigul and Tiruchirapalli South. They held dominion over entire districts such as Mysore, Bangalore, Mandya, Kolar, Tumkur, and Chikmagalur, as well as Vastara and Hosakote in Karnataka, and Coimbatore, Dharmapuri, Salem, and Erode in Tamil Nadu.

4.5.18 The Era of Haider Ali and Tipu Sultan (1761 AD - 1799 AD)

Haider Ali started as a horseman and an ordinary captain within the army of Nanjaraja Wodeyar. His prominence grew during the siege of Devanahalli in 1747, where he showcased his audacity and talent. His son, Tippu Sultan, governed the kingdom for approximately forty years. Haider Ali's rule over Mysore lasted from 1761 AD to 1782 AD.

Krishna Raja Wodeyar, initially a nominal king, conquered the prosperous Bidanur kingdom in 1763 and renamed it Hider Nagar. After Haider Ali, his son Tipu Sultan succeeded him. Tipu Sultan established himself as an independent and industrious king. However, his conflicts with British policies led to his demise in 1799 AD during the Fourth Anglo-Mysore War.

After Tipu Sultan died in the 4th Anglo-Mysore War, the British restored the Wodeyars to power. Firstly, the capital was shifted back to Mysore, and Maharani Lakshmi Ammani's five-year-old grandson, Mummadi Krishnaraja Wodeyar III (1799-1831), ascended the throne under the care of Diwan Purnaia.

Secondly, they implemented territorial divisions. The Nizam received regions including Anantapur, Cuddapa, and Kurnool. In exchange, contiguous areas were swapped with the Mysore Wodeyars to align with their boundaries. (KAMATH, 1983)

4.5.19 The Wodeyars of Mysore

The Britishers compelled the Mummadi Krishnaraja Wodeyars to enter into a subsidiary alliance with the English. They held sway from 1831 AD to 1881 AD, during which the state came under British rule. Over time, the British subjected Mysore and Bangalore to direct governance by appointing commissioners. In 1831, the commissioner relocated the state capital to Bangalore.

Mummadi Krishnaraja Wodeyar III passed away in 1868 AD. Krishna Raja Wodeyar was succeeded by Chamaraja Wodeyar IX (1881-1894). The Britishers decided to transfer authority to the Wodeyars, effective from 25th March 1881. Chamaraja Wodeyar IX ruled until 1894; he appointed Rangacharlu as the Diwan of the Kingdom, and Bangalore remained the administrative capital.

Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar IV succeeded Sri Chamaraja Wodeyar, and his reign is considered the golden era of the Wodeyar Dynasty. Throughout his tenure in various fields, he witnessed significant developments in Mysore and the Karnataka region. He established numerous educational institutions within his domains and served as the chancellor of Mysore University. Distinguished individuals like Krishnamurthy, P Madhava Rao, T Ananda Rao, Sir M Visweswaraiah, Kantharaj Urs, A Banerjee, and Sir Mirza Ismail served as Diwans under him.

The concept of constructing a dam on the Cauvery River, known as Krishnaraja Sagar Dam, was his brainchild. Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar succeeded Jayachamarajendra Wodeyar in 1940, holding the position until the country achieved independence in 1947.

4.5.20 Contributions of Maharaja Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar to Karnataka

For several reasons, Maharaja Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar receives acclaim as the ‘Golden Era of Mysore’. He was dedicated to alleviating poverty, improving rural infrastructure, enhancing public health facilities, and universalising the education system. His contributions include:

- He criminalised untouchability and banned child marriages.
- He established numerous scholarships and stipends for widowed girls and allocated 60 lakhs annually for orphan children’s development.
- 1915, the Mysore Social Progress Association was established to empower marginalised sections.
- He appointed Sir Leslie Miller in 1918 to investigate the backward classes’ situation and implemented a 25 percent reservation for OBCs and weaker sections in government appointments.
- The Khadara Sahakara Sangha was founded in 1925 to aid rural masses.
- Under his guidance, the ‘City Improvement Trust Board’ was established, the first association of its kind.
- He prioritised education, initiating several schools and educational institutions, including personally funding a Sanskrit college in Mysore.
- He allocated 10 acres of land to Bharat Ratna Sir M. Visvesvaraya to establish a science institution.
- Educational expenditure increased to Rs 4,680,000 from 699,000 rupees in 1902, with around 5.2 lakh pupils studying in 8000 schools in the Mysore kingdom.
- He mandated compulsory primary education and directed public institutions to admit Dalit and marginalised sections in 1915.
- As a visionary, he established the State Bank of Mysore (SBM) in 1913.
- In the same year, he founded the Bangalore Agricultural University.
- To promote Kannada literature, he established the Kannada Sahitya Parishat in 1915.
- He served as the first chancellor of the Banaras Hindu University in 1916 and established the Mysore University in the same year, acting as its chancellor.
- The Mysore Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1916.

- He facilitated the establishment of the University Visvesvaraya College of Engineering and Maharani's College for Women in Mysore in 1917.
- The Sandalwood Oil Factory began in 1917.
- The Bhadravati Iron and Steel factory was set up in 1923.
- A significant hydroelectric power project commenced at Shivanasamudra in 1902, making it Asia's first state to produce hydroelectric power.
- The world's oldest eye hospital, Minto Eye Hospital, was built in 1903.
- On 5th August 1905, the first street light in Bangalore was installed, making it the first city with street lights.
- In 1907 he established a bicameral legislative council, advocating the Bicameral Assembly.
- The first dam in Karnataka, Chitradurga Dam, was built in 1907.
- In 1909, the Mysore Boys Scouts program was introduced.
- He allocated 371 acres of land and funds to the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore 1911.
- Krishnaraja Sagar dam, built in 1924, was the largest dam in Asia and remains crucial for irrigation in Karnataka.
- Mysore Medical College was established in 1924.
- An automatic siphon system was introduced and constructed in the Markonahalli dam in 1930.
- The Vani Vilasa Women and Children's Hospital was founded in 1934.
- Mysore Paper Mills was established in 1936.
- Mysore Paints and Varnish, founded in 1936, supplied indelible ink and election materials for all of India.
- Maharani College for Women was established in 1938.
- The Hirebhaskara dam was built in 1939.
- He laid the foundation stone for Hindustan Aeronautics Limited in 1940.
- Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar is a visionary and Rajarishi (Title given By Mahatma Gandhi). His extensive contributions have profoundly impacted Karnataka's achievements and prosperity today.

During the ancient and medieval dynastic periods in India and Karnataka, certain social groups potentially favoured higher education over marginalised communities, limiting its scope and accessibility. The concept of privatisation, as seen in modern times, did not exist, but social

and religious factors influenced unequal access to education. The Shatavahanas, Kadambas of Banavasi, Gangas of Talakadu, Chalukyas of Badami, Rashtrakutas of Malkhed, Chalukyas of Kalyan, Cholas of Thanjavur, Yadavas of Devagiri, Hoysalas of Dorasamudra, Bahmani Kingdom, Adil Shahis of Bijapur, Barid Shahis of Bidar, Nadaprabhus of Yelahanka, and Keladi Dynasty all had varying degrees of educational institutions or patronage of scholars, but limited access to these educational opportunities for marginalised communities. Sri Nalwadi Krishnaraja Wodeyar's reign was a period of significant educational reforms with potential benefits for marginalised communities.

4.6 Developments of higher education before and after independence in the Karnataka Region.

Formation of separate provinces based on linguistics raised by Assam, Bihar and Orissa in 1912 A.D. Karnataka also demanded a separate province. Before independence, various provinces, including Mysore state, Madras Presidency, Bombay Presidency, Nizam state, and Kodagu regions, had divided Karnataka into 20 different regions. The status of higher education drastically differs from the pre- and post-reorganisation of the state. The status of higher education during the pre-reorganisation of Karnataka state is as follows;

In 1900, there were only four colleges in the Mysore region. The Maharani's High School, Mysore, founded in 1881 as a pioneering institution in South India, became a second-grade college affiliated with Madras University. Mysore University, the sixth institution of higher learning in the Indian subcontinent, was founded in 1916. In 1917, the university established its first engineering college, and in 1924, it established a medical college in Bangalore, which was later relocated to Mysore. Private organisations established two colleges in Bangalore (National College and Basappa College) and one in Mysore (Sharada Vilasa College) in 1945. (KAMATH, 1983)

In the ten years between 1947 and 1956, education continued to grow. After independence, private organisations launched two teacher's colleges, a medical college, three intermediate colleges, five first-grade colleges, and more. A government engineering college opened in Davangere in 1950. The old Mysore state had 14 elementary schools, 14 junior colleges, and 14 senior colleges by 1956.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, the Madras and Karnataka region had only two colleges in Mangalore. St. Agnes College for Women was founded in 1921 by the Carmelite

sisters as St. Anne's College for Women, and it became the first-grade college in 1924. Bellary did not have a college until 1945, when the Veershaiva Vidya Vardhaka Sangh established a second-grade college there. The government established a college in Mangalore in 1948, which later upgraded to a first-class college after adding B.A., B.Sc., and B. Com courses. During the post-independence era and the reorganisation of the States, the Manipal Academy of General Education established general and professional education colleges in the Dakshina Kannada district. (KAMATH, 1983)

Before 1917, there were no higher education institutions in the Belgaum region. Students from this area commuted to Bombay or Pune for their higher education. With the help of S.R. Rodda, the first college in the Dharwad area of Belgaum was founded in 1917. Until 1922-23, when the government made plans to teach science at the intermediate level, it was solely an arts college. The KLE Society of Belgaum played a significant role in promoting higher education among the public. They launched the Raja Lakkhangoda Law College in Belgaum during 1939–1940 and the Lingaraj College in Belgaum in 1933. The Basavesvara Vidya Vardhaka Sangha also established Vijaya College in Bijapur and Basavewara Arts College in Bagalkote in 1944. As a result, by 1946–1947, the Belgaum region boasted five Arts colleges and two professional colleges for law and education.

The most significant development of the post-independence era was the establishment of Karnataka University in Dharwad. Between 1947 and 1956, the region witnessed the founding of numerous colleges. Notable examples include the establishment of Kanara College (Kumta 1949), Rani Parvathi Devi College (Belgaum 1945), Kadasiddeswara Arts College (Hubli 1952), Government College of Agriculture (Dharwad 1947), Bhoomareddi College of Engineering and Technology (Hubli 1946), J.G. College of Commerce (Hubli 1947), KLES College of Commerce (Belgaum), and JSS (Dharwad, 1955). By 1956–1957, the university had affiliated with eight general education colleges and seven professional colleges, covering various fields such as teaching, engineering, agriculture, and law. (KAMATH, 1983)

Until 1950, there was a lack of higher education infrastructure in the Gulbarga region, forcing students to journey to cities like Madras, Pune, and others for college education. Osmania University's establishment in 1917 did not significantly benefit students in this region. However, in 1930, the Government Intermediate College in Gulbarga, created by merging the Government English High School and the Osmania High School, began offering intermediate classes. Subsequently, in 1952, it was upgraded to a First Grade College.

In 1953, the Raichur Education Society founded Shakar Arts College in Yadgir and established Lakshmi Venkatesh Desai College in Raichur in 1954. In 1956, the Sharana Basaveswara Vidyavardhaka Sangha established Sharana Basaveswara College in Gulbarga. In 1955, a government teachers' college was established in Gulbarga to prepare future educators for the region. All the colleges in this area transitioned from being affiliated with Osmania University to Karnataka University, Dharwad, in 1956.

Before 1949, there were no college-level educational institutions in Kodagu. Subsequently, the government set up a second-grade college in Madikeri and elevated it to first-grade status in 1953–1954. Until 1956, when Mysore University assumed management, the college maintained its affiliation with Madras University.

4.7 Status of Higher Education in Karnataka after the Reorganisation of the State

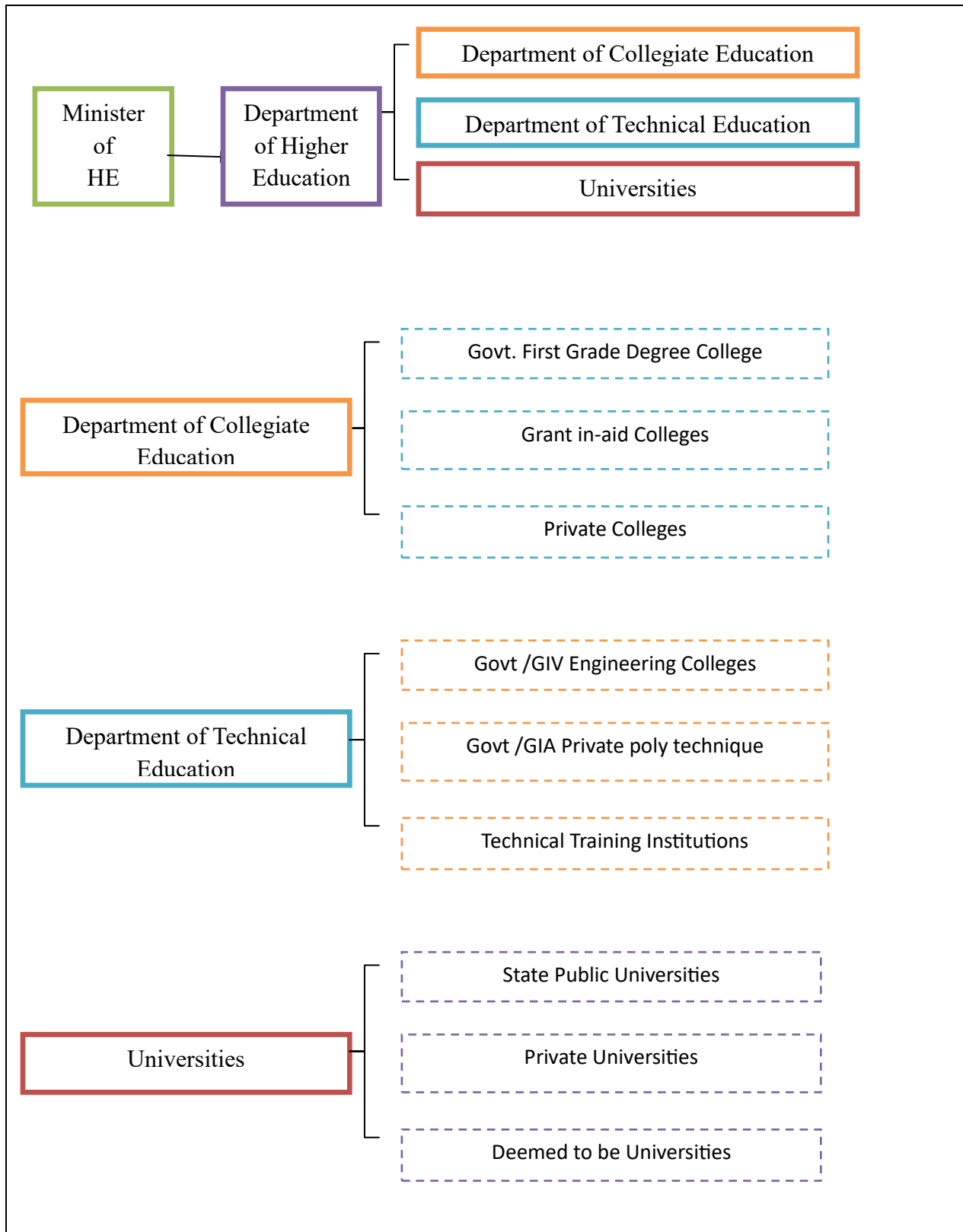
Before undergoing reorganisation, colleges in various regions were affiliated with local universities. For example, Mysore University developed an association with colleges in its vicinity. Contrastingly, Karnataka University linked the Belgaum, Dakshina Kannada, and Kodagu regions, while Madras University aligned the Gulbarga and Osmania University Hyderabad regions. However, there were variations in the administrative structures of these colleges. In 1961-1962, a significant development occurred when a centralised authority, the Directorate of Collegiate Education, was established in 1960, bringing all government-funded public education colleges under its administrative umbrella. However, it is essential to note that the Department of Public Instruction continued to oversee colleges of education while their respective departments independently managed university colleges. The department's inception saw the oversight of 42 colleges with a total enrollment of 27,338 students, consisting of 17 public and 25 private colleges. This number grew to 136 by the end of 1968-1969, reflecting a 32.4 percent increase to approximately 99,630 students, including those enrolled in universities and colleges. By 1981-1982, the Department of Collegiate Education directly governed 256 private colleges and 37 government colleges. The state also featured 679 degree-granting institutions in 1994-1995, including 276 private colleges, 136 public colleges, and 267 institutions receiving financial aid. In 1992-1993, these institutions enrolled a total of 481,920 students. On a national scale, 935 colleges provided degrees in 1999-2000. Additionally, 300 colleges offered financial aid, 151 government-sponsored colleges, and 484 private colleges. Consequently, the state hosted 997 degree-granting institutions in operation by 2003-04. By 2014-15, the number of colleges had increased to 2495 from 165 in the previous year, including

300 from the year before and 532 private colleges. Moreover, there were 411 government colleges, 320 aided colleges, and 1764 private colleges.

4.8 Structure of Higher Education System in Karnataka

The Karnataka government organises the framework for higher education as follows: The oversight and guidance for the state-level body, known as the Department of Higher Education, are provided by the Ministry of Education at both the federal and state levels. This department manages and supervises the functioning of three distinct segments within the higher education system: the Department of Collegiate Education, the Department of Technical Education, and the Universities. (Kori, 2018: Yadav, 2021)

Figure No. 4.1: Structure of Higher Education in Karnataka



Source: <https://hed.karnataka.gov.in/>

The figure above elucidates the configuration of the higher education system adopted by the Karnataka state. Both the federal and state levels of the Ministry of Education are responsible for appointing and providing guidance to the state-level entity, namely the Department of Higher Education. This department assumes a supervisory role, exercising control and providing direction for the administrative and operational aspects of the three sectoral divisions within the higher education system: the Department of Collegiate Education, the Department of Technical Education, and the various Universities. (Kori, 2018; Kazmi, 2011)

4.8.1 Department of Collegiate Education: The Department of Collegiate Education, established in 1960, aims to offer quality higher education to students across various socioeconomic backgrounds. This division focuses on providing accessible higher education to marginalised groups such as women, rural residents, and underrepresented classes, prioritising the comprehensive development of students. Assisted by six regional offices situated in Bengaluru, Mysore, Mangalore, Shimoga, Dharwad, and Gulbarga, the Department of Collegiate Education currently oversees the planning, administration, and funding of 430 Government First Grade Colleges in the state. These include 355 co-educational colleges, 53 girls' colleges, six law colleges, fourteen residential colleges, two Chitrakala colleges, and two model colleges. It is essential to mention that the establishment of the department connected with renowned post-independence academicians such as Dr. Sarvapalli Radhakrishnan and Sri Lakshmi Narayana Modaliar, whose committee recommendations were instrumental in founding it. The department's growth from its initial 44 colleges to its current scale is remarkable.

Table No. 4.6: Collegiate institutions/colleges in Karnataka

Sl. No	Type of College / Institution	Total in Number
1.	Government First-Grade Degree Colleges	430
2.	Private Aided First Grade Degree College	321

Source: Department Collegiate Education, Government of Karnataka – 2021

The above table content presents information about the higher education institutions in Karnataka. It specifically highlights the number of Government First Grade Degree Colleges and Private Aided First Grade Degree Colleges in the state that provide higher education. The data is presented in Table 4.6 and indicates the extent of higher education opportunities available within the state and it illustrates that 430 Government First Grade Degree Colleges and 321 Private Aided First Grade Degree Colleges offer higher education in Karnataka.

Table No. 4.7: Total number of colleges per Lakh Population between aged 18-23 years

State /Country	Number of Colleges	Number of Colleges per Lakh Populations	Average Enrolment
Karnataka	4047	59	415
India	42343	30	680

Source: AISHE Report 2019-2020

Table 4.7 indicates that Karnataka possesses 59 colleges per lakh eligible individuals (those aged between 18 and 23), surpassing the national average of 30 institutions per lakh eligible individuals. The provided content analyses the number of colleges in Karnataka per lakh eligible individuals (between 18 and 23) compared to the national average. It highlights that Karnataka has a higher number of colleges per lakh eligible individuals compared to the average across the country. In summary, one can assert that Karnataka has a higher density of colleges per lakh of its population compared to the national average in India. However, Karnataka's average enrollment per college is lower than the national average, indicating potential college size and capacity variations between the two regions.

Table No. 4.8: Number of Private and Government Colleges

Sl. No	State /Country	Private Un-Aided	Private Aided	Private Total	Government	Total
1	Karnataka	2793	471	3264	707	3971
2	India	26054	5336	31390	8565	39955

Source: AISHE Report 2019-2020

Table 4.8 illustrates the increasing reach of higher education in Karnataka and provides a breakdown of the number of colleges in Karnataka and India, differentiating between private un-aided, private aided, and government colleges and providing the total count for each category. It gives insights into the distribution and ownership of colleges in these regions. The state comprises 707 government colleges, 471 private aided colleges, and 2793 private un-aided colleges, totalling 3264 private colleges. In contrast, the national scenario according to the All-India Survey of Higher Education (AISHE) for 2019-2020 depicts a total of 8565 government colleges, 5336 private aided colleges, and 26054 private un-aided colleges, summing up to 31390 private colleges across the country.

4.8.2 Department of Technical Education: Technical skilled educational institutions established under the “Occupational Institutes” banner in 1943. Later, a renaming to “Polytechnics” occurred to reflect the advanced technical expertise of individuals. The oversight of these polytechnic institutions was under the purview of the “Public Instruction Department.” As the count of Polytechnic and Technical degree colleges expanded, the “Department of Technical Education” was established in 1959. The planning and management of the strategic augmentation of technical education in the state is overseen by the Commission of Technical Education, aligning with federal and state policies.

The department is committed to offering professional human resources and providing need-oriented, high-quality technical education to the community and industry stakeholders. As of the latest available data in 2021, the department manages 14 government engineering colleges, 6 junior technical schools, 85 government polytechnics, 44 aided polytechnics, and 196 private polytechnics. As Karnataka’s highest-ranking policymaking body for technical education, the Department of Technical Education administers the Diploma or Post-Diploma or Tailoring examinations through the Board of Technical Examination. This board also confers diplomas and certificates to successful candidates. Therefore, the department’s primary responsibility is to strategise the expansion of Technical Education within the state.

Table No. 4.9: Type of Institutions under the Department of Technical Education

Sl. No	Type of College	Public	Aided	Private	University Colleges (U.C.)	Minority Colleges (MC)	Total
1	Engineering Colleges	14	11	165	3	15	208
2	Poly technique Colleges	85	44	196	-	-	325
3	Junior Technical Schools	06	-	06	-	-	12

Source: Department of Technical Education of Karnataka -2021

The above table provides valuable insights into the distribution and ownership of technical education institutions in each category under the Department of Technical Education. Technical education encompasses polytechnic, engineering courses, and junior technical schools. Karnataka State hosts 208 engineering colleges, 12 junior technical institutes, and 325 polytechnics. In detail, the Engineering Colleges category has 208 institutions, including 14 public colleges, 11 aided colleges, and 165 private colleges. Additionally, there are 3 university

colleges and 15 minority colleges in this category. In the category of Polytechnic Colleges, there are a total of 325 institutions, comprising 85 public colleges, 44 aided colleges, and 196 private colleges. There are no university colleges or minority colleges in this category. In the category of Junior Technical Schools, there are a total of 12 institutions, all of which are public. There are no aided, private, university, or minority colleges in this category. The data in the above table clearly illustrates the gradual growth of private colleges.

4.8.3 Universities: Bangalore and other districts in Karnataka have played a significant role in developing the higher education system, particularly at the university level. The higher education landscape in Karnataka has witnessed impressive advancements in the past decade, resulting in noteworthy transformations. The subsequent tables depict the various categories of universities within the state's higher education system. As per data from the Department of Higher Education, Government of Karnataka website, there are 25 public universities, 20 private universities, and 11 deemed universities, comprising one open state university and one central university.

Table No. 4.10: Details of Universities under the Department of Higher Education, Karnataka

Sl. No	Type of Universities	Total in Number
1	State Public Universities	33
2	State Private Universities	24
3	Deemed- to be Universities (Private)	11
4	Karnataka State Open University	1
5	The Central University of Karnataka (Under the Central Government)	1
6	Institutions of National Importance	9

Source: Higher Education Council, Government of Karnataka, 2022 ("State universities list," 2022)

Table 4.10 above displays the total count of universities within the Department of Higher Education jurisdiction in Karnataka. Karnataka has 33 state public universities, indicating a significant presence of publicly funded higher education institutions. 24 state private universities offer various programs and options for students. Karnataka also has 11 private deemed-to-be universities, which operate independently but have been granted special status

by the central government. The state is home to one open university, the Karnataka State Open University, which specialises in distance education. Additionally, there is one central university in Karnataka, The Central University of Karnataka, which is under the direct administration of the central government. The state boasts nine institutions of national importance, showcasing its contribution to important national educational initiatives and research.

Table No. 4.11: List of Public Universities under the Department of Higher Education of Karnataka

Sl. No	University	Location	Year of Establishment	Affiliated Colleges
1	University of Mysore	Mysore	1916	225
2	Karnataka University	Dharwad	1949	266
3	Bangalore University	Bengaluru	1964	288
4	Mangalore University	Mangaluru	1980	216
5	Gulbarga University	Kalaburagi	1980	139
6	Kuvempu University	Shivamogga	1987	25
7	Kannada University	Hampi	1991	25
8	Karnataka State Open University	Mysuru	-	-
9	Visweswaraiah Technological University	Belagavi	1998	208
10	Karnataka State Akkamahadevi Women's University	Vijayapura	2003	172
11	Tumkur University	Tumakuru	2004	86
12	Davangere University	Davanagere	2008	126
13	Karnataka State Gangubai Hanagal Music University	Mysuru	2008	
14	Rani Channamma University	Belagavi	2010	385
15	Vijayanagara Sri Krishnadevaraya University	Ballari	2010	94
16	Karnataka Sanskrit University	Bengaluru	2010	19
17	Karnataka Janapadha University	Gotagodi	2011	
18	Bengaluru Central University	Bengaluru	2017	237
19	Bengaluru North University	Kolara	2017	210

20	Karnataka State Rural Development and Panchayat Raj University	Gadag	2016	-
21	University of Agricultural Sciences	Bengaluru	1964	
22	University of Agricultural Sciences	Dharwad	1986	5
23	University of Agricultural Sciences	Raichur	2008	4
24	The University of Agricultural and Horticultural Sciences	Shivamogga	2012	6
25	University of Horticultural Sciences	Bagalkot	2008	9
26	Karnataka Veterinary, Animal & Fisheries Sciences University	Bidar	2004	21
27	Karnataka State Law University	Hubli	2009	108
28	Rajiv Gandhi University of Health Sciences	Bengaluru	1996	435
29	Maharani Cluster University	Bengaluru	1986	1
30	Mandya Unitary University	Mandya	2019	47
31	Nrupathunga University	Bengaluru	1921	-
32	Raichur University	Raichuru	2021	-
33	Dr B R Ambedkar School of Economics University	Bengaluru	2017	

Source: Higher Education Council, Government of Karnataka, 2022

Table No. 4.11 demonstrates the existence of 33 State Public Universities. These universities fall into categories: Affiliating General Universities, Affiliating Professional Universities, Non-Affiliating Professional Universities, Universities for Distance Education, and Specialised Universities. The majority of these universities are established in Bengaluru city, and it is essential to note this fact. Their funding comes from both the state government and UGC. Furthermore, their affiliation status enables them to generate resources from colleges and research centres.

Table No. 4.12: List of State Private Universities in Karnataka

Sl. No	University	Location	Year of Establishment
1	Alliance University	Bengaluru	2010

2	Azim Premji University	Bengaluru	2010
3	Presidency University	Bengaluru	2013
4	CMR University	Bengaluru	2013
5	PES University	Bengaluru	1988
6	MS Ramaiah University of Applied Sciences	Bengaluru	2013
7	Reva University	Bengaluru	2012
8	Dayananda Sagar University	Bengaluru	2014
9	Rai Technology University	Bengaluru	2013
10	JSS Science and Technology University	Mysuru	1963
11	KLE University	Hubli	1947
12	Srinivasa University	Mangaluru	2013
13	Sharanbasva University	Kalaburagi	2017
14	The University of Trans-Disciplinary Health Sciences & Technology	Bengaluru	2013
15	Adichunchanagiri University	Mandya	2018
16	Garden City University	Bengaluru	2013
17	Khaja Bandanawz University	Kalaburagi	2018
18	Sri Satya Sai University for Human Excellence	Kalaburagi	1981
19	Sri Dharmasthala Manjunatheswara University	Dharwad	1966
20	Vidyashilp University	Bengaluru	1982
21	Atria University	Bengaluru	2018
22	Chanakya University	Bengaluru	2021
23	Sri Jagadhguru Murugagarajendra University	Chithradurga	1980
24	R.V. University	Bengaluru	2019

Source: Higher Education Council, Government of Karnataka, 2022

Table 4.12 displays 24 private universities that provide higher education in the state. Out of these, Bengaluru city hosts 15 private universities. Therefore, the focus of the present study is centred on this city. The Karnataka government has endorsed private sector initiatives and enabled the creation of private universities through legal regulations. This policy approach has motivated numerous charitable trusts and educational institutions to establish top-notch institutions.

Table No. 4.13: List of Private Deemed to be Universities in Karnataka

Sl. No	Name of the University	Year of Establishment	Place	Faculty
1	Manipal Academy of Higher Education, Manipal	1993	Manipal	Multidisciplinary
2	Swami Vivekananda Yoga Anusandhana Samsthan, Bangalore	2012	Bengaluru	Yoga
3	Sri Devraj Urs Academy of Higher Education and Research, Kolar	2007	Kolar	Medical
4	Yenepoya (Deemed to be a university), Deralakatte, Mangalore.	2009	Mangalore	Medical
5	B.L.D.E. University, Bijapur	1986	Bijapur	Medical
6	JSS Academy of Higher Education & Research	2008	Mysore	Medical
7	Sri Siddhartha Academy of Higher Education, Tumkur	2008	Tumakuru	Technical
8	Christ University, Bangalore	2008	Bengaluru	Multidisciplinary
9	Jain University, Bangalore	2009	Bengaluru	Multidisciplinary
10	NITTE University, Mangalore	2008	Mangalore	Medical
11	KLE Academy of Higher Education and Research, Belgaum	2006	Belgaum	Medical

Source: Higher Education Council, Government of Karnataka, 2022

The deemed university exists in a state that is neither wholly private nor entirely under government control. For instance, a Deemed-to-Be University maintains an association with the UGC while retaining the autonomy to select its courses, design its curriculum, set fees, and establish admission procedures. Table 4.13 illustrates that there are a total of 11 deemed-to-be universities. Among these, Six (6) function as medical universities, and Three (3) operate as Multidisciplinary universities within the state.

Table No. 4.14: Institute of National Importance

Sl. No	University	Location	Year of Establishment
1	Indian Institute of Science	Bengaluru	1909
2	International Institute of Information Technology	Bengaluru	1999
3	Jawaharlal Nehru Centre for Advanced Scientific Research	Bengaluru	1989
4	National Institute of Mental Health and Neuro Sciences	Bengaluru	1974
5	National Institute Technology	Surathkal	1960
6	Indian Institute of Management	Bangalore	1973
7	National Law School of India University	Bangalore	1988
8	Indian Institute of Information Technology	Dharawad	2015
9	Indian Institute of Technology	Dharawad	2016

Source: AISHE Report 2019-2020

The Indian Parliament can confer the status of an Institute of National Importance (INI) upon a significant public higher education institution in India through an act, provided the institution plays a crucial role in cultivating highly skilled individuals within the designated region of the country or state. As a result of this designation, the Indian government bestows special status, increased autonomy, and financial assistance upon these Institutes of National Importance. According to Table 4.14, among the Nine (9) Institutes of National Importance, six (6) are situated in the city of Bengaluru.

Table No. 4.15: Development of Universities during the Last Five Years in Karnataka State and India

Sl. No	State / Country	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2018-19	2019-20
1	India	799	864	903	993	1043
2	Karnataka	52	55	60	65	69

Source: AISHE Report 2019-2020

1916, Mysore University established the state's inaugural university, while Bangalore inaugurated its first engineering college. As of 2019-20, the state hosted 69 universities,

contributing to the nationwide total of 1043, as shown in Table 4.15. The period since 2015-16 has witnessed substantial growth in the number of colleges and universities providing higher education. The demand for higher education has steadily risen, resulting in significant improvements.

Table No. 4.16: University by Specialisation in Karnataka

Sl. No	Type	Number	Sl. No	Type	Number
1	General	2559	2	Agriculture	20
3	Architecture	15	4	Arts	73
5	Commerce	112	6	Computer Application	23
7	Education / Teaching	123	8	Engineering / Technical	178
9	Fine Arts	11	10	Fisheries	1
11	Home Science	2	12	Hotel Management	10
13	Journalism and Mass Communication	2	14	Law	70
15	Management	66	16	Medical - Allopathy	39
17	Medical - Ayurvedic	69	18	Medical - Dental	38
19	Medical - Homeopathy	13	20	Medical - Others	39
21	Nursing	256			

Source: AISHE Report 2019-2020

Karnataka state hosts a variety of Specialisation Universities encompassing disciplines such as Architecture, Education/Teaching, Medical (Ayurvedic, Homeopathy), Journalism, and Mass Communication. According to Table 4.16, the state exhibits the highest numbers of teacher education and technical/engineering colleges at 123 and 178, respectively. In order to ensure comprehensive access, equity, and inclusion, establishing more Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in underserved regions becomes imperative. By 2030, the objective is to place at least one substantial, multidisciplinary HEI close to each district. Simultaneously, there will be the commencement of efforts to create high-quality private and public higher education institutions that provide instruction in bilingual or local/Indian languages. By 2035, the aim is to achieve a gross enrolment ratio of 50 percent in higher education, encompassing vocational programs. (“Home - Higher Education Department,” 2022)

Table No. 4.17: Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) in Karnataka (2015 - 2020)

Sl. No	Year / Decade	All Population			Scheduled Castes Population		
		Both	Male	Female	Both	Male	Female
1	2019-20	32.0	31.2	32.7	23.2	23.3	23.1
2	2018-19	28.8	28.2	29.4	21.0	21.2	20.9
3	2017-18	27.8	27.2	28.5	19.7	20.0	19.4
4	2016-17	26.5	26.4	26.6	18.8	19.1	18.4
5	2015-16	26.1	26.3	25.9	18.7	19.3	18.0

Source: AISHE Report 2019-2020

Over time, the rate of participation in higher education has consistently improved. By 2019-20, the overall Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) had risen to 32 percent. According to the data in Table No. 4.17, the female GER increased to 32.7 percent, surpassing the male GER of 31.2 percent. However, the rate of improvement between 2015 and 2020 demonstrated fluctuations between males and females. Likewise, within the scheduled caste population, the overall GER had improved to 23 percent in 2019-20, although this figure remained notably lower than that of the entire population. The scheduled caste community faced challenges in achieving a GER comparable to the overall population.

Table No. 4.18: Number of Universities by Type during 2015 - 2020

Sl. No	Type	2019-20	2018-19	2017-18	2016-17	2015-16
1	Central University	1	1	1	1	1
2	Deemed University (Govt)	4	4	4	4	4
3	Deemed University (Govt - Aided)	-	-	-	-	-
4	Deemed University (Private)	11	11	11	11	11
5	Institute of National Importance	4	4	3	2	1
6	State Private University	18	16	14	11	8
7	State Public University	30	28	26	25	25

Source: AISHE Report 2019-2020

Universities and Higher Education: The Higher Education Department in Karnataka currently oversees 50 universities. The principal objective and responsibility of the Department of Collegiate Education involve elevating students to higher education, with a specific emphasis on advancing opportunities for SC/ST individuals, rural communities, economically and socially disadvantaged groups, and women. Table No.4.18 illustrates that over the past five years, there has been a growth solely in state-private universities. In 2015, the state hosted eight (8) state universities; in 2020, the number of private universities had expanded to eighteen (18). The table indicates a noticeable surge in establishing new private institutions compared to public universities. Nevertheless, the number of public universities in the state is gradually rising.

Table No. 4.19: General profile of teachers (Including Lecture, Redear, Professor (assistant and associate) in India

Sl. No	Particulars	Statistics in Percentage
1	Total Teachers in India	15, 03,156
2	Male Teachers	57.5 %
3	Female	42.5 %
4	Teachers (General Group)	56.5 %
5	Other Backward Classes	32.1 %
6	Scheduled Castes (SC)	9.0 %
7	Scheduled Tribes (S.T.)	2.4 %
8	Muslims	5.6 %
9	Other Minorities	9.0 %

Source: AISHE Report 2019-2020

Table (No. 4.19) provides an overview of the general profile of teachers, including Lecturers, Readers, and Professors (assistant and associate) in India. The data shows 1,503,156 teachers in India, with male teachers accounting for 57.5 percent of the total and female teachers making up 42.5 percent of the teaching workforce. Teachers in the general category constitute the most significant portion at 56.5 percent, while Other Backward Classes (OBC) teachers make up 32.1 percent of the total teaching workforce. Scheduled Castes (SC) teachers represent 9.0 percent of the total, indicating a lower representation than other categories, and Scheduled Tribes (ST) teachers are the least represented group among the categories, comprising only 2.4

percent of the total. Muslim teachers account for 5.6 percent of the total teacher population, while other minority communities comprise 9.0 percent of the teaching workforce. These findings reveal the demographic composition of teachers in India, highlighting the gender, caste, and religious diversity among educators in the country. The data suggests that while there is diversity in the teaching profession, there are variations in the representation of different groups, with specific categories being underrepresented, such as SC and ST teachers.

Table No. 4.20: Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR) in Higher Education

Sl. No	State / Country	All India Institutions		Universities and Colleges		Universities and Constituent Colleges	
		Regular & Distance Mode	Regular	Regular & Distance Mode	Regular	Regular & Distance Mode	Regular
1	Karnataka	15	14	18	18	17	13
2	India	26	23	32	28	38	18

Source: AISHE Report 2019-2020

The pupil-teacher ratio (PTR) in higher education for both All India institutions and universities/colleges in the state of Karnataka and across India as a whole is a crucial indicator for understanding the student-to-faculty ratio in educational institutions, which can shed light on the accessibility and quality of education, especially for marginalised classes. The PTR in higher education across all institutions in Karnataka is 15, while in universities and colleges, it is 14, indicating a slightly lower student-to-faculty ratio compared to the overall higher education system in the state. On a national level, the PTR is higher, with All India institutions having a PTR of 26 and universities and colleges having a PTR of 23. This data suggests that, on average, Karnataka has a more favourable PTR in higher education compared to the national average.

The data also differentiates between regular mode and distance mode education, with regular mode universities and colleges in Karnataka having a slightly lower PTR than All India institutions, indicating that traditional, in-person education in the state might have a more favourable student-to-faculty ratio. The data further distinguishes between universities and constituent colleges within Karnataka, with universities having a PTR of 18. In contrast, constituent colleges have a PTR of 17, suggesting that, on average, constituent colleges in Karnataka have a slightly lower student-to-faculty ratio than universities.

Table No. 4.21: Teachers among Scheduled Castes in Karnataka State

Teachers among Scheduled Castes (Based on Actual Response)							
Sl. No	State / Country	All Social Groups			Scheduled Castes		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Karnataka	80677	67691	148368	8391	4168	2559
2	India	864337	638819	1503156	85262	49330	134592

Source: AISHE Report 2019-2020

The provided data focuses on the representation of teachers from Scheduled Castes (SC) in Karnataka State and across India. Karnataka has 148,368 teachers, with 2,559 belonging to SC, highlighting gender and overall numbers. There are 1,503,156 teachers in India, with 134,592 from SC, emphasising gender distribution. This data is crucial for assessing SC representation in the education sector, helping policymakers and researchers understand social inclusion and diversity within the teaching profession and informing strategies to promote equitable opportunities.

Table No. 4.22: Social group-wise Number of teachers in various types of Universities in Karnataka - India

(a) Teaching Departments and their Constituted Units / Off-Campus Centers							
Sl. No	Type of University	All Social Groups			Scheduled Castes		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Central University	9430	3578	13008	1002	297	1299
2	Central Open University	111	86	197	15	7	22
3	Institution of National Importance	13771	3511	17282	930	234	1164
4	State Public University	35167	20311	55478	4703	2023	6726
5	State Open University	416	208	624	59	19	78
6	State Private University	400002	27042	67044	1307	700	2007
7	State Private Open University	25	24	49	Nil	Nil	Nil
8	Institute Under State Legislature Act	888	410	1298	66	36	102
9	Deemed University (Government)	3559	1020	4579	226	52	278

10	Deemed University (Private)	30303	22119	52422	1295	876	2171
11	Deemed University (Aided)	1179	1170	2349	106	76	186
Grand Total		134851	79479	214330	9709	4320	14029

Source: AISHE Report 2019-2020

The social group-specific number of teachers in the various types of universities or institutions in India is shown in Table No. 4.22 (a) above. The information comprises the academic units that comprise the teaching departments and off-campus centres. According to the information in the above table, there is a significant emphasis on the SCs' presence relative to all other social groups in the 11 significant institution categories. About 13008 teachers represent all social groups in the teaching departments, constituent parts, or off-campus centres. 1299 of them belonged to the central university's scheduled castes.

There were 197 teachers overall at the central open university; 22 were from Scheduled Castes. They came from all social classes. According to data published by the Ministry of Education, approximately 17282 instructors are engaged across the Nine (9) institutions of national importance, 1164 of whom are from SCs. There are 6726 SCs among the 55478 teachers that work in the 33 state public colleges.

The Karnataka State Open University (KSOU) employed 624 teachers, 78 of whom belonged to the Scheduled Castes. In Karnataka's 24 state-run private universities, 67044 teachers from all social groups, but only 2007 are from the Scheduled Castes. Surprisingly, there are no teachers from the Scheduled Caste communities in the state-run, private-open university in Karnataka, which has approximately 49 instructors from various socioeconomic classes. Following the State Legislature Act, the Institute employs 1298 teachers, of whom 102 are from SCs. There are 4579 students in the Deemed University (Government), 52422 in the Deemed University (Private), and 2349 in the Deemed University (Aided), with 278, 2171, and 186 teachers coming from scheduled caste communities, respectively. The research also reveals that the representation of women varies significantly across all categories of institutions.

The list is led by Bangalore Urban district, boasting 880 colleges, with Jaipur following closely with 566 colleges. The top 50 districts collectively house approximately 32.2 percent of all institutions. The state-level breakdown reveals 13,008 teachers in the General category within central universities. Following this, SC teachers account for 1,299, constituting 9.9 percent. The state private Open University in Karnataka has no teachers from the SC communities. It is

important to note that the representation of female teachers from SC communities is comparatively low, specifically 297 females per 1002 male teachers in central universities.

Table No. 4.22 (b): Social group-wise Number of teachers in Affiliated and Constituent Colleges in Karnataka - India

Sl. No	Type of University	All Social Groups			Scheduled Castes		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Central Universities	15438	16872	32310	1522	1104	2626
2	State Public Universities	622449	476121	1098570	63996	36615	100611
Grand Total		637887	492993	1130880	65518	37719	103237

Source: AISHE Report 2019-2020

Table No. 4.22 (b) presents data that categorises the number of teachers in affiliated and constituent colleges in Karnataka-India by social group and gender. The data indicates that state public universities exhibit a higher representation of Scheduled Castes than central universities. However, there is still a need for improvement in ensuring a more equitable representation of SC teachers, especially within central universities. Gender distribution varies across different types of institutions, with state public universities generally maintaining a more balanced ratio between male and female teachers. This data emphasises the necessity of fostering diversity and inclusivity within higher education establishments, particularly within privatisation, to guarantee that marginalised groups such as Scheduled Castes have equal access to teaching positions and opportunities in the academic sphere.

4.9 Development of Higher Education Structure in Karnataka during the post-globalisation period

Initiation of the formal privatisation of higher education occurred upon adopting the Liberalisation, Privatisation, and Globalisation (LPG) Policy in 1991. Over the last decade, India has undergone various forms of privatisation in higher education.

One approach involved expanding government universities to encompass self-financing courses and establishing government higher education institutions. It entailed transforming a publicly supported organisation into one financed privately. This strategy allowed for the existence of both recognised and unrecognised self-supporting private institutions. These institutions could fall under the category of for-profit commercial universities. Additionally, many private individuals established state-sponsored private universities, deemed universities,

and academic institutions that received foreign aid. Consequently, privatising higher education has been progressing at an accelerated pace.

The impact of privatisation policies on the higher education system in Karnataka is elucidated in the following tables, clearly highlighting the contrast between the growth of public and private institutions.

Table No. 4.23: Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) at Higher Education in Karnataka

GER in Karnataka during 2004 - 2021				
Years	Total	Male	Female	GPI*
2004-05	11.58	12.72	10.36	0.81
2005-06	13.74	15.76	11.73	0.74
2006-07	15.47	17.78	12.96	0.73
2007-08	12.90	14.30	11.40	0.80
2008-09	20.70	22.60	18.80	0.83
2009-10	18.10	19.80	16.30	0.82
2010-11	25.50	26.60	24.30	0.91
2011-12	23.80	24.90	22.70	0.91
2012-13	25.40	26.10	24.50	0.94
2013-14	26.20	26.70	25.60	0.96
2014-15	26.40	26.70	26.00	0.97
2015-16	26.10	26.30	25.90	0.98
2016-17	69.63	28.74	29.13	1.007
2017-18	30.25	23.76	24.42	1.050
2018 -19	30.79	29.93	31.69	1.040
2019-20	32.80	32.58	32.76	1.050
2020 -21	32.84	32.94	34.80	1.050

Source: Compiled data from the Karnataka at Glance – since 2010-2021

Table No. 4.23 above illustrates the trend of Gender Enrollment Ratio (GER) in higher education in Karnataka. The data reveals a relatively low participation rate in 2004-2005. At that time, the overall GER, unaffected by gender, stood at 11.58 percent. Among females, only 10.36 percent achieved GERs, slightly lower than the GER for all males at 12.72 percent.

The enrollment numbers in higher education have progressively increased, elevating the overall GER to 32.84 percent in the fiscal year 2020-21. Among girls, the GER rates surged to 34.80 percent, surpassing the 32.94 percent among males. Notably, females displayed the most substantial rate of improvement between 2004 and 2021. Within this period, the GER for females escalated by 24.44 points, whereas it rose by 20.22 points for males. The Gender Parity Index for GER across higher education also demonstrated enhancement, growing from 0.81 in 2004-05 to 1.050 in 2020-21.

The subsequent Table No. 4.24 outlines the progression and expansion of various educational institutions in Karnataka. It elucidates how public and private institutions have evolved and expanded within the state, offering a comparative perspective.

Table No. 4.24: Total Number of Both Government and Private General Degree Colleges since 2010-2021 in Karnataka

Year	No of General Degree College (Public)	No of General Degree College (Private)
2010-11	359	208
2011 - 12	360	309
2013 – 14	362	314
2014 – 15	412	319
2015 – 16	412	321
2016 – 17	412	319
2017 -18	412	319
2018 -19	412	319
2019 -20	413	645
2020 -21	413	799

Source: Compiled data from the Karnataka at Glance – since 2010-2021

Table 4.24 above illustrates the expansion of general degree colleges, portraying their growth over the decade from 2010 to 2021. In the academic year 2010–2011, there were 208 private general degree institutions and 359 public general degree colleges. Over ten years, the number of public colleges increased to 413. In stark contrast, the count of private colleges increased over fourfold. As per the information provided in Karnataka at a Glance 2021, private colleges are now surging ahead of public institutions regarding student enrollment.

The data indicates that 308,754 students were enrolled across 799 private general degree colleges in Karnataka, encompassing both aided and unaided institutions. Furthermore, the data underscores that establishing private institutions has gained greater preference than government-owned institutions.

Table No. 4.25: Total Number of Both Public and Private Medical Colleges since 2010-2021 in Karnataka

Year	No. of Medical College (Public)	No. of Medical College (Private)
2010-11	6	68
2011 - 12	6	69
2013 – 14	6	70
2014 – 15	6	70
2015 – 16	6	72
2016 – 17	6	79
2017 -18	6	79
2018 -19	6	79
2019 -20	13	82
2020 -21	8	78

Source: Compiled data from the Karnataka at Glance – since 2010-2021

Table 4.25 above presents the growth and expansion of medical colleges in Karnataka from 2010 to 2021. In 2010, the count of operational public medical colleges stood at merely 6. This number increased to 13 by the academic year 2019-20; however, it subsequently decreased to 8 by 2021. Conversely, privately operated medical institutions numbered around 68 in 2010, and this count surged to 78 by 2021. The proportion of public medical colleges is significantly lower compared to private ones. The landscape of these medical schools is primarily dominated by the affluent segments of Indian society, with affirmative action benefiting only a small fraction of marginalised communities.

Table No. 4.26: Total Number of Both Public and Private Polytechnic Colleges since 2010-2021 in Karnataka

	No. of Polytechnic College (Public)	No. of Polytechnic College (Private)
2010-11	81	206
2011 - 12	81	210
2013 – 14	81	225
2014 – 15	81	232
2015 – 16	81	231
2016 – 17	81	241
2017 -18	81	241
2018 -19	81	241
2019 -20	80	204
2020 -21	125	408

Source: Compiled data from the Karnataka at Glance – since 2010-2021

India possesses one of the world’s most significant technical labour forces. While there is substantial potential for expansion, the current numbers are not notably high, given the country’s population. General education has taken precedence in India, which has had a detrimental impact on vocational education. Consequently, many educated individuals continue to face unemployment. Acknowledging this phenomenon, planners are now placing a greater emphasis on the vocationalisation of education. Another challenge in the realm of technical and vocational education is the current scenario where more engineers are graduating than there are available positions, exacerbating the imbalance in the workforce. This situation has increased demand for lower-level workforces, resulting in imbalanced conditions. Consequently, a rise in the establishment of polytechnic institutions is underway.

The data provided in Table No. 4.26 above shows that in 2010-11, 206 private polytechnic institutions served 38,102 students, whereas 81 public polytechnic colleges provided education to 18,982 students. Notably, no public polytechnic colleges have been expanded or established in Karnataka since 2020. However, an overview of the data for Karnataka in 2021 indicates a considerable surge in the state’s polytechnic college population, which now stands at 125. Conversely, the number of private polytechnic institutions has risen from 206 in 2010 to approximately 400 by the end of 2020-21, with an enrollment of 69,049 students.

Table No. 4.27: Total Number of Both Public and Private Engineering Colleges since 2010-2021 in Karnataka

Year	No of Engineering College (Public)	No of Engineering College (Private)
2010-11	12	175
2011 - 12	12	178
2013 – 14	12	203
2014 – 15	12	204
2015 – 16	12	207
2016 – 17	12	211
2017 -18	12	211
2018 -19	12	211
2019 -20	14	206
2020 -21	15	197

Source: Compiled data from the Karnataka at Glance – since 2010-2021

The Mysore government established the first engineering college in Bangalore in 1917. After 1946, the establishment of three more institutions occurred. During the period of unification, the state hosted two government engineering colleges and three private engineering colleges. By 1993–1994, the state had 47 engineering colleges, comprising Four (4) government-run, Nine (9) financially aided, and 36 non-aided institutions. According to the data provided in Table No. 4.27 above, Karnataka had 145 engineering institutions in 2008-2009, which increased to 175 by 2010-2011. However, the average student enrollment in these institutions decreased from 369 to 301 between the academic years 2008-09 and 2010-11. In 2014, Karnataka boasted 204 engineering colleges, of which 12 were government-run, Nine (9) were government-aided, 163 were unassisted (private), 17 were minority-owned, and 3 were deemed institutions. The state's many professional institutes attract students from various parts of India and beyond its borders. As we look ahead to 2020–2021, the state is hosting 197 engineering colleges that can accommodate over 1.40 lakh students from India and abroad.

4.10 Summing up

Karnataka boasts considerable affluence in terms of its natural resources, intellectual achievements, and broader contributions to the modern world. The region was ruled by

numerous monarchs and influential figures, creating a substantial body of institutions, literature, and scholarly works. Across its historical timeline, almost all significant Indian kingdoms dominated Karnataka, from the Mauryan dynasty to the British Empire. Over time, the state's diverse cultures and religious traditions have significantly moulded the landscape of higher education in Karnataka. The evolution of the educational system in Karnataka has been pivotal in shaping Indian history.

This chapter delves into the substantial contributions of various kingdoms and empires to advancing higher education. It also examines the existing administrative structure of higher education in Karnataka, composed of three principal divisions: departments of collegiate education, technical education, and universities. The chapter elucidates the roles and responsibilities of these departments in expanding their respective domains.

The study sheds light on different aspects of higher education in Karnataka through statistical representation. The study examines subjects such as effective teaching practices, teacher-pupil ratios, and the development of educational institutions. The chapter compares the decade-wise developmental progress in the higher education sector in Karnataka, encompassing growth, institution development, and student enrollment.

While the impact of privatisation in Karnataka is perceived to be slightly more adverse than in other Indian states, the state has historically endorsed neoliberal approaches within its educational system. Notably, Karnataka is the first state on the Indian subcontinent to adopt and implement the New Education Policy (2020) in higher education. However, issues related to funding and inclusivity persist in the higher education system. Despite historical support for neo-liberal policies, Karnataka's budget allocation for higher education has remained stagnant for three years and is significantly reliant on other ministries, as *The Times of India* reported.

Remarkably, the scheduled castes in Karnataka face severe disadvantages due to the state's inclination towards privatising higher education. High dropout rates pose a significant challenge and hinder the growth of these marginalised segments. In this regard, Karnataka has a substantial journey ahead to achieve equity in higher education.

Chapter – 5

PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA

The chapter aims to depict the characteristics of the selected Bengaluru district in Karnataka for the study. It thoroughly delves into the historical, social, geographic, and economic facets. Moreover, this chapter incorporates information concerning the district's higher education profile and pertinent details about the Scheduled Castes population in the urban area of Bengaluru.

5.1 The Process of Urbanisation

The steadily growing concentration of people has led to dynamic urbanisation, which is the growth and development of urban areas, impacting extensive land coverage. It involves shifting from a dispersed arrangement of human settlements to a compact arrangement in urban centres. The history of the urbanisation process spans over 200 years, coinciding with the Industrial Revolution. However, the acceleration of urbanisation became prominent following the adoption of Liberalisation, Privatisation and Globalisation (LPG) policies in the 1990s. The rapid urbanisation in densely populated areas gradually leads to deteriorating urban services. Urbanisation results from a surge in population and rural-to-urban migration driven by poverty. It has, in turn, given rise to housing issues, slums, inadequate infrastructure, heightened pollution, a diminished quality of life, and other challenges. Globalisation, liberalisation, and privatisation primarily contribute to India's urbanisation. However, the absence of infrastructure and necessary amenities arises due to unplanned urbanisation and the lack of a comprehensive strategy.

Sustainable natural resource management requires effective urban planning encompassing operational, developmental, and restorative strategies. Urbanisation involves migrating from rural to urban parts, increasing urban populace densities, heightened consumption levels, corresponding lifestyle changes, and escalated energy consumption. These elements collectively contribute to urbanisation and foster increased carbon emissions.

5.2 About Study Area: The Bengaluru Urban

Bengaluru, located at 12.59° North latitude and 77.57° East longitude, at an elevation of 920 meters above sea level, and covering a surface area of 741 km², functions as the primary administrative, cultural, commercial, industrial, and educational hub of Karnataka. It is nearly equidistant from the Eastern and Western coasts of the South Indian peninsula (Sudhira et al.,

2007; Singh et al., 2022). The city receives an average annual rainfall of 900 millimetres and maintains a pleasant climate year-round, with summer temperatures ranging from 18 to 38 degrees Celsius and winter temperatures ranging from 12 to 25 degrees Celsius. This pleasant climate and numerous parks and vegetation have earned Bengaluru the moniker of India's "Garden City" (Ramachandra & Aithal, 2019).

Bengaluru's landscape, characterised by ridges, gives rise to three watersheds, fostering the growth of interconnected lakes due to the area's undulating topography. Over the years, Bengaluru has undergone significant growth, expanding more than tenfold since 1951. The current name, Bengalooru, is derived from "Benda Kalu" (Boiled Beans) and 'Ooru' (Town), while the anglicised version, Bangalore, has become widely recognised. 1862, Bangalore established a two-part municipal structure comprising the Bangalore City Municipality (BCM) and the Bangalore Civil and Military Station Municipality (BCMSM). These entities merged in 1949, forming the Bangalore City Corporation (Malini, 2018).

The city's expansion prompted the reorganisation of administrative divisions, increasing from 50 divisions in 1949 to around 150 wards in the present day, overseen by the Greater Bangalore City Corporation established in 2006. As of the latest census data in 2011, the urban agglomeration boasted a population of 8.4 million people, including 6.2 million workers, and a literacy rate of 87.06 percent. Notably, the information and technology (IT) sector dominates the labour market, employing 45 percent of the personnel and contributing significantly to per capita income and purchasing power.

Bengaluru stands as a hub for cutting-edge technology and knowledge, hosting prestigious institutions like the Indian Institute of Science (IISc), Indian Space Research Organisation (ISRO), National Aerospace Laboratories (NAL), Defense Research and Development Organisation (DRDO), and Indian Institute of Management (IIM) (Malini, 2018). The educational landscape in Bengaluru also comprises various professional engineering and medical schools. Its thriving economy is marked by a dense concentration of small and medium-sized businesses (SMEs) across diverse industries, culminating in a gross domestic product of 83 billion US Dollars (Ramachandra & Aithal, 2019).

Bengaluru, often called the "Silicon Valley" of India, earns this designation due to its technological advancements, impressive Human Development Index (HDI) of 0.73, and its contributions to innovation. This dynamic city plays a pivotal role in shaping the nation's technological landscape and driving economic growth (Kumar, 2018).

5.3 Brief History of the Bengaluru District

The current study occurred in Bengaluru, the state capital of Karnataka, in south India. Bengaluru's captivating atmosphere and rich history endear it not only to Indians but also to foreigners. "Bengaluru" is also called "Bangalore", an anglicised version. The city's name originates from a tale steeped in history: during a hunting expedition, a Hoysala king named "Ballala" found himself lost in a dense forest. Growing hungry and weary, he stumbled upon an elderly woman's humble abode. Despite her limited resources, she offered him a meal of boiled beans, which was perfectly cooked and delicious. Grateful for the sustenance, the king named the location '*Bele Benda Kaluru*' (Town of Boiled Beans).

While the earliest inscriptions of the city's name can be found in stone from the Ganga dynasty in the early fifteenth century, the roots of modern Bengaluru trace back to 1537 when a feudatory named Kempe Gowda the First constructed a mud fort. Originally known as "*Gandu Bhoomi*" (Land of Heroes), the territory saw further development under Kempe Gowda the Second. He erected boundaries and subdivided the land within the fort into smaller divisions, referred to as "Pete", which primarily served as market yards for various trades and services.

In 1638, Shahajirao Bonsle, Shivaji's father, conquered the city and ruled for about five years. The Wodeyars of the Mysore province later acquired the city for approximately 300,000 units of currency after Aurangzeb's army seized it in 1687. Notably, the Wodeyars established the renowned Lalbagh Garden in 1759. This land eventually became the jagir of Hider Ali, Tippu Sultan's father, granted by King Krishnaraja Wodeyar II. The Tippu family's rule persisted until the Tippu Sultan's demise during the Fourth Anglo-Mysore War in 1799. Subsequently, control shifted to Wodeyar the Third, though British settlers began to inhabit the region.

The city's most significant growth occurred during the British era, marked by the establishment of vital infrastructure such as railways, the postal system, and the police force. In 1859, they signalled the inaugural train departure, and in 1864, Major General Richard Sankey oversaw the creation of the expansive Cubbon Park. During the same period, they constructed the Bangalore Palace, coinciding with the availability of the city's first automobile. In 1881, the city came under the control of the Wodeyars of the Mysore province. During Nalwadi Krishnaraja Wodeyar's rule, he founded numerous schools and colleges. The city's allure attracted poets, artists, and national leaders, leading to its "Silicon City of India" moniker. Economists rank Bengaluru's economy as the fifth fastest-growing in Asia, with its industry, research, and development playing pivotal roles in propelling its substantial economic growth.

5.4 Administrative Profile of the District

The Deputy Commissioner oversees district administration and the collectorate comprises several divisions, each led by a Shirshedar or Manager who supervises and manages all activities within the division. First Division Assistants (FDA) and Second Division Assistants (SDA) collaborate within each section to distribute the workload of the section. The Deputy Commissioner can also seek support from numerous district and taluk-level officials. The Assistant Commissioners include Tahsildars, Shirstedars, Revenue Inspectors, and Village Accountants (Sub-Divisional Magistrate).

5.5 Demographic Representation of Bengaluru District

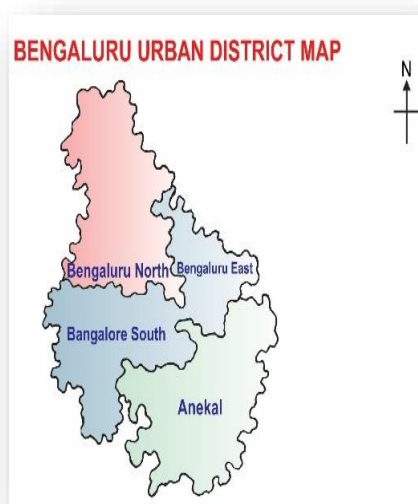
According to the World Population Review (December 2019), Bengaluru ranks third among the most populous metropolitan areas and fifth among the most populated urban areas globally. In contrast to Karnataka, which has a population of 6,10,95,297, Bengaluru has a population of about 11,882,666 people, as per the 2011 census. The 2011 census data indicates around 30,966,657 males and 30,128,640 females in the city. According to the same data, Bengaluru is home to 96,21,551 people, with 50,22,661 men and 45,98,890 women. Notably, the population of metropolises is rapidly increasing, especially in the case of Bengaluru, which stands as the Indian city with the second-fastest growth rate after New Delhi.

Table No. 5.1: General Demographic Profile of Bengaluru Urban District (2011 Census)

Sl. No	Category	Data in Numbers	In Percentage
1	Area	2196 Sq.kms	
2	Population (Total)	9621551	
3	Male	5022661	
4	Female	4518890	
5	Rural	871607	
6	Urban	8749944	
7	Decadal Population Growth	-	47.18 %
8	The density of the population (per sq. km)	-	
9	Literacy (Total)	-	87.67 %
10	SC Population (Total)	1198385	
11	ST Population (Total)	190239	121.16 %
12	Sex Ratio (Females per 1000 males)	916	
13	Child Sex Ratio (0 to 6 years)	944	

Source: DSO, Bengaluru Urban

Figure No. 5.1: Physical Map of the Bengaluru District



Source: Karnataka Government. (2022). Title of the Webpage.

<https://e-krishiuasb.karnataka.gov.in/ItemDetails.aspx?DepID=14&cropID=0&SubDepID=20>

The above map illustrates the district profile of Bengaluru's urban areas, displaying the various wards within Bengaluru Urban. During the researcher's fieldwork, there were 198 wards. However, the most recent Delimitation Act of 2022 increased the number of wards from 198 to 234. As the fieldwork concluded before the 2022 Delimitation process, the study considered the earlier count of division wards.

From 2001 to 2011, Bengaluru District's population experienced a growth rate of 47.18 percent. It marked a decadal increase of approximately 12.10 percent compared to the previous decade (1991-2001). The population of Bengaluru district grew by 30,84,427 individuals between 2001 and 2011 and Population density, calculated as the number of individuals per

square kilometre, was a key consideration. At the Taluk level, the district's density in 1901 stood at 180 people per square kilometre, with Bengaluru South and Anekal exhibiting lower densities of 601 and 977 people per square kilometre, respectively.

Table No. 5.2: Sex-Ratio of the Bengaluru District

Sl. No	Taluk	2001	2011
1	Anekal	828	835
2	Bengaluru North	908	935
3	Bengaluru South	880	879
4	Bengaluru East	903	911
5	Bengaluru City	914	923
Total		908	916

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

According to the 2011 census, Table 5.2 demonstrates a slight increase in the sex ratio per 1000 people. In comparison to the census data of 2001 and 2011, the sex ratio was approximately 908 in 2001. However, the census data for children aged 0 to 6 reveals an almost unchanged child-sex ratio between 2001 and 2011. It was about 943 in 2001 and 944 in 2011, respectively. Contrary to expectations, there is now a notably higher number of children aged 0 to 6, based on the census data from 2001 and 2011. Over the period from 2001 to 2011, the count of children in Bengaluru's district aged 0 to 6 increased from 7,72,540 to 10,52,837, constituting 10.94 percent of the overall district population. However, considering that children under the age of 6 accounted for roughly 11.82 percent of the total population in 2001, it becomes evident that there was a net change of -0.88 percent between the census data of 2001 and 2011.

Table No. 5.3: Population and Percentage Share to the Total Population

Sl. No	Taluk	Geographical area in (sq. km)	Population (In Numbers)			Share the total population in percentage (%)
			Total	Male	Females	
1	Anekal	530	517575	282006	235569	5.38
2	Bengaluru North	486	352420	185978	166442	3.66

3	Bengaluru South	342	205274	109255	96019	2.13
4	Bengaluru East	129	102607	53699	48908	1.07
5	Bengaluru City	709	8443675	4391723	4051952	87.76
Total		2196	9621551	5022661	4598890	100

Source: Bangalore Urban District at a Glance 2017-18

The latest Census data in Table 5.3 reveals that 90.94 percent of Bengaluru's population resides within the district's urban centres. Urban areas were home to 87,49,944 individuals, comprising 45,58,405 men and 41,91,539 women. In the urban Bengaluru district, the sex ratio is 920 males for every 1000 females, according to the census data in 2011. Similarly, the Bengaluru district witnessed 943 children for every 1000 residents. Within the urban area, there were 4,90,000 males and 4,62,044 females among the 9,52,044 children aged 0 to 6, constituting 10.75 percent of the district's total population.

Table No. 5.4: Data on Religions in Karnataka and Bengaluru

Sl. No	Particulars	Hindu (%)	Muslim (%)	Christian (%)	Sikh (%)	Buddhists (%)	Jains (%)	Other population to the Total Population
1	Karnataka	84	12.29	1.87	0.05	0.16	0.72	0.43
2	Bengaluru (U)	80.29	12.97	5.25	0.14	0.06	0.86	0.12
3	Bengaluru (R)	89.86	9.31	0.4	0.04	0.03	0.11	0.29

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

As per the 2011 census data, Hindus comprise 84.00 percent of the population in Karnataka, making Hinduism the predominant religion. Notably, Islam holds the majority in most regions of Karnataka, establishing it as the second most prevalent religion, embraced by 12.92 percent of the population. Christianity ranks as the third most practised religion in the state, accounting for 1.87 percent of the population. Within the state's urban areas, Christianity is predominant.

Jainism also holds a significant presence, representing around 0.72 percent of the total population and having notable places of worship like Sravana Belagola, which features a towering statue of Mahaveera, a Theerthankara of the Jain tradition. Constituting minorities in Karnataka, Buddhism and Sikhism comprise 0.05 percent of the population. In 2011, those indicating no religion accounted for about 0.27 percent of Karnataka's population, while other religious affiliations accounted for approximately 0.02 percent.

Table 5.4 presents the Bengaluru district's religious composition. Hindus comprise 77,25,070 individuals globally, accounting for approximately 0.29 percent of the world's population. Islam, the second-largest religion in Bengaluru, is practised by 12.97 percent of the total population, which amounts to about 12,48,294 people. Christianity follows closely as the third most prevalent religion, with 5,04,863 adherents, constituting roughly 5.25 percent of the district's population. Sikhs, Buddhists, and Jains comprise 0.14 percent, 0.06 percent, and 0.86 percent of the population, corresponding to 5,531, 13,254, and 83,090 individuals. A negligible portion of around 0.01 percent (498 members) belongs to other religions, while approximately 0.43 percent (40,951 people) did not specify their religion as part of the Bengaluru district. With its exceptional infrastructure, pleasant climate, renowned educational institutions, and opportunities for entrepreneurship and employment, Bengaluru is a welcoming hub for people from across the nation and the world.

5.6 Literacy Rate

The literacy level of a nation significantly influences its economic development. It fosters responsible citizenship, societal participation, and personal growth. Karnataka is one of the foremost states with a highly educated population. As of the 2011 census data, Karnataka boasts an overall literacy rate of 75.36 percent. The sum of literate in the state amounts to 4,06,47,322, with men constituting 82.47 percent and women approximately 68.08 percent of the literacy rate (Literacy rate in Karnataka – An analysis, 2018).

Comparing this to the 66.64 percent literacy rate recorded in Karnataka during the 2001 census, it is evident that the state has achieved a decadal growth of 8.72 percent in literacy. In Karnataka, rural areas consistently exhibit lower literacy rates than urban areas. Dakshina Kannada district leads with an overall literacy rate of 88.57 percent, while Bengaluru and Udupi districts follow with rates of 87.67 percent and 86.24 percent, respectively. On the lower end, Yadgir and Raichur districts record the lowest literacy rates at 51.83 and 59.56 percent,

respectively. Except for these two districts, all 28 of Karnataka's districts have literacy rates surpassing 60 percent.

Bengaluru stands out with the second-highest literacy rate among districts, reaching 87.67 percent, according to the 2011 Census. The district's male literacy rate is 91.01 percent, while the female literacy rate is 84.01 percent. The district comprises five taluks and 190 administrative wards. (Literacy rate in Karnataka – An analysis, 2018)

Table No. 5.5: Literacy Rate (%) of the Bengaluru District

Sl. No	Taluk	Rural			Urban			Total		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Anekal	84.51	70.76	78.32	89.93	80.41	85.64	86.64	73.83	86.65
2	Bengaluru North	85.35	71.8	78.92	91.49	81.25	86.81	86.82	73.95	80.76
3	Bengaluru South	82.12	68.62	78.92	91.42	86.5	86.5	84.05	71.33	78.38
4	Bengaluru East	86.23	72.73	79.83	79.55	75.76	75.76	85.71	72.32	79.36
5	Bengaluru City	0	0	0	91.71	88.7	88.7	91.71	85.44	88.7
Total		84.54	70.92	78.21	91.66	85.27	88.61	91.01	84.01	87.67

Source: Bangalore Urban District at a Glance 2017-18

Table 5.5 outlines that Bengaluru North Taluk boasts the highest recorded literacy rate among the Taluks, standing at 80.77 percent. Additionally, Bengaluru North Taluk demonstrates the highest percentage of male and female literates across all districts. In contrast, Bengaluru East Taluk exhibits a notable gender-based literacy gap. Various entities, including the Department of Education, Tribal or Social Welfare Departments, Local Bodies, Private Aided, Private Un-Aided, Other State Government Management, Central Government, and Unrecognised Schools manage the educational institutions in Karnataka. These stakeholders maintain schools across different educational levels, comprising 25,247 lower-primary schools, 37,081 upper-primary schools, 62,328 elementary schools, and 15,949 secondary-level schools. The educational curriculum in Karnataka encompasses regional languages such as Kannada, English, Urdu, Tamil, Telugu, Marathi, Hindi, and Malayalam.

Karnataka's higher education system encompasses around 65 universities, encompassing one (1) central university, 28 state public universities, 16 state private universities, One (1) open state university, Four (4) deemed government universities, Eleven (11) deemed private universities, and Four (4) institutes of national importance. The state has 3,812 colleges, comprising 3,610 affiliated colleges, 36 off-campus or post-graduate centres, 110 university colleges, and 36 recognised centres. Notably, Bengaluru Urban alone contributes 900 institutions to this count, with 873 affiliated colleges, 11 PG centres, ten university colleges, and six recognised centres.

According to the AISHE report for 2018-19, Bengaluru Urban leads in the number of educational institutions, maintaining its top position in this category for the third consecutive year, followed by Jaipur. Among the states in the Indian union, Karnataka ranks third in the number of higher education institutions, trailing Uttar Pradesh and Maharashtra, according to the State-by-State data of AISHE 2018-19. Karnataka has implemented substantial education reforms, particularly in higher education, solidifying its position as a pivotal educational state. The state boasts a rich history of knowledge dissemination, with some of its state universities operating for centuries.

5.7 Gross Enrolment Ratio (%) in Higher Education in Bengaluru of Karnataka state

The government of Karnataka has undertaken several initiatives to address the significant concern of insufficient student enrollment in various regular mode programs in higher education. Consequently, the AISHE report for 2018-19 records an enrollment of 4.35 lakh students in higher education college-level institutions. Among these are 467 M.Phil. and Ph.D. scholars, 47,201 post-graduate students, 3.80 lakh undergraduate students, 855 participants in PG diploma programs, 4063 in diploma programs, 774 in certificate programs, and 2265 in integrated programs. Further categorising, the 4.35 lakh enrolled students include 2.15 lakhs from the general category, 44,758 from the Scheduled Caste community, 10,770 from the Scheduled Tribes community, and 64 from the OBC community.

Standalone institutions play a crucial role in the technological advancement of the state and the country. For instance, within Karnataka, 1293 Standalone institutions can be categorised into 302 technological or polytechnic institutions, Nine (9) institutions under ministries, 524 nursing institutions, 18 paramedical institutions, 23 PGDM institutions, 415 teaching training institutions, and Two (2) institutions for hotel management and catering. Among these,

Bengaluru houses 280 institutions, accommodating about 39,315 students in regular settings and 417 remotely.

Table No. 5.6: Gross Enrolment Ratio (%) in Higher Education in Bengaluru of Karnataka State

Particulars	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2018-19	2019-20
Bengaluru Urban	44.93	46.22	48.79	50.51	53.33
Bengaluru Rural	18.55	18.30	18.92	21.12	27.36
Karnataka	30.10	29.13	30.25	30.79	32.80

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

One way to assess the condition of the higher education sector involves examining the gross enrolment ratio (GER). The gross enrolment ratio accurately represents the expansion in higher education. The United Nations employs this statistical measure to evaluate a nation's educational status. It compares the total count of individuals of all ages enrolled in diverse higher education programs with the overall population of individuals aged 18 to 23 within the context of higher education. Education is imperative for a nation's economic and social progress. It equips individuals with the knowledge, skills, and expertise necessary for shaping developmental frameworks. Higher education is paramount in India's educational system's pursuit of realising a knowledge-based society (Razack, 2021).

Table 5.6 elucidates the Gross Enrolment Ratios (GERs) computation for the Bengaluru urban and rural districts. Over the years, the GER for urban Bengaluru experienced growth, ascending from 44.93 in 2015–16 to 53.33 in 2019–20. Notably, the GER is higher in urban Bengaluru than its rural counterpart, registering at 53.33 for urban Bengaluru and 27.36 for rural Bengaluru.

5.8 Statistics of Higher Educational Institutions in Bengaluru

Due to its reputation for educational excellence, Bengaluru, often hailed as the Silicon Valley of India, attracts students and scholars from across the nation and the world. Numerous institutions in this bustling metropolis nurture academic brilliance and innovation, making the higher education sector diverse and dynamic. To gain a comprehensive understanding of Bengaluru's higher education sector, individuals must delve into the vital statistics and critical indicators defining the educational ecosystem of this vibrant city. This report provides insights

into enrollment figures, institutional diversity, academic offerings, and the ever-evolving educational landscape that shapes the intellectual horizon of this thriving urban hub by shedding light on the statistics of higher educational institutions in Bengaluru.

Table No. 5.7: Total Number of Pre-University Colleges and Lecturers during the year 2020-21

Sl. No	Area	No. PU Colleges	No of Lectures	
			Male	Female
1	Karnataka	5167	24865	17757
2	Bengaluru (U)	858	2771	4504
3	Bengaluru (R)	77	291	233

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

One approach to assess the condition of the higher education sector involves evaluating the gross enrolment ratio (GER). The gross enrolment ratio presents an accurate depiction of Karnataka's status. Out of the 5167 pre-university colleges in Karnataka, 858 are in the urban area of Bengaluru, while 88 are in rural Bengaluru. Table 5.7 presents the count of lectures provided by the state's pre-university colleges. Across these colleges, there were 2771 male lecturers and 4504 female lecturers. Notably, in Bengaluru city, the number of employed female lecturers surpasses that of male lecturers.

Table No. 5.8: Total Number of General Degree Colleges in the Bengaluru Urban

Sl. No	Area	Government	Private (Both Aided & Un-Aided)
1	Karnataka	413	799
2	Bengaluru(U)	25	40
3	Bengaluru(R)	7	2

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

Karnataka holds the third position in colleges, with 3670 colleges and 53 colleges per lakh population and places it ahead of Rajasthan, which ranks fourth with 3156 colleges and 35 colleges per lakh population, as per the AISHE 2018–19 Report. Regarding public colleges, Karnataka has 413 government colleges and 799 private colleges. Specifically, in the urban areas of Bengaluru, there are 25 government and 40 private colleges. The state is witnessing a swift emergence of private players to cater to its demands.

Table No. 5.9: Total Number of Enrolment of Students in General Colleges in Bengaluru during 2020-21

Sl. No	Area	No. of Enrolled Students						
		Government 1 st year to final year			Private Aided Private Un-Aided 1 st year to final year			% of Students Share against State's Total
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
1	Karnataka	148607	188100	366707	149405	159349	19657	100 %
2	Bengaluru(U)	11019	15149	26168	4391	15266	19657	7.1 %
3	Bengaluru(R)	2217	2503	4720	262	396	658	0.83 %

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

In the academic year 2020–21, the public colleges in Bengaluru registered a total student enrollment. In Bengaluru's urban area, the enrollment of students in public colleges constituted 7.1 percent of the entire student population in the state. In private general colleges, the enrollment numbers revealed a notable gender difference. Specifically, 15,266 girls were enrolled compared to 4,390 male students, signifying a greater preference of female students for private educational institutions. Similarly, in Government colleges situated in Bengaluru Urban, the enrollment pattern also favours girls, with 15,149 girls enrolled compared to 11,019 boys.

Table No. 5.10: Total Number of Professional Institutes in Bengaluru

Sl. No	Particulars	Aayush Colleges		Allopathy Colleges		Dental Colleges		No. of Polytechnic Colleges		Engineering Colleges	
		Govt.	Pvt.	Govt.	Pvt.	Govt.	Pvt.	Govt.	Pvt.	Govt.	Pvt.
1	Karnataka	8	78	19	39	3	44	125	408	125	408
2	Bengaluru(U)	3	4	3	10	1	15	9	48	9	48
3	Bengaluru(R)	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	2

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

Different professional colleges in Karnataka include Aayush Colleges, Allopathic Colleges, Dental Colleges, Polytechnic Colleges, and Engineering Colleges. As per Table 5.10, professional colleges offering polytechnic and engineering programs hold the highest positions, with 9 and 48, respectively. Furthermore, the Table illustrates that the number of private colleges providing professional education in the state surpasses that of government colleges.

Table No. 5.11: Number of Enrolled Students in Aayush Colleges

Sl. No	Area	Number of Enrolled Students in Aayush Colleges					
		Government 1 st year to final year			Private Aided Private Un-Aided 1 st year to final year		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Karnataka	817	1239	2056	8159	12117	20276
2	Bengaluru (U)	331	647	978	436	912	1348
3	Bengaluru (R)	0	0	0	219	323	542

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

Different professional colleges in Karnataka include Aayush Colleges, Allopathic Colleges, Dental Colleges, Polytechnic Colleges, and Engineering Colleges. As per the data in Table 5.11, professional colleges offering polytechnic and engineering programs hold the highest positions, with 9 and 48, respectively. Furthermore, the Table illustrates that the number of private colleges providing professional education in the state surpasses that of government colleges.

Table No. 5.12: Number of Enrolled Students in Allopathy Colleges

Sl. No	Area	Number of Enrolled Students in Allopathy Colleges					
		Government			Private		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Karnataka	5617	4292	9909	12981	15373	28354
2	Bengaluru (U)	778	542	1320	2491	3195	5686
3	Bengaluru (R)	0	0	0	477	570	1047

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

In Karnataka, government allopathy colleges enrol 9,909 students, comprising 5,617 males and 4,292 females. Private allopathy colleges in Karnataka have a larger enrollment of 28,354 students, with 12,981 males and 15,373 females. When both public and private allopathy colleges in Karnataka are combined, 38,263 students are enrolled overall. Government allopathy institutions in Bengaluru's metropolitan region have 1,320 registered students, 778 of whom are males and 542 of whom are women. In the meantime, 3,195 female students and 2,491 male students constitute 5,686 students in private allopathy colleges in Bengaluru (Urban). It adds up to 7,006 students enrolled overall in Bengaluru's allopathy institutions (Urban).

On the other hand, there are no students registered in government allopathy institutions in Bengaluru (Rural). However, 1,047 students—477 men and 570 women—have enrolled in private allopathy institutions in Bengaluru (Rural). This data highlights the presence of private institutions in Karnataka, particularly in the metropolitan area of Bengaluru, and offers insightful information on the distribution of students in allopathy colleges. The shortage of students at Bengaluru's government institutions (rural) highlights the possible need for better facilities for education.

Table No. 5.13: Number of Enrolled Students in Dental Colleges

Sl. No	Area	Number of Enrolled Students in Dental Colleges					
		Government 1 st year to final year			Private Aided Private Un-Aided 1 st year to final year		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Karnataka	324	359	683	4108	8999	13107
2	Bengaluru (U)	107	168	275	1577	2741	4318
3	Bengaluru (R)	0	0	0	0	0	0

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

Government dental institutes in Karnataka accept 683 students annually, 324 of whom are male and 359 of whom are female, from first to last year. Conversely, private dentistry schools that accept financial help enrol a notably higher number of students—13,107 overall—with 4,108 male and 8,999 female students enrolled throughout all academic years. In Bengaluru (Urban), government dental colleges have an enrollment of 275 students, with 107 male students and

168 female students. Private-aided dental colleges in Bengaluru (Urban) have a total enrollment of 4,318 students, including 1,577 male students and 2,741 female students from various academic years.

In Bengaluru (Rural), there are no students enrolled in government dental colleges; similarly, there is no enrollment in private-aided dental colleges in this area. The data in Table 5.13 offers an overview of the distribution of enrolled students in dental colleges across different categories in Karnataka and its urban region while distinguishing them by gender and academic year. It also demonstrates that the college had a higher enrollment of girls than boys. Private institutions play a crucial role in delivering professional education in the state. In private institutions, girls tend to enrol at higher rates than boys; for instance, in Bengaluru's dental colleges, there are 1577 boys and 2741 girls.

Table No. 5.14: Number of Enrolled Students in Polytechnic Colleges

Sl. No	Area	Number of Enrolled Students in Polytechnic Colleges					
		Government 1 st year to final year			Private Aided Private Un-Aided 1 st year to final year		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Karnataka	26445	15525	41970	45326	23723	69049
2	Bengaluru (U)	953	547	1500	3104	710	3814
3	Bengaluru (R)	0	0	0	96	18	114

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

The data in the table No. 5.14. illustrates the enrollment of students in various categories of polytechnic colleges in Karnataka, which includes government, private aided, and private un-aided institutions. It categorises the data by gender and academic year. In government polytechnic colleges in Karnataka, 41,970 students are currently enrolled, with 26,445 male students and 15,525 female students spanning all academic years. In private aided polytechnic colleges in Karnataka, the total enrollment is 69,049 students, comprising 45,326 male students and 23,723 female students enrolled from their first year to their final year. For Bengaluru (Urban), the data shows 1,500 students enrolled in government polytechnic colleges, with 953 male and 547 female students.

Additionally, in private aided polytechnic colleges within Bengaluru (Urban), 3,814 students are currently enrolled, including 3,104 male students and 710 female students across all academic years. Conversely, in the context of Bengaluru (Rural), government polytechnic

colleges have no enrolled students. However, private aided polytechnic colleges in this area have 114 students, comprising 96 male and 18 female students. In public and private institutions, boys have a greater enrollment count than girls. Private polytechnic colleges attract more students than government colleges.

Table No. 5.15: Number of Enrolled Students in Engineering Colleges

Sl. No	Area	Number of Enrolled Students in Engineering Colleges					
		Government 1 st year to final year			Private Aided Private Un-Aided 1 st year to final year		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Karnataka	8288	3829	12117	87032	51372	138404
2	Bengaluru (U)	444	270	714	16499	8880	25379
3	Bengaluru (R)	0	0	0	363	230	593

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

In the state, male college students enrol in engineering programs twice as much as female students. Table 5.15 presents data demonstrating private engineering colleges' significance in delivering education. The data shows that private colleges in Bengaluru's urban area enrol more students than government institutions.

5.9 Scheduled Castes in Bengaluru

Khalid Khan's (2018) study on the accessibility of Scheduled Castes highlights a significant improvement in the quality of schooling. However, the increasing proportion of privately funded institutions is a growing concern. This trend poses a challenge as students from less privileged sections like SCs and STs have limited options due to their inability to afford private, unsubsidised institutions. As a result, they face fewer choices than their more privileged counterparts. Additionally, institutions that offer financial support to more students tend to have limited openings, with government schools enrolling fewer students than general institutions.

Accessing education may be more challenging for students from weaker sections, such as SCs and STs, due to their underrepresentation in private, unaided institutions compared to the

general population. It poses a problem for economically weaker sections, marginalised populations, and minority communities in Indian society. Although positive interventions in favour of weaker sections, such as positive discrimination for specific caste groups, the limited availability of financial support and fewer openings in government schools compared to general institutions, further limit the choices of these students, expanding and strengthening public schools, particularly residential schools, is imperative in ensuring access to education for the underprivileged and SCs/STs. Various factors, including socioeconomic status, academic performance, household educational environment, and institutional and governmental policies, influence access to higher education. Factors like the father's education, the mother's education and occupation, the family's income level, and the student's school completion exhibit significant positive correlations with enrollment in higher education (Tomul and Polat, 2013). The subsequent section details the Scheduled Castes in the Bengaluru Urban District.

Table No. 5.16: Scheduled Caste Population in Bengaluru District (2011)

Sl. No	Particulars	Rural			Urban			Total (R+U)
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
1	Karnataka	3735854	3688248	7424102 (16.81%)	1529683	1521207	3050890 (38.78%)	10474992 (22.32 %)
2	Bengaluru (U)	101739	98131	199870 (3.5 %)	505986	4925229	998515 (51.87%)	1198385 (40.81%)
3	Bengaluru (R)	91184	90317	181501 (10.95%)	16240	15959	32199 (39.87%)	213700 (14.52%)

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

The state's Scheduled Castes population grew from 85,63,930 in 2001 to 1,04,74,992 in 2011, representing a decennial growth rate of 22.32 percent. Scheduled Caste members comprise 17.15 percent of the state's population (Abstract primary census, 2011). In 2011, Bengaluru Urban accommodated 51.87 percent of the SC population, with 3.5 percent of the SC individuals residing in rural areas. The provided Table indicates a predominant concentration of the SC population in urban Bengaluru. The researchers conducted the study within the urban areas of Bengaluru, aligning with the study's objectives.

Table No. 5.17: Projected Population of Scheduled Castes by 2022.

Sl. No	Particulars	Rural			Urban			Total (R+U)
		Male	Females	Total	Male	Females	Total	
1	Karnataka	4506754	4520961	9027715	1473906	1504879	2978785	12006500
2	Bengaluru(U)	83692	79890	163582	202636	202958	405594	569176
3	Bengaluru(R)	104825	106019	210844	18569	18619	37188	248032

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

The Table no. 5.17. depicts the data of the projected population of scheduled castes by 2022 in Karnataka. According to information from the 2011 Census, 6.11 million people live in Karnataka, up from 5.29 million in the 2001 Census. According to the most recent census, 61,095,297 people live in Karnataka, with 30,966,657 men and 30,128,640 women. Males comprised 26,898,918 of the total population of 52,850,562 in 2001, while females comprised 25,951,644. While it was 17.25 percent in the previous decade, the overall population growth in this decade was 15.60 percent. In 2011, Karnataka's population made up 5.05 percent of all Indians. The percentage was 5.14 percent in 2001.

The demographic projections for the scheduled castes in Karnataka segregate into two geographical representations: rural and urban. The projections foresee a population of about 9,027,715 people in rural Karnataka, with an expected count of approximately 2,978,785 people living in metropolitan areas. The data illustrates a gender imbalance, revealing fewer women than men in the projected population.

Table No. 5.18: SC Hostels (Government Pre-Matric)

Sl. No	Particulars	Boys Hostel		Girls Hostels		Total	
		No of Hostels	No. of Students	No of Hostels	No. of Students	No of Hostels	No. of Students
1	Karnataka	929	50330	302	17574	1231	67904
2	Bengaluru(U)	16	296	7	96	23	365
3	Bengaluru(R)	18	1156	5	276	23	1432

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

The Government of Karnataka initiated post-matric hostels, benefitting 20,865 students, to extend hostel facilities to college levels. The aim is to encourage SC/ST students from rural regions to pursue higher studies after SSLC. The total number of hostels for SC students in Karnataka State is 1231, catering to 67,904 students. The pre-matric scholarship hostel has an enrollment of 96 Scheduled Castes girl students and 296 boys. Regarding hostel admission in Bengaluru urban, there is a 32 percent gap between girl and boy students.

Table No. 5.19: SC Hostels (Government Post-Matric)

Sl. No	Particulars	Boys Hostel		Girls Hostels		Total Hostels	
		No of Hostels	No. of Students	No of Hostels	No. of Students	No of Hostels	No. of Students
1	Karnataka	371	40455	253	25887	624	66342
2	Bengaluru(U)	16	2196	11	1270	27	3466
3	Bengaluru (R)	5	396	4	336	9	732

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

Comprehensive educational development, specifically focusing on marginalised and disadvantaged groups such as the SCs, STs, OBCs, and minorities, is advocated by the Department of Social Welfare. It administers pre-matric hostels catering to all these demographic segments. The state government oversees the SC Hostels (Government Post-Matric) Scholarship. The total enrollment of students in the hostel reached 66,342, with 3,466 students enrolled in Karnataka Urban. In 2020-21, the count of SC pre-matric hostels reached 624, providing benefits to approximately 66,342 students.

Table No. 5.20: SC Hostels (Aided Pre-Matric)

Sl. No	Particulars	Boys Hostel		Girls Hostels		Total Hostels	
		No of Hostels	No. of Students	No of Hostels	No. of Students	No of Hostels	No. of Students
1	Karnataka	163	8635	34	2241	197	10876
2	Bengaluru(U)	5	206	1	200	6	406
3	Bengaluru(R)	0	0	0	0	0	0

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

A total of 406 students applied for admission to the SC hostel via the Aided Pre-Matric scholarship, with 206 being boys and 200 being girls from Bengaluru Urban. In Karnataka, there were 10,876 SC students. Out of these students, only 3.73 percent are SC, and they all reside in the hostel in Bengaluru.

Table No. 5.21: SC Hostels (Aided Post-Matric)

Sl. No	Particulars	Boys Hostel		Girls Hostels		Total Hostels	
		No of Hostels	No. of Students	No of Hostels	No. of Students	No of Hostels	No. of Students
1	Karnataka	39	3237	16	2327	55	5564
2	Bengaluru(U)	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	Bengaluru(R)	0	0	0	0	0	0

Source: Karnataka at a Glance 2020-21

The Table above does not list any SC hostel-aided post-metric scholarships in Bengaluru Urban. The data from Karnataka indicates that the state intended to establish 55 hostels by 2021, accommodating 5,564 students from scheduled castes. Among these, there are 16 hostels for girls and 39 for boys. Interestingly, the data indicates that no hostels were available for either boys or girls in Bengaluru’s rural or urban districts.

5.10 Bangalore University

In July 1964, Bangalore University was established as a branch of the University of Mysore. Its primary objective was to incorporate academic institutions in the metropolitan area of Bengaluru and the districts of Bengaluru, Kolar, and Tumkur. Subsequently, the university became independent from Bangalore University. Its jurisdiction encompasses colleges in various areas including Vijayanagar, Padmanabhanagar, Bommanahalli, Anekal, Bengaluru South, Yeshwanthapur, Rajarajeshwari Nagar, Dasarahalli, Mahalakshmi Layout, Govindarajanagar, Nelamangala, Magadi, Ramanagar, Kanakapura, and Channapatna. The university has affiliations with around 298 colleges, and its administrative building is located on the Jnana Bharathi campus of Mysuru Road. (“Karnataka government,” 2022)

5.11 Trifurcation of Bangalore University

In a 2009 report, a committee recommended the division of Bangalore University, which had affiliations with more than 600 colleges. C.T. Ravi, the then Minister for higher education

Government of Karnataka, publicly disclosed plans indicating the formation of Bengaluru North University in 2012. This formation would involve the separation of 300 colleges from the existing university. There were calls for the creation of four universities or the implementation of the initial suggestion. Eventually, in May 2015, the government announced the establishment of both Bangalore North University and Bangalore Central University, each with 200 colleges assigned, following the original recommendation. The university commenced its operations on 21st September 2017 after approving the law in July 2015 (“Karnataka government,” 2022).

5.12 Bangalore North University

The Karnataka government announced the establishment of Bangalore North University by dividing the former Bangalore University into three parts, as per the university gazette. The notification was released on 13th August 2015. Bangalore North University’s territorial jurisdiction includes all Legislative Assembly constituencies in Kolar and Chikkaballapur districts, as well as Hosakote, Devanahalli, and Doddaballapur in the Bengaluru Rural District, and C.V. Ramanagar, K.R. Puram, Mahadevpura, Pulikeshinagar, and Sarvagnanagar in the Bengaluru Urban District. The university is associated with approximately 224 colleges. Legislative Assembly constituencies determine affiliation with the three universities in Karnataka. The university’s primary campus is in Kolar at Tamaka, Sri Devaraj Urs Extension. Moreover, they plan to establish a permanent campus in the Amaravati village of the Chikkaballapur district.

5.13 Bangalore City University

Bangalore City University, previously known as Bangalore Central University, has also been separated from Bangalore University. The Palace Road campus of Bengaluru Central College houses the university’s main office. Within its territorial jurisdiction, the university maintains affiliations with 239 colleges spanning areas like Shanthi Nagar, Byatarayanapura, Yelahanka, Malleswaram, Shivajinagar, Gandhinagar, Hebbal, Chamarajpet, Chikkapet, Basvanagudi, BTM Layout, Jayanagar, and Rajajinagar (“Karnataka government,” 2022).

5.14 Summing up

The current chapter focuses on the profile of the field area, which is Bengaluru Urban. Bengaluru Urban has consistently ranked first on the list of higher education institutions/colleges in the All-India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE) for three

consecutive years. The Union Ministry for Human Resource Development (MHRD) released the AISHE survey for the academic year 2017–18 on 31st July. According to the study report, Bengaluru Urban District boasts the highest number of colleges in India, totalling 893. It is followed by Jaipur with 558, Hyderabad with 472, Pune with 442, and Ranga Reddy district with 343 colleges.

However, despite holding the top position for three years, Bengaluru Urban District has experienced a decline in the number of public institutions. During the AISHE 2016–17 academic year, the district had 1,025 institutions leading the nation. In the academic year 2015–16, the number was 970. It decreased from 893 in 2016–17 to 893 in 2017–18. A senior state Department of Higher Education official clarifies that despite issuing more permits to open new colleges last year, “some of them have not started operating, and some have even closed down.”

This chapter also covers the demographic development of the district. It includes statistics on higher education, such as the literacy rate, religious information, gender ratio, and gross enrolment ratio (GER). The above chapter also describes the various educational institutions in the urban district of Bengaluru. Additionally, it addresses the demographics of the scheduled castes, access to facilities, and other relevant issues. Bengaluru has gained popularity as a preferred destination for academics, investors, students, and individuals from around the globe.

Chapter – 6

Section -6A

HIGHER EDUCATION AND PRIVATISATION: CHALLENGES AND PERSPECTIVES OF SCHEDULED CASTES STUDENTS, PARENTS, AND TEACHERS

This chapter constitutes one of the crucial segments within the research study framework. It addresses Four categories of Scheduled Castes (SC) community respondents. First and foremost are the students; the study selected 150 students from higher education institutions in Bengaluru. In this student-centric segment, the chapter primarily focuses on the student's socio-economic status, educational background, institutional particulars, and firsthand experiences and perceptions regarding the current state of the higher education system. Furthermore, it delves into the repercussions of the privatisation process in India.

The second category encompasses the parents of the students, as mentioned above. We drew a sample from the available parents in the Bengaluru urban area. This portion of the study primarily focuses on how their socio-economic circumstances intertwine with the privatisation of higher education. It also seeks to elucidate the issues, viewpoints, and experiences they encounter in the face of the evolving landscape of higher education in India.

Thirdly, the study explores the teaching community's perspectives, including Lecturers, Assistant/Associate Professors, and Professors. This segment examines their standpoint on accessibility and involvement in higher education, considering the escalating privatisation trend. Moreover, it delves into the repercussions on the student-teacher dynamic and the correlation between these two entities.

Finally, the study attempted to address the gender issues in the higher education sector, particularly within the SC community. Many female students conveyed their perceptions concerning access and affordability challenges in pursuing quality higher education.

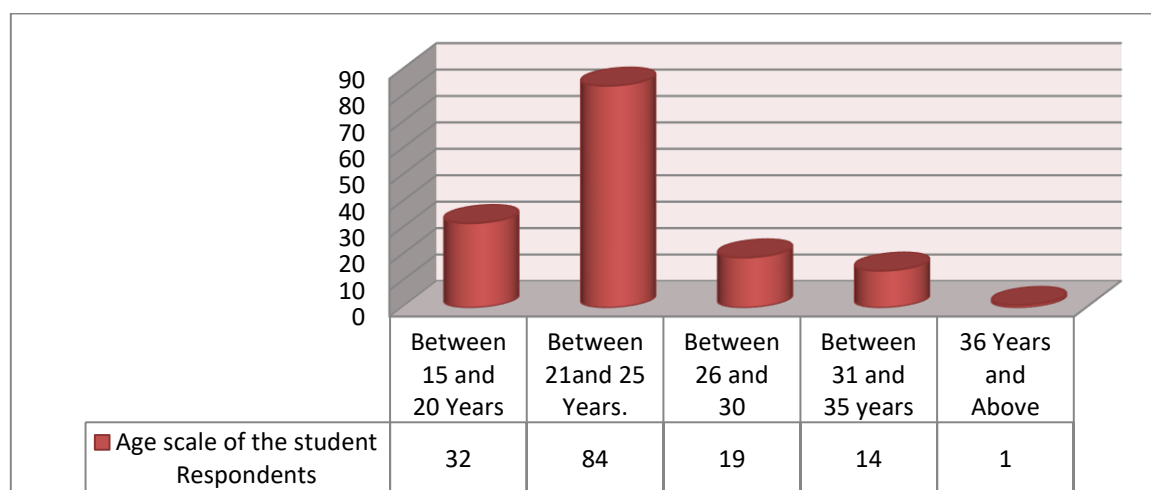
6Aa EXPLORING THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE OF THE STUDENT RESPONDENTS

Socio-economic status stands as a fundamental determinant in studies based on human samples. As per the American Psychological Association (APA), "*Socio-economic status denotes an individual group's social standing or class.*" Evaluating a group's socio-economic status involves analysing the interplay of education, income, and occupation. A thorough assessment

of a group's or an individual's social status often brings to light disparities in resource access, strengths, privileges, and other factors. This section also seeks to comprehend the socio-economic profile of the students by examining factors such as age, gender, caste and sub-caste, regional classification, residence type, migration history, and more. These elements aid in recognising disparities compared to other segments of society.

The study specifically focuses on issues concerning the Scheduled Castes of Karnataka, especially the student communities within these castes pursuing higher education across public and private institutions. The subsequent variables play a pivotal role in comprehending the diverse facets of the socio-economic status of the student respondents in the study.

Figure No. 6.1: Age Range of the Students



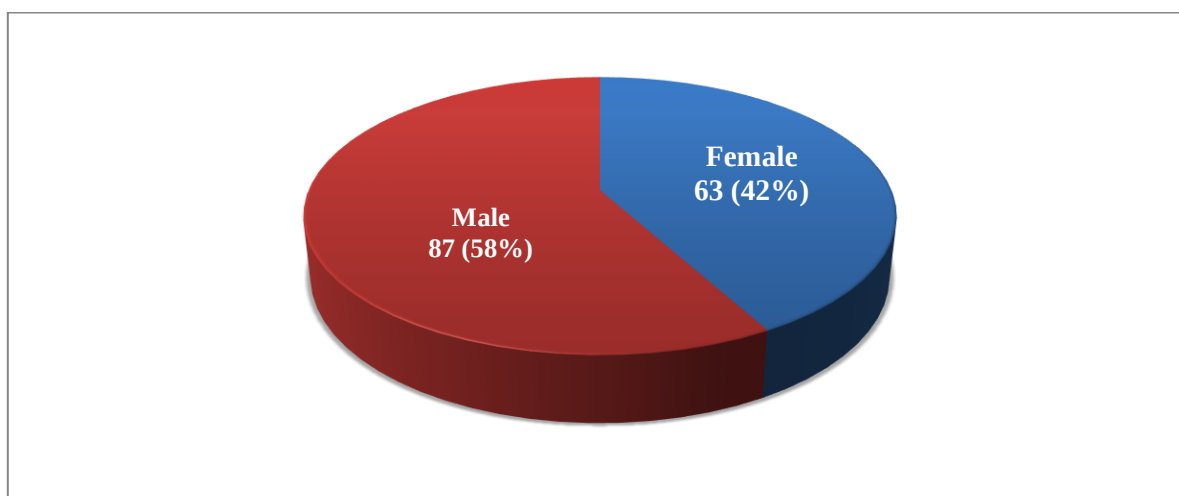
Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Age is pivotal in comprehending an individual's educational attainment and a group. Figure 6.1 illustrates the study's age distribution of the selected student respondents. The study encompassed students from higher education institutions in the urban Bengaluru district, spanning all undergraduate and graduate-level courses. Consequently, the respondent's age emerges as one of the critical variables in the study. The depicted Figure 6.1 categorises the age groups into four segments. As per the table, within the age range of 21 to 25 years, there were 84 respondents (56.0 percent), while 32 respondents (21.3 percent) fell within the 15 to 20 years age range. Additionally, approximately 19 respondents (12.7 percent) were between 26 and 30 years old, and 14 respondents (9.3 percent) ranged from 31 to 35 years old. The study identified only one respondent (0.7 percent) over 36.

6Aa.1 Gender Distribution of the Student Respondents

To analyse the resource access and other privilege disparities between men and women, one must also acknowledge gender as a critical factor. Furthermore, understanding the differences in behaviour patterns and other activities between the two genders is equally crucial. Therefore, when we chose student respondents for the study, we aimed to guarantee equal representation of both genders. However, as the figure below illustrates, differences in availability and voluntary participation among girls/women have contributed to the observed disparities.

Figure No. 6.2: Gender Distribution of the Student Respondents.



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure 6.2 above illustrates the distribution of respondents by gender. Out of the total 150 respondents, the study conducted interviews with approximately 63 female respondents (42.0 percent) and 87 male respondents (58.0 percent). The study selected them from public and private colleges, including Bangalore University (BU), a state university.

6Aa.2 Residence Patterns of Students and Accommodation Details

When analysing socio-economic status, the most significant factor is the information about residence patterns. The significance heightens in India, where resources are unevenly distributed among the population. Disparities in facility distribution exist between urban and rural areas. As a result, the type of residential region, the specific residential area, and the place of residence directly influence students' educational attainment. Throughout history, there has been a pattern of marginalizing and denying essential amenities to marginalized groups, including the Scheduled Castes. Consequently, this has resulted in the regions and places of residence for the Scheduled Castes being ranked comparatively lower than those of more

privileged castes. The subsequent table presents the information regarding the selected student respondents' region, residential area, and place of residence.

Table No. 6.1: Residence Patterns of the Student Respondents

Type of Region	No of Responses & percentage	Type of Residential Area	No of Responses & percentage	Type of Residence	No of Responses & percentage
Village	24 (16.0%)	Slum	62 (41.3%)	Own House	84(56.0 %)
Semi-Urban	8 (5.4 %)	Layout	64 (42.7%)	Rented or leased	66 (44.0%)
Urban	118(78.6%)	Village	24(16.0 %)	Others	NA
Total	150(100%)		150(100%)		150(100%)

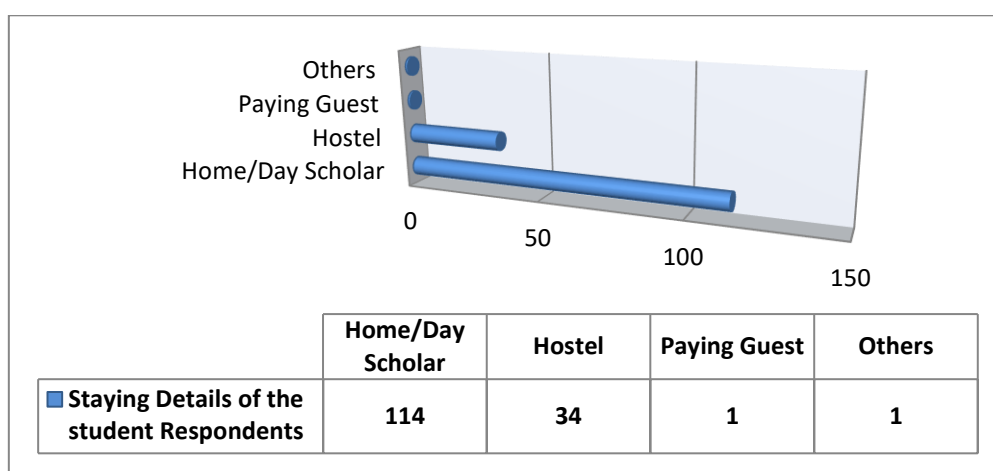
Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

The above table (Table No. 6.1) displays three distinct categories of residential information. The initial two columns depict the regions from which the student respondents originate. The largest proportion of respondents, 118 (78.5 percent), hail from the Bengaluru urban area. The remaining participants are divided among rural areas, comprising 24 (16 percent) and semi-urban areas, totalling 8 (5.4 percent). The study highlights that 78.6 percent of the population resides outside the Bangalore area, yet they have managed to secure admission to Bangalore University (a state institution).

The third and fourth columns of the table illustrate the student respondents' specific residential areas. Among the 150 respondents, 62 (41.3 percent) reside in slum areas, 24 (16 percent) live in villages within Karnataka, and 64 (42.7 percent) inhabit layout areas.

The fifth and sixth columns of the table outline the types of residence for the student respondents. Among the 150 participants, 84 (56.0 percent) reside in their own homes, while 66 individuals (44.0 percent) live in rented or leased accommodations.

Figure No. 6.3: Student Accommodation Details.



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure 6.3 illustrates the data concerning the students' accommodation in the city. Among the 150 student responses, the study unearthed that 114 students (76.0 percent) functioned as day scholars, as they resided with their parents and commuted using regular transportation. Conversely, 34 students (22.7 percent) opted to stay in the dormitories provided by educational institutions. Furthermore, one (1) student (0.7 percent) found accommodation at a relative's residence; another student (1) (0.7 percent) received lodging in a paying guest house by their parents during the current field study. Consequently, day scholars constituted the most significant proportion of respondents in the study. Nevertheless, the investigation also revealed that many students travelling to the city from various regions within Karnataka were willing to reside in hostel environments lacking amenities. The revelation shows that limited government institutions did not provide hostel facilities to all enrolled students, especially within the limited government institutions.

6Aa.3 Annual Income of the Students' Family

The annual income range of families determines the nature of their children's education, and this range is also directly linked to the family's social status in Indian society. As a result, this income range directly affects students' access to and participation in various educational frameworks. Table No. 6.2 categorizes the annual income into five segments according to the study.

Table No. 6.2: Educational Background of Students' Parents

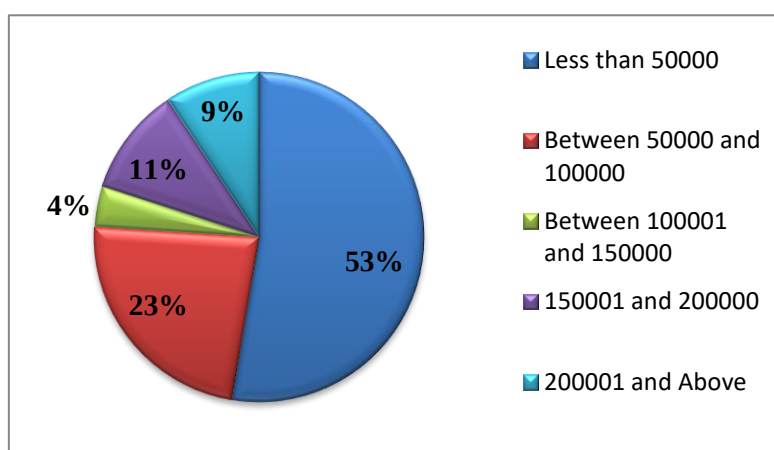
Qualification	Mothers' Educational Qualification	Fathers' Educational Qualification
Uneducated	70 (46.7%)	47 (31.3%)
Primary Education	35 (23.3%)	40 (26.7%)
Secondary Education	27(18.0%)	35 (23.3%)
Intermediate Education.	9(6.0%)	10 (6.7%)
Graduation	5(3.3%)	9 (6.0%)
Post-Graduation and Above	3(2.0%)	9 (6.0%)
Others	1(0.7%)	NA
Total	150(100%)	150 (150%)

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Table No. 6.2 depicts the educational background of the student's parents. Parents' educational qualifications are directly linked to their children's academic achievements, as their knowledge and experiences significantly influence the child's cognitive development. The first column of the table outlines the educational backgrounds of the student respondents' mothers. Based on the data, nearly half of the mothers, or 70 (46.7 percent) respondents, have no formal education. Meanwhile, 35 (23.3 percent) have completed primary education, and 27 (18 percent) have finished high school. Approximately 9 (6.0 percent) of the respondents' mothers have attained secondary education, and 5 (3.3 percent) have obtained diplomas. Merely three (2.0 percent) of the student respondents were able to achieve a post-graduate degree or higher, and only one (0.7 percent) mother of these students completed a diploma program.

The educational background of the fathers of the student respondents is detailed in the table's second column. As per the table, approximately 40 (26.7 percent) fathers have completed primary education, while 35 (23.3 percent) have finished secondary school. About 47 (31.3 percent) fathers are illiterate. Furthermore, 10 (6.7 percent) fathers of respondents have completed their intermediate studies, 9 (6.0 percent) respondents' fathers have earned their degrees, and an additional 9 (6.0 percent) respondents' fathers have achieved a post-graduate degree or higher. This table underscores that some parents had completed primary education while the majority were illiterate. Consequently, they might encounter difficulties encouraging their child to pursue higher education under these circumstances. Moreover, these parents lacked awareness about the scope, structure, and state of higher education in India and the broader world.

Figure No. 6.4: Annual Income of Students' Families



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Out of the 150 respondents, 79 (53 percent) families reported annual incomes of less than 50,000 rupees. Slightly over 35 (23 percent) students stated that their family's income falls between 50,000 and 1,000,000 rupees. Additionally, 6 (4 percent) mentioned having an income ranging from 1,00,001 to 1,50,000 rupees. 16 (11 percent) students reported yearly incomes between 500,000 and 2,000,00 rupees. Furthermore, 14 (9 percent) respondents had an annual income exceeding 2,00,000 rupees. Gathering accurate family income information proved challenging. Families determined this figure based on professional judgment, which remained unverified or unexamined. According to this study, over 50 percent of families had lower incomes.

6Aa.4 Details of Migration

Bengaluru holds the second-largest spot as a destination for migrants in India, following Mumbai, with 42.12 percent of its population originating from outside the district or the state (Rao, 2019). The city's population consists of inter-district and inter-state migrants, accounting for 30.27 percent, according to the 2001 Census. As the Times of India reported, Bengaluru's migrant population crossed 50 percent. In 2011, Bengaluru's population reached 96.2 lakhs, of which 44.3 lakhs were categorized as migrants, making up approximately 50.6 percent. Among these 44.3 lakh migrants in Bengaluru, 3.6 lakh belong to the Scheduled Castes (TNN, 2019).

Table No. 6.3: Details of Migration

Migrated Status	No of the Student Respondents	Total Years of Stay	No. of Students	Name of the Origin State	No. of Student Respondents
No	88(58.7 %)	Less than 5 years	18(12 %)	Andhra Pradesh	42(28 %)
Yes	57(38%)	5 to 10 years	13(8.7 %)	Tamil Nadu	12(8%)
Prefer not to Answer	5(3.3%)	11 to 15 years	5(3.3%)	Others. (Internal Migration)	6(4%)
		More than 15 Years	114(76.0 %)	Not Applicable	90(60%)
Total	150(100%)	Total	150(100%)	Total	150(100%)

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Table 6.3 represents the three facets of migration: migration status, total years of residence, and state of origin. Among the 150 student respondents, 57 (38.0 percent) stated they migrated to Bengaluru from other districts in Karnataka or neighbouring states such as Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Telangana, and Kerala. This information pertains to the students' migration status. Moreover, 88 (58.7 percent) respondents confirmed that they do not fall into the category of migrant families within Bengaluru City. Meanwhile, 5 (3.3 percent) respondents chose not to respond to this question.

The study categorised the participants' total years of residence in Bengaluru City into four significant groups. Among the 150 students who participated in the survey, 114 (76.0 percent) reported having lived in the city for more than 15 years. This group includes families who migrated to the city and have resided there for over three decades. About 5 (3.3 percent) student respondents anticipated staying for 11 to 15 years. Furthermore, 13 (8.7 percent) students arrived in Bengaluru five to ten years ago, while 18 (12 percent) respondents stated they moved to the city within the past five years.

Among the 150 respondents, 42 (28 percent) hailed from Andhra Pradesh, and 6 (4 percent) respondents originated from other districts within Karnataka. Additionally, 12 (8 percent) students came from Tamil Nadu.

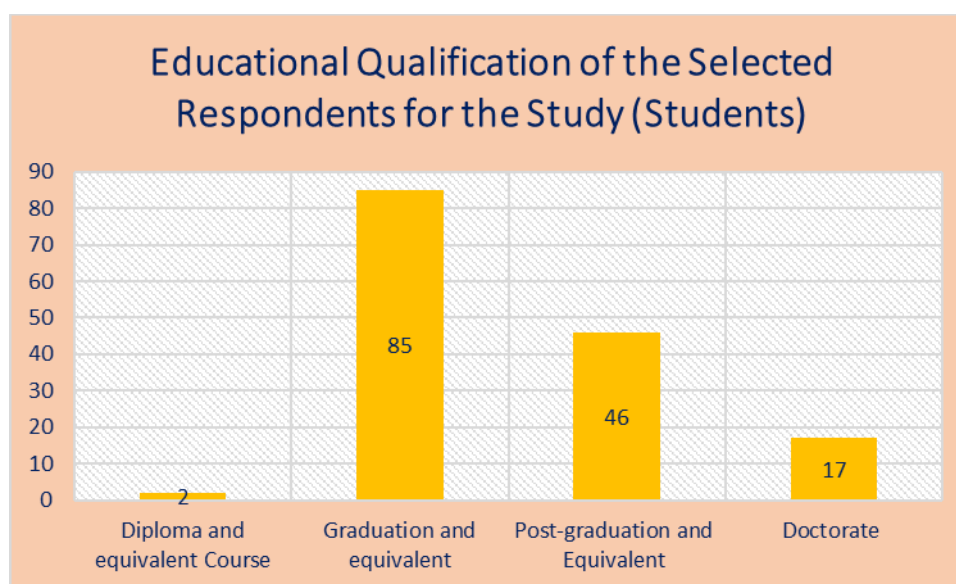
6Ab. Educational Qualification and Institutional Details of the Student Respondents

The study collected extensive data from student respondents who play a central role in the higher education landscape in Karnataka. The data encompasses their educational qualifications and institutional details, shedding light on the specific contexts in which they pursue their academic journeys. This study aims to provide a nuanced understanding of how the privatization of higher education has affected SC students in Karnataka. It seeks to uncover their academic journey's challenges, opportunities, and disparities.

6Ab. 1 Educational Qualification of Student Respondents

The study, which aims to understand how the privatization of higher education affects Scheduled Castes in Karnataka, particularly in Bengaluru Urban District, carefully chose the respondents based on their educational qualifications.

Figure No. 6.5: Educational Qualification of Student Respondents



The data in Figure 6.5 above elucidates the educational qualifications of the selected 150 student respondents. The following categories represent the different levels of educational qualifications of the students who participated in the study.

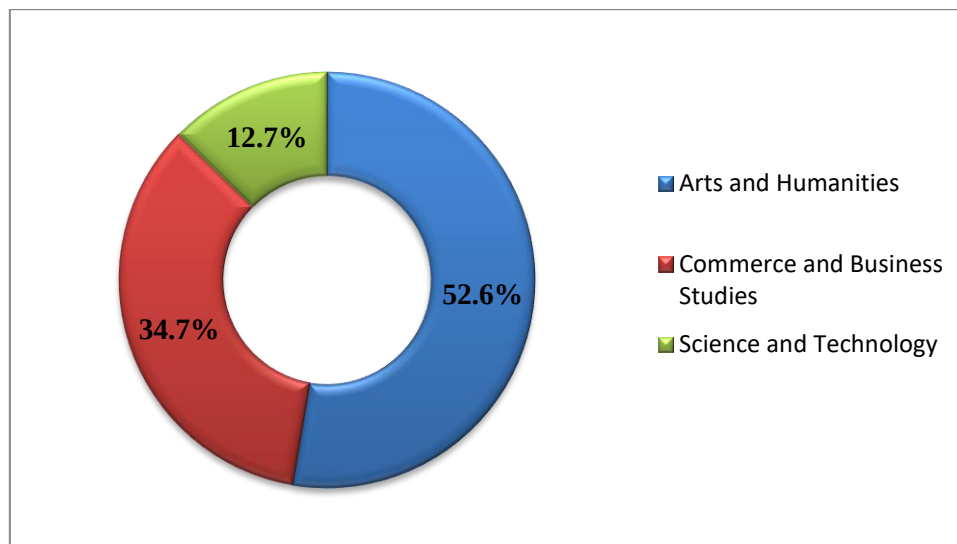
Firstly, in the ‘Diploma and equivalent course’ category, the study includes two (2) students pursuing or completing diploma programs or equivalent courses. Secondly, the study had a higher participation rate from the ‘Graduation and equivalent’ category, which includes 85 student respondents currently pursuing or having completed undergraduate or equivalent qualifications. Thirdly, the study consists of 46 student respondents enrolled in or have completed ‘post-graduate programs or equivalent qualifications.’ Lastly, the study had representation from 17 research scholars pursuing or having completed Doctoral degrees such as ‘PhD or equivalent courses.’ The Study selected students from both public and private institutions across all these categories.

The selection of the respondents was entirely voluntary, based on their willingness to participate in the study, considering their time and other research ethical considerations.

6Ab.2 Learning Streams of Student Respondents

Understanding the learning streams of student respondents is crucial for several reasons. It offers valuable insights into the learning opportunities available to the students and allows for analysing the problems and prospects they face when choosing a particular learning stream. The following data will provide an analysis of the learning streams of the selected student respondents.

Figure No. 6.6: Learning Streams of Student Respondents



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

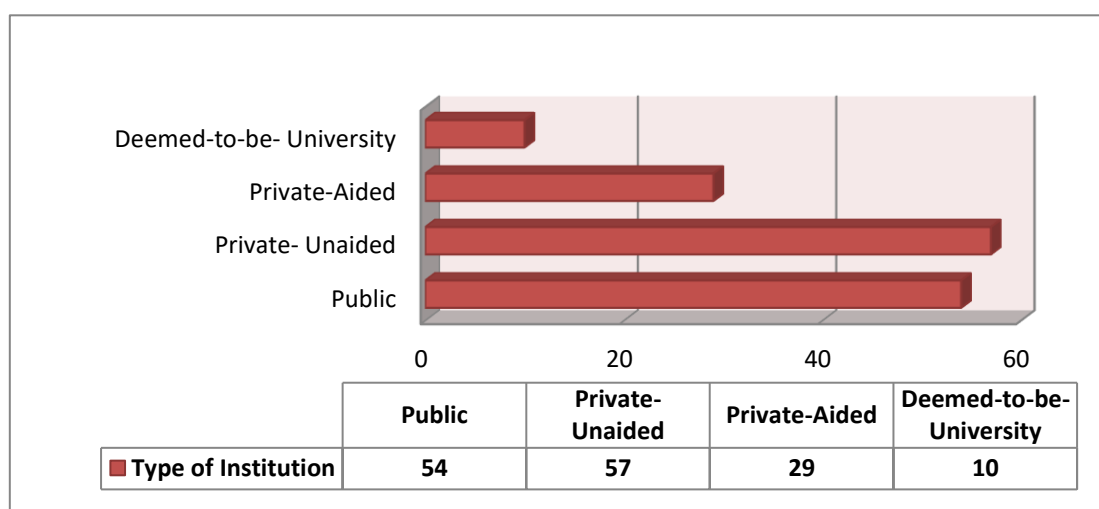
Figure 6.6 above illustrates the students’ learning streams. It unveils that approximately 68 respondents (45.3 percent) are enrolled in courses belonging to the arts and humanities stream, while 52 respondents (34.7 percent) come from the commerce and business studies stream.

Moreover, 19 respondents (12.7 percent) belong to the science and technology stream, and 11 (7.3 percent) are part of various other streams, including home science and physical education. Even though the intention was to include an equal number of students from every learning stream, most respondents were in the Arts and Humanities Streams.

6Ab.3 Educational Institution Types of the Student Respondents

Selecting the right educational institutions for students is crucial as it significantly affects their educational careers and learning outcomes. Unfortunately, choosing a suitable or specific educational institution is not the same for every student in India. Particularly, marginalized classes, including SC, ST, and OBCs, often encounter challenges when selecting courses and institutions due to economic constraints and the increasing demand for higher education. The following data discloses the type of educational institution that the student respondents are pursuing.

Figure No. 6.7: Educational Institution Types of the Student Respondents



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Based on the data in Figure No. 6.7 above, the researcher interviewed approximately 150 students. In the initial stage of student selection, the researcher chose colleges. The study classifies educational institutions into four groups. Of the 150 students, 54 (36.0 percent) attend public institutions, including Bengaluru's university, affiliated colleges, and First-Grade-Degree colleges. Whereas, Private, unaided institutions have an enrollment of 57 students (38 percent). Furthermore, only Ten (10) students (6.7 percent) are from Deemed-to-be universities, while 29 students (19.3 percent) attend aided colleges.

A visit to a private university revealed minimal representation from Scheduled Castes communities despite the study's intention to include students from private universities. The researcher faced numerous challenges while seeking administrative approval. Collecting data from the students during the COVID-19 pandemic proved especially difficult due to the severity of infections and the various rules and regulations in place.

6Ab.4 Reasons for Institution Selection by Student Respondents

In India, the reasons for students' selection of institutions can vary significantly from one community to another. One can attribute these differences to socio-economic, cultural, historical, and other personal choice and selection factors.

Table No. 6.4: Reasons for Institution Selection by Student Respondents

List of Reasons for Selecting the Institutions	No of Responses	Percentage
Near to Home	21	14.0 %
Suitable for Financial Constraints	39	26.0 %
Good infrastructure compared to the other colleges	2	1.3 %
Good teaching compared to other colleges	40	26.7 %
Advised by the Parents/friends and others	41	27.3 %
Others	7	4.7 %
Total	150	100.0 %

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

The study aimed to establish students' criteria in selecting their universities or colleges. Among the 150 respondents, 21 students (14.0 percent) indicated that proximity to their homes was the primary factor influencing their enrollment in specific colleges or universities, while 39 (26.0 percent) students based their selection on the financial suitability of the colleges or institutions. The presence of superior infrastructure compared to other colleges or institutions led to the choice for two (2) students (1.3 percent). Forty (40) students (26.7 percent) opted for colleges with better quality teaching. Within the group of 150 respondents, 41 students (27.3 percent) selected colleges solely due to their parents' or relatives' wishes and pressure.

Additionally, seven (7) students (4.7 percent) made their college choices influenced by personal preferences and external factors. When making their decisions, 27 percent of the students considered their parents' advice, and 26 percent weighed the quality of teaching. The study discovered that students frequently decided on a college or course, often considering their residential boundaries. The parents of these students were often unaware of available courses

and college options due to their lack of knowledge. Typically, these parents made decisions based on their financial capabilities to handle the burden.

6Ab.5 Admission Category of Student Respondents in the Institutions

In India, educational institutions admit students through various admission categories that primarily rely on merit, affirmative actions, sports achievements, differently-abled status, state domicile, economically weaker sections, and other criteria. These admission categories vary from one institution to another. The following data depicts the admission category of the student respondents in the study.

Table No. 6.5: Admission Category of Student Respondents in the Institutions

Category of Admission	No of Responses	Percentage
Reserved	83	55.3 %
Unreserved	64	42.7 %
Physically Challenged	1	0.7 %
Sports	2	1.3 %
Total	150	100.0 %

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Table No. 6.5 showcases the admission categories allocated to the students. The admission process for candidates, particularly in Indian public institutions, incorporated a range of quotas or affirmative action policies based on factors such as social and economic backwardness, physical disability, accomplishments, and other privileges.

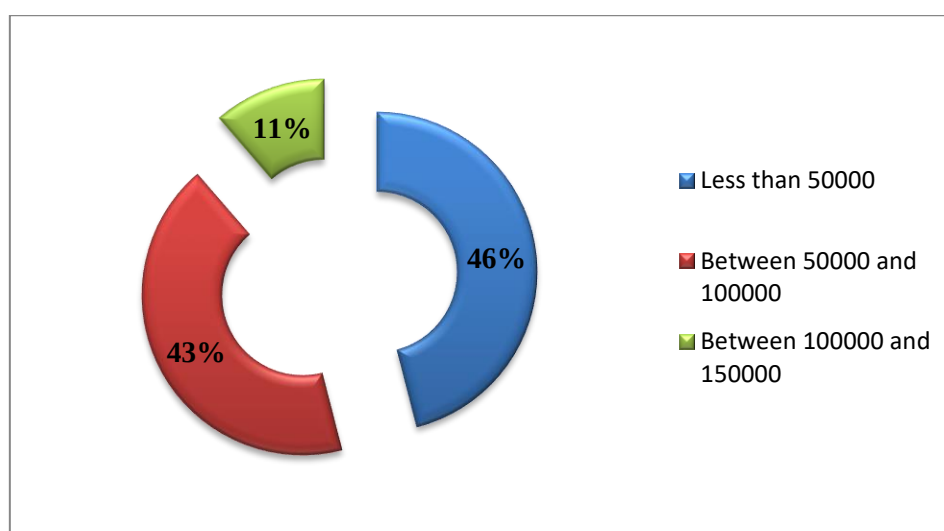
The study amassed admission data from 150 students. Among them, 83 (55.3%) students secured admissions under the reserved category for Scheduled Castes. Conversely, 64 students (42.7%) reported not obtaining admission through any reserved category in their respective institutions. Additionally, within the surveyed population, 1 (0.7%) respondent was granted admission under the physically challenged category, while the other 2 (1.3%) student respondents were admitted under the sports category and attended public institutions. Public universities and private-aided colleges or institutions upheld the quota system exclusively. Implementing the quota system was not obligatory for private universities or private, unaided colleges.

6Ab.6 Total Amount paid for the Fees, including Hostel Fees by the Student

Respondents

The amount of fees paid by student respondents in Indian educational institutions holds significant importance, as it encompasses various aspects such as affordability assessment, financial aid, and scholarships, making it easier to access higher education. The study aimed to comprehend the fees paid by the student respondents, reflecting the educational institutions' autonomy. The following data will illustrate the fees paid by the student respondents.

Figure No. 6.8: Total Amount paid for the Fees, including Hostel Fees, by the Student Respondents



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure 6.8 illustrates the extent of fees students pay to their respective institutions. The cost of higher education in India has evolved into a substantial financial commitment. Individuals also select institutions across various fee ranges that align with their financial circumstances. According to the provided data, the study categorised the fee structure into four brackets: less than 50,000 rupees per annum, between 50,000 and one lakh rupees, between 100,000 and 150,000 rupees, and finally, above 200,000 rupees per annum, although this category lacked representation in the figure.

Among the respondents, 69 students (46 percent) reported paying fees of less than 50,000 rupees per annum, leading to the highest number of student responses. A total of (43 percent) of students were paying fees ranging from 50,000 to 100,000 rupees. Approximately (11 percent) of students were enrolled in institutions charging fees between 150,000 and 200,000

rupees per annum. The study did not identify any students whose fee structure exceeded 200,000 rupees.

The study observed that most public and aided institutions charged lower fees, adhering to fee regulations stipulated by the government. Conversely, private universities and autonomous colleges imposed higher fees following their regulations. This situation poses an initial barrier for many scheduled caste students.

6Ab.7 Details about Donation

Educational institutions collect additional charges, such as donation or capitation fees, from students during admission. There are various reasons for imposing capitation fees, including ensuring access to quality education. However, this practice harms marginalized classes, burdening them financially, leading to economic exclusion, affecting students' aspirations, and causing other critical issues. The following data aims to ascertain how many current student respondents have borne the weight of such donations during their admission process and how it has influenced their choice of admission to their selected educational institutions.

Table No. 6.6: Details about Donation / Capitation Fees and Opinions of the Student Respondents Regarding the Fees Structure in the College/ University

Donation / Capitation paid to the Institutions	Number and Percentage of Respondents	Opinion of the students on the fee structure of the institution	Number and Percentage of Respondents
No	99(66.0 %)	Low	24(16.0 %)
Yes	46(30.7 %)	Moderate	87(58.0 %)
Prefer not to Answer	5(3.3%)	High	34(22.7 %)
		Very High	5(3.3 %)

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Table 6.6 presents the data concerning Capitation or donation payments made by students, along with their opinions regarding the fee schedules of their institutions. Among the 150 students who participated, 99 (66 percent) stated that they had not donated to their colleges or institutions. On the contrary, 46 students (31 percent) reported making such payments, while Five (5) students (3.3 percent) chose not to respond.

The study's second section encompassed inquiries about the students' perceptions regarding the fee schedules of their respective institutions. Of the 150 respondents, 24 students (16.0 percent) believed that the tuition fees were reasonable compared to other colleges. A majority of 87 students (58.0 percent) regarded the fees as being at a moderate level. Conversely, Five (5) students (3.3 percent) considered the fee structure to be notably high compared to other institutions in the Bengaluru district, and 34 students (22.7 percent) believed the fee structure to be high.

6Ab.8 Sources of Financial Support for Student Respondents in the Higher Education Sector

The sources of financial support for students in the Indian higher education sector represent a significant feature. It is crucial, particularly for marginalized castes, and it is the responsibility of the elected state to provide financial support to help them overcome financial burdens, increase access to education, promote social mobility, and foster positive societal change. Privatization of higher education and the neo-liberal policies in the higher education sector have transformed financial aid into a financial burden by introducing a loan system for obtaining education with a moral burden. Therefore, the following table aims to analyze the nature of financial support received by the student respondents.

Table No. 6.7: Sources of Financial Support for Student Respondents in the Higher Education Sector

Financial Sources	No of Responses	Type of Scholarship	No of Responses	Pursuing Part-time Job	No of Responses
Parent's Income	123 (82.0 %)	Centrally Sponsored Fellowship	16 (10.66 %)	No	105 (70.0 %)
Scholarships	21 (14.0 %)	State-Sponsored Fellowship/Scholarship	105 (70.01 %)	Yes	40 (26.7 %)
Others	6 (4.0 %)	None of Them	29 (19.33 %)	Preferred not to Answer	5 (3.3 %)

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Table 6.7 examines the three financial sources supporting Scheduled Caste Students' engagement and access to higher education. The initial two columns explore the financial circumstances of the student respondents. Among the 150 participants, 123 (82.0 percent) relied on their parents to cover tuition and other expenses. Additionally, 21 out of 150 students who responded depended on different scholarships to meet their financial requirements.

According to the data above, the third and fourth columns delve into the types of scholarships or fellowships accessed by the students. The study categorised scholarships or fellowships into three primary groups: fellowships sponsored by the central government, diverse fellowships sponsored by states, and others. The table also includes the count of students who did not apply for fellowships. Approximately 16 students (10.66 percent) of the respondent pool received National Fellowship for Scheduled Castes (NFSC), Junior Research Fellowship (JRF), and other centrally sponsored fellowships. State governments extended fellowships to around 105 students (70.01 percent), while 29 students (19.33 percent) did not avail of any scholarships or fellowships.

The last two columns focus on the student respondents' engagement in part-time employment. As per the data, most student respondents—105 in total—did not undertake part-time work to manage their fees and other expenses; they were primarily financially reliant on their parents. However, 40 (26.7 percent) of the student respondents engaged in one or more part-time jobs across various service industries. As noted earlier, the remaining Five (5) students (3.3 percent) opted not to respond to this question.

6Ab.9 Student Seating Patterns in Classrooms and Their Motivations

The classroom's seating pattern and its motivations can significantly impact students, as it affects various aspects of classroom inclusivity, peer interactions, classroom engagement, visibility, participation, accessibility, educational equity, representations, and the sense of empowerment. Therefore, the following data seeks to gather information about the seating patterns and motivations of the student respondents.

Table No. 6.8: Student Seating Patterns in Classrooms and Their Motivations

Seating pattern in the classroom	No. of Responses and Percentage	Reason for particular Seating pattern	No. of Responses and Percentage
Front Rows	29 (19.3 %)	Preventing Class Interaction	7 (4.7 %)
		Comfortable	81 (54 %)
Middle Rows	51(34 %)	with Friends Group	3 (2 %)
		For Better Concentration	20 (13.3 %)
Last Rows or Corners of the Class	18(12 %)	To Interact with Teachers	12 (8 %)
		Wherever get Seat	16 (10.7 %)
No Fixed Place	52(34.7 %)	Prefer Not to Answer	11 (7.3 %)
Total	150(100 %)	Total	150(100 %)

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Table No. 6.8 illustrates students' seating arrangements and explanations for their preferences. According to the provided data, out of the 150 respondents, 29 students (19.3 percent) indicated a preference for the front rows, 51 students (34 percent) favoured the middle rows, and 18 students (12 percent) opted for seating at the back of the class or in corners. Additionally, 52 students (34.7 percent) expressed a willingness to sit anywhere in the class.

The table also highlights the reasons behind the students' chosen seating arrangements. The majority, 81 students (54 percent), felt most comfortable with their particular seating choice. Seven students (4.7 percent) said they selected their seats to avoid interacting with other students. Three students (2 percent) preferred to sit with their friend's group. Twenty students (13.3 percent) cited an improved focus as their choice. Twelve students (8 percent) believed their chosen seating position facilitated better interaction with the teachers. Sixteen students (10.7 percent) stated they were indifferent to the seating arrangement and willing to sit wherever convenient. However, 11 students (7.3 percent) did not respond to this question.

6Ab.10 Student Awareness and Engagement with MOOCs

Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) have become crucial for the current educational system to reach a global audience. The usage of MOOCs has steadily increased, particularly

following the COVID-19 pandemic. Incorporating MOOCs into the education of students in India is of utmost importance as it enhances accessibility and participation across all communities and offers flexibility, cost-effective learning, global networking opportunities, and various other benefits. In this context, the study aims to assess the awareness of these MOOC platforms to gauge the challenges and opportunities faced by the student respondents in adapting to the modern education system.

Table No. 6.9: Student Awareness and Engagement with MOOCs

Awareness about Distance learning/ MOOCs	No of Responses	Pursuing any course from DL/ MOOCs	No of Responses
No	90(60.0 %)	Not Applicable	90 (60.0%)
Yes	60(40.0 %)	No	46(30.7 %)
		Yes	14(9.3 %)
Total	150(100 %)	Total	150 (100 %)

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

* Massive Open Online Course (MOOC)

Table 6.9 accounts for students' awareness and inclination toward distance learning courses, including MOOCs (Massive Open Online Courses). Of the 150 students who participated, only 60 (40 percent) reported engaging in courses through distance learning, encompassing MOOCs and other platforms. Conversely, 90 student respondents (60 percent) indicated unfamiliarity with these distance learning avenues.

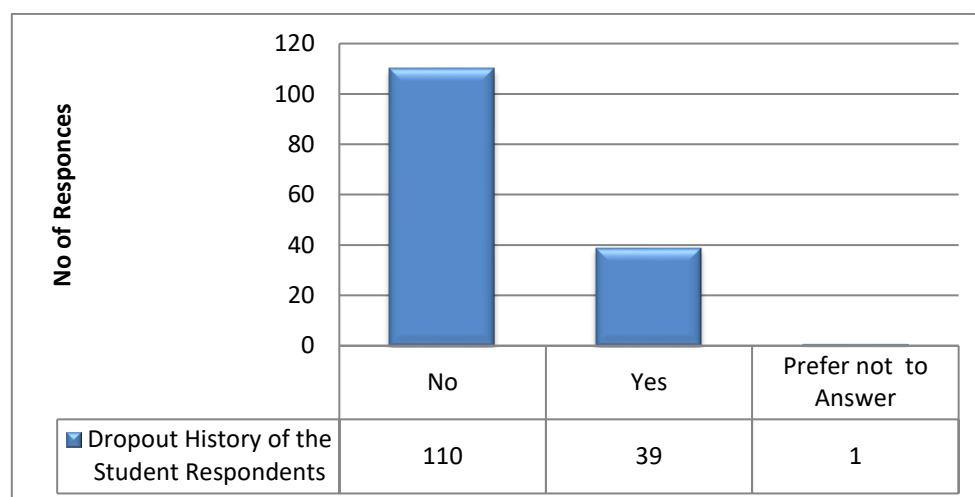
The subsequent section delves into the factors influencing student respondents to pursue MOOC courses. Merely 14 students (9.3 percent) out of the 60 respondents with experience with distance learning mentioned their enrollment or plans to enrol in courses that align with their interests. Additionally, 46 student respondents (30.7 percent) expressed disinterest in further engagement with MOOCs.

6Ab.11 Dropout History of the Student Respondents

In India, marginalised communities often face higher dropout rates than privileged classes. The factors contributing to student dropout depend on aspects such as socioeconomic background

and support systems. The following data illustrates the dropout history of the student respondents in their respective academic journeys.

Figure No. 6.9: Dropout History of the Student Respondents



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

The dropout history of the student respondents is depicted in Figure 6.9 above. As per the presented data, the majority of students, 110 (73.3 percent), stated that they had not experienced previous interruptions in their studies. Conversely, 39 student respondents (26.0 percent) acknowledged having discontinued their studies for various reasons, such as test failures or inability to clear required entrance exams. One student (0.7 percent) out of the 150 respondents expressed hesitation in responding to these questions.

6Ab.12 Existence of Student Organisations and Student Respondents' Membership Information

Student organizations in educational institutions play an essential role in shaping behaviour and educational experiences by providing opportunities for personal and professional development, fostering a sense of belonging, and enhancing leadership qualities. Therefore, the study aims to examine the presence of student organizations in the selected educational institutions and the roles of the student respondents within these existing student organizations.

Table No. 6.10: Existence of Student Organisations and Student Respondents'**Membership Information**

Existence of the student Organisations in the Institutions	No. of Responses and percentage	Membership in the Student Organisations	No. of Responses and percentage
Yes	55 (36.7%)	No	12(8%)
		Yes	43 (28.7 %)
No	95 (63.3%)	Not Applicable	95(63.3 %)
Total	150 (100%)	Total	150 (100%)

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Table 6.10 presents data on student organisations within college or university campuses, including details about students' memberships in those organisations. Out of the 150 students who responded, only 55 students (36.7 percent) reported being members of student organisations on their respective campuses. Notably, these 55 respondents are exclusively associated with public universities. Among the 55 student respondents who affirmed the presence of student organisations at their colleges or institutions, 43 students (28.7 percent) indicated participation in multiple such organisations on campus. Avoid the roster method and prioritise fostering rationalistic thinking while cultivating democratic, scientific, and research-oriented mindsets. Most 95 student respondents (63.3 percent) expressed that their college or institution lacks student organisations.

6Ac Student Perspectives on the Present State of Higher Education and the Privatisation Trend

Understanding and considering students' perspectives on the current higher education system trend is crucial for making the higher education system more inclusive. Students are the primary recipients of minor adjustments in the current educational structure. Student perspectives are also significant for evaluating factors such as quality improvement, policy formulation, inclusivity and equity in educational access, affordability concerns, future relevance, and gaining a holistic understanding of the higher education system. The study aimed to gather the opinions of the selected student respondents on several essential aspects of their studies and curriculum.

6Ac.1 Student Opinions on College/University Fee Structure

Understanding student perceptions of the fee structure offered by educational institutions is essential for comprehending their affordability concerns regarding their chosen fields of study. Understanding and analysing student perceptions aids parents, institutions, and policymakers in making education more accessible, affordable, and equitable, thus building a robust education system.

Table No. 6.11: Student Opinions on College/University Fee Structure

Sl. No	Particulars	Responses in Numbers	Percentage (%)
1	Low	24	15.4 %
2	Moderate	87	55.8 %
3	High	34	21.8 %
4	Very High	5	3.2 %
Total		150	100 %

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Table No. 6.11 above illustrates the students' perspectives concerning the fee structure at their respective colleges. According to the provided data, 24 students (15.4 percent) perceived their fees as lower than those of other institutions in the Bengaluru urban area. Around 87 students (55.8 percent) expressed that their fee structure falls within a moderate range. Additionally, 34 students (21.8 percent) believed their fee structure to be high, while five (5) students (3.2 percent) mentioned that their fees are very high compared to other colleges or institutions, taking into account their economic circumstances. The study also documented instances where a few students reported harassment from institutions due to irregular or delayed fee payments.

6Ac.2 Student Perceptions of Discrimination by Administrative Staff

The students' perceptions of discrimination by the administration staff are significant as they mirror the lived experiences of discrimination among the student respondents. Addressing these perceptions becomes crucial for establishing a more equitable and inclusive higher education system that offers equal opportunities to all academic students without discrimination. The following data aims to depict these experiences of discrimination by the administration staff in their respective educational institutions.

Table No. 6.12: Student Perceptions of Discrimination by Administrative Staff

Sl. No	Particulars	Responses in Numbers	Percentage
1	No	95	60.9 %
2	Yes	23	14.7 %
3	Prefer not to Answer	32	20.5 %
Total		150	100 %

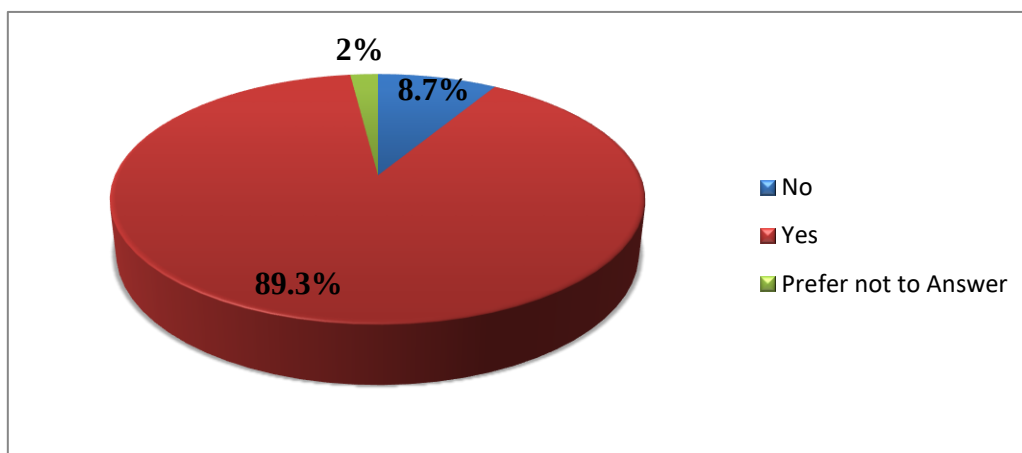
Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Table No. 6.12 above elaborates on the role of administrative staff, encompassing clerks and other management, in their interactions with students. According to the data, 23 students (14.7 percent) noted discriminatory behaviour exhibited by administrative staff in colleges or educational institutions, citing diverse reasons. In contrast, 95 students (60.9 percent) said they had not experienced discrimination from administrative staff. Moreover, 32 students (20.5 percent) did not respond to this question.

6Ac.3 Student Responses to Equal Opportunity in the Classroom

Classroom equity is a significant social justice issue and a crucial driver for national economic development, social integration, and the fulfilment of human rights. It establishes equal spaces for all sections of society by rectifying historical injustices and deprivations. Therefore, the study seeks to understand how the classrooms in the Indian higher education system are providing equal opportunities for marginalized classes, especially the SCs.

Figure No. 6.10: Student Responses to Equal Opportunity in the Classroom



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure 6.10 above discusses the issue of equal opportunity and the classroom environment. Among the 150 student respondents, 13 individuals (8.7 percent) believed they had not been

provided equal opportunities in the classroom compared to their peers. In contrast, 134 respondents (89.3 percent) asserted that they had ensured equal opportunities for everyone and had not engaged in discrimination in this context. As a result, only three (3) students (2.0 percent) chose not to respond to the earlier question.

6Ac.4 Student Respondents' Feedback on Interaction Patterns

Students should engage in non-discriminatory interactions with their classmates, free from caste prejudice. It will enable the students to share their knowledge, perspectives, and insights while fostering collaboration and teamwork to expose them to diverse viewpoints and perspectives. However, today's classrooms in the current education system have become highly politicized and culturally diverse. In this context, the following data unveils the interaction patterns of the student respondents in the study.

Table No. 6.13: Student Respondents' Feedback on Interaction Patterns

Particulars	No of Responses	Percentage
Same Language Students	41	27.3 %
Same Gender Students	3	2.0 %
Same Ideology Students	15	10.0 %
Same Region Students	1	0.7 %
Interact with Everyone	81	54.0 %
Prefer not to Answer	9	6.0 %
Total	150	100.0

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

The study investigated the interaction patterns of scheduled caste students within the classroom. Table 6.13 above displays the interaction dynamics between students and respondents in educational settings. Among the 150 respondents, 41 students (27.3 percent) expressed their willingness to engage with peers who share the same language due to their limited proficiency in English.

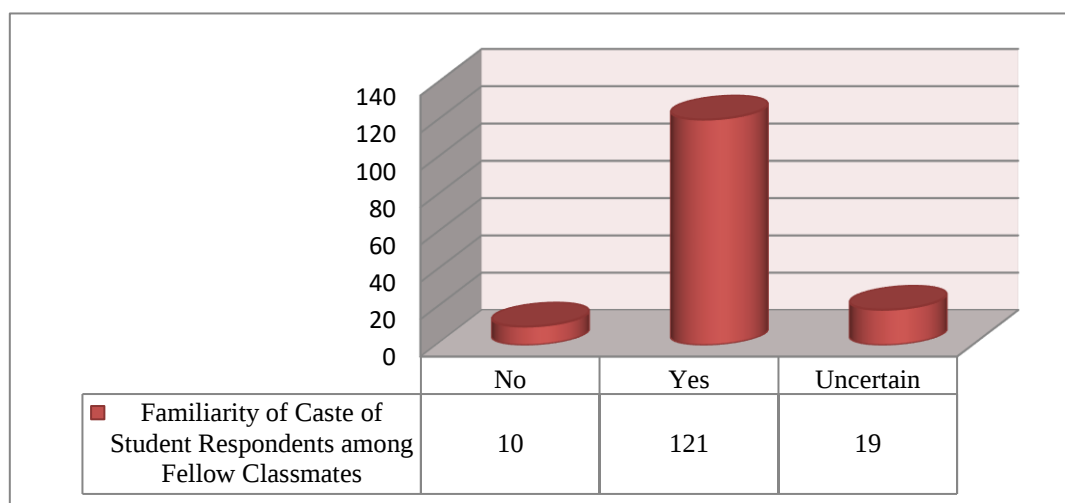
Only three (3) students (2.0 percent) indicated a willingness to interact with students of the same gender. About 15 students (10.0 percent) responded that they would interact with those with a similar ideology or mindset. One respondent mentioned being open to interacting with fellow students from the same region. Most respondents, totalling 81 (54.0 percent), expressed

openness to interacting with anyone without specific limitations. A small group of 9 students (6.0 percent) opted not to respond.

6Ac.5 Student Caste Awareness Among Classmates

Identifying a student's caste among classmates can have significant negative implications, including reinforcing stereotypes, fostering discrimination, and causing emotional distress. However, it is a sad reality of Indian society that a person's caste has become their primary identity. Due to the privileges accorded to certain classes and the prejudice many marginalised classes face, some individuals may be reluctant to identify with their castes openly. Thus, the following study aims to comprehend students' awareness of caste among their classmates.

Figure No. 6.11: Student Caste Awareness Among Classmates



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

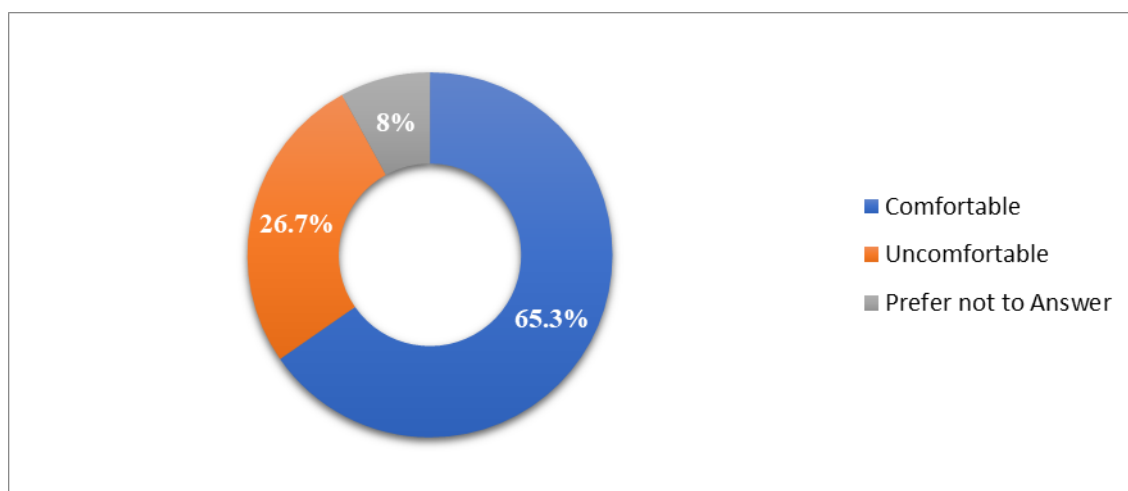
Figure 6.11 above portrays the extent to which students' classmates are knowledgeable about their caste background. Out of the 150 participating students, 121 individuals (80.7 percent) acknowledged that their classmates were acquainted with their respective castes. On the other hand, Ten (10) students (6.7 percent) noted that their classmates lacked familiarity with their caste. Roughly 19 students (12.7 percent) indicated uncertainty about whether their classmates knew about their caste affiliation.

6Ac.6 Student Opinions on Disclosing Their Caste Background to Fellow Students

The fear of revealing their caste background among marginalized classes, especially the Scheduled Castes in India, is deeply ingrained due to historical and societal discrimination linked to caste identities. They are concerned about the potential for stigmatization, discrimination, stereotyping, social isolation, harassment, academic bias, loss of privacy,

pressure to conform, negative past experiences, psychological well-being, and concern for their families. Because of these reasons, many individuals opt to conceal their caste identity, and this phenomenon is particularly prevalent in educational and employment institutions. The following figure portrays the opinions of the student respondents in the study regarding the disclosure of their caste to their fellow students.

Figure No. 6.12: Student Opinions on Disclosing Their Caste Background to Fellow Students



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure No. 6.12 depicts the psychological aspect of student respondents disclosing their background to their peers. According to the data, 98 (65.3 percent) out of 150 student respondents felt at ease disclosing their caste to their classmates. It suggests that the responding students do not perceive any sense of inferiority due to their caste background. In contrast, around 40 (26.7 percent) of the surveyed students expressed discomfort sharing their caste with their classmates during class discussions. Approximately 12 (8.0 percent) of the surveyed students chose not to express a particular opinion.

6Ac.7 Discrimination Incidents Against Scheduled Castes Students in College/University

The current higher education system has undergone many changes in its structure and policies, and in fact, these changes have been more favourable to students from privileged backgrounds, including those who can afford the prescribed tuition fees. However, these policy changes have also given rise to new forms of discrimination based on religion, economic status, caste, and

other factors. In this context, the study seeks to understand the types of discrimination or discomfort experienced by the student respondents.

Table No. 6.14: Discrimination Incidents Against Scheduled Castes Students in College/University

Experience of discrimination	No of Responses	Nature of the Discrimination	No of Responses
No	56(37.3 %)	Language	39 (26 %)
		Caste	7 (4.7 %)
Yes	60(40 %)	Class or Status	3 (2 %)
		Religion	1 (0.7 %)
		Ideological Background	2 (1.3 %)
Not Aware	34(22.7 %)	Body Appearance	3 (2 %)
		Region	1 (0.7 %)
		Colour	2 (1.3 %)
		Others	2 (1.3 %)
		Not Applicable	90 (60 %)

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Table No. 6.14 delves into the experiences of Scheduled Castes students facing discrimination in colleges and universities. According to the provided data, 60 (40 percent) out of the 150 students reported encountering instances of discrimination in their college or university. In contrast, 56 (37.3 percent) of the student respondents stated they had not observed any such prejudice against scheduled caste members. Additionally, approximately 34 (22.7 percent) respondents were uncertain about discrimination in colleges or other institutions.

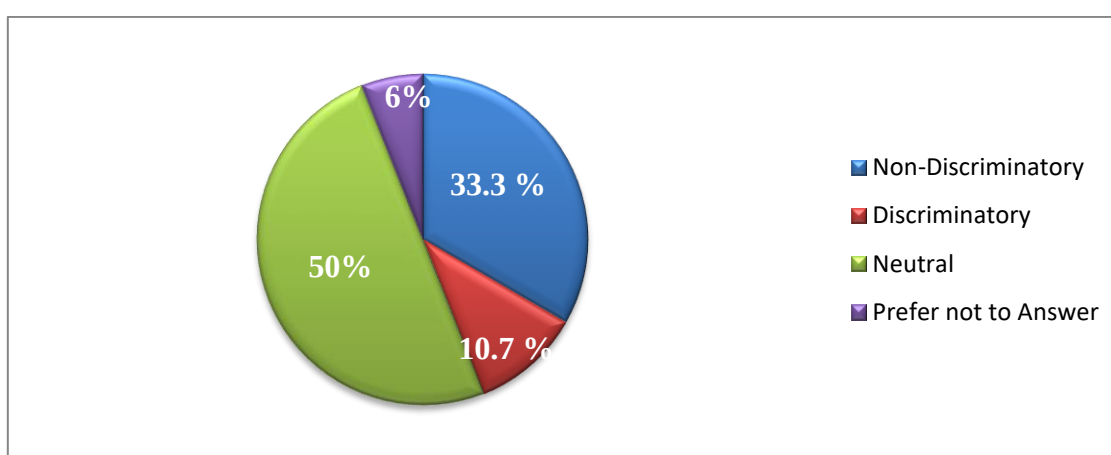
The table also outlines the nature of discrimination experienced by the surveyed students. Specifically, among the 60 respondents who reported discrimination, 39 (26.0 percent) cited language as the basis, and 7 (4.7 percent) mentioned caste-related discrimination. According to 3 (2.0 percent) respondents, discrimination stemmed from socio-economic status. One (0.7 percent) student believed that religious differences led to discrimination, while Two (2) students (1.3 percent) identified ideological disparities. Three more respondents (2.0 percent) recognised discrimination based on appearances and identities. In one case (0.7 percent), discrimination was linked to the place of residence, and 2 (1.3 percent) respondents expressed

dissatisfaction with their skin tone. Additionally, 2 (1.3 percent) respondents attributed discrimination to factors within their respective colleges or institutions.

6Ac.8 The behaviour of teachers toward the Student Respondents

The behaviour of teachers toward students from marginalized classes holds crucial importance as it significantly influences their educational experiences, academic performance, self-esteem, and overall well-being. Positive teacher-student interactions can establish an inclusive and equitable learning environment, with teachers serving as mentors and guides to help students navigate educational challenges. Teachers' behaviour can also play a vital role in combating discrimination against students. In this context, the study aims to understand the behaviour of teachers toward students from marginalized classes, particularly the Scheduled Castes.

Figure No. 6.13: The behaviour of teachers toward the Student Respondents



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure 6.13 above illustrates how teachers interact with the student respondents. Among the 150 students who participated, only 16 individuals (10.7 percent) believed that certain teachers deliberately discriminated against them for other reasons. However, 50 student respondents (33.3 percent) asserted that their teachers displayed discriminatory behaviour consistently. Conversely, 75 students (50.0 percent) indicated that the teachers did not exhibit any discriminatory behaviour. Additionally, Nine (9) students (6.0 percent) opted not to respond to this question.

6Ac.9 Student Perspectives on Higher Education Privatisation in India

Students constitute the primary stakeholders in the higher education system, and their perspectives, concerns, and experiences should guide decisions regarding privatization, directly influencing their educational journey. Comprehending student perspectives aids in assessing the impact of privatization policies on educational equity, the quality of education offered by private institutions, the financial burden on students and their families, and issues related to diversity and inclusivity. It also sheds light on using public funds to ensure accountability and transparency. The following table presents the opinions of the student respondents regarding their support for the privatization of higher education and their understanding of the current privatisation status in India.

Table No. 6.15: Student Perspectives on Higher Education Privatisation in India

Whether Supporting the Privatisation of Higher Education	No of Responses	Opinion on the status of Privatisation of Higher Education in India	No of Responses
No	109(72.7 %)	Fully Satisfied	11(7.3 %)
Yes	35(23.3 %)	Partially Satisfied	44(29.3 %)
		Unsatisfied	85(56.7 %)
Prefer not to Answer	6(4 %)	Prefer not to Answer	10(6.7 %)
Total	150	Total	150

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Table No. 6.15 presents the students' perspectives on the support for higher education in the country, its privatisation, and their views on the current state of higher education in India. Among the 150 student respondents, the data shows that 109 students (72.7 percent) do not endorse the nationwide privatisation of higher education. Conversely, 35 students (23.3 percent) believe that privatisation contributes positively to the country's progress, while Six (6) students (4.0 percent) chose not to respond to this query. Researchers believe this perspective is largely represented by students attending private institutions, reflecting their satisfaction with India's privatisation of higher education.

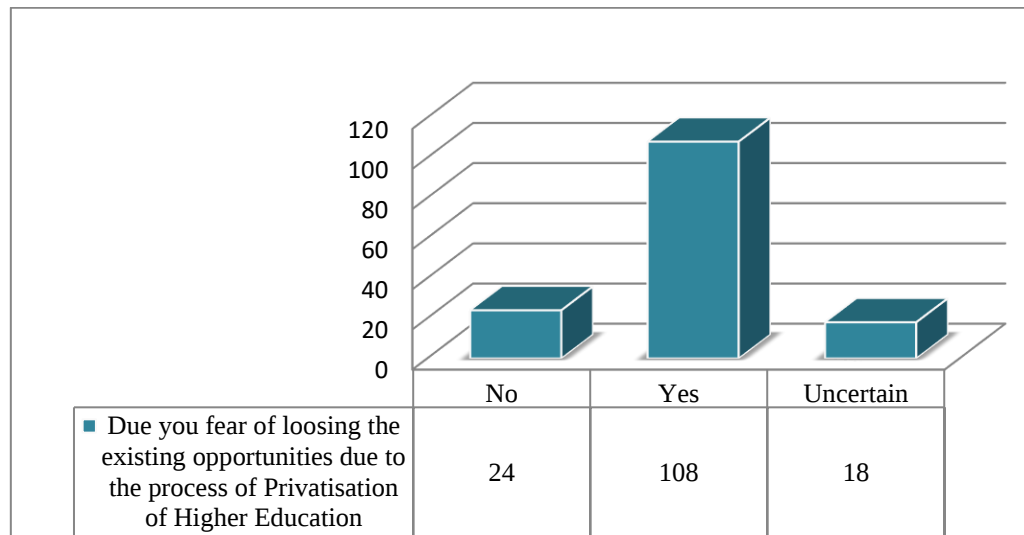
Of the 150 students, only 11 (7.3 percent) expressed satisfaction with privatising higher education in India. However, a majority of 85 students (56.7 percent) conveyed dissatisfaction with the proliferation of private education in the nation. Additionally, 44 students (29.3 percent)

expressed partial satisfaction. Nevertheless, Ten (10) students (6.7 percent) opted to withhold their response and refrain from answering the researcher's question.

6Ac.10 Opinion of the Student Respondents regarding the loss of opportunities by the Scheduled caste due to the process of Privatisation of Higher Education

It is essential to gather the opinions of student respondents from marginalized communities regarding the opportunities lost due to the privatization of higher education in India. It is crucial for promoting equality and accountability in the educational system. Their opinions are valuable for assessing the real impact of privatization on higher educational opportunities, evaluating the effectiveness of privatization policies, and highlighting affordability concerns. Furthermore, their opinions often catalyse advocacy and reform efforts and contribute to effective policymaking. The following figure illustrates the opinions of SC student respondents regarding the loss of opportunities resulting from the increasing privatization of higher education.

Figure No. 6.14: Opinion of the Student Respondents regarding the loss of opportunities by the Scheduled Caste due to the process of Privatisation of Higher Education



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

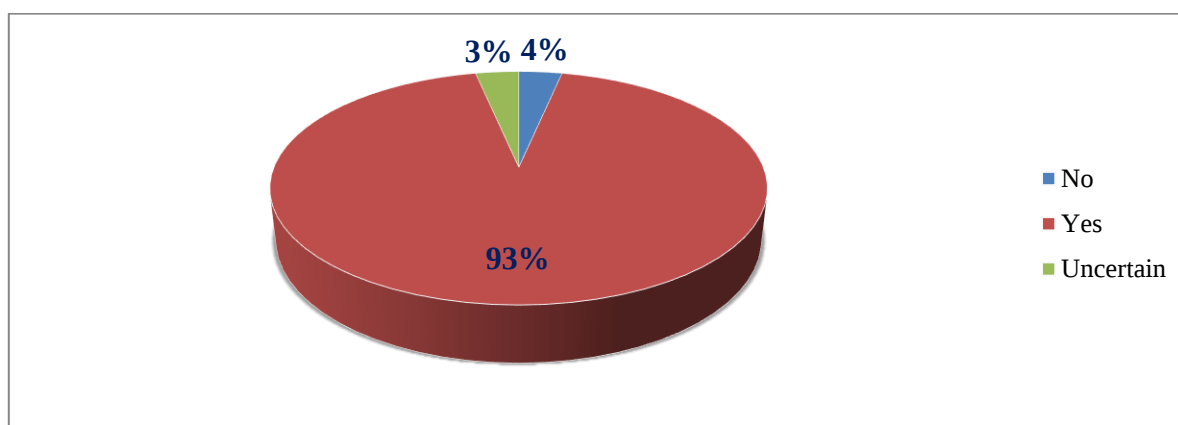
Figure No. 6.14 illustrates the students' opinions regarding their concern over the loss of opportunities due to the increasing privatisation of higher education. Among the 150 students who responded, 108 (72.0 percent) indicated that the growing privatisation of higher education results in the loss of opportunities for disadvantaged individuals. However, 24 respondents (16.0 percent) believed that privatising higher education does not adversely affect the opportunities for India's Scheduled Castes. Additionally, 18 (12.0 percent) of the student

respondents were unaware of the adverse effects of higher education privatisation on the Scheduled Castes in India.

6Ac.11 Student Perspectives on Reservation Support for Scheduled Castes in Private Institutions

Reservations or affirmative actions represent one of the essential characteristics of Indian democracy, designed as a positive discriminatory practice to uplift socio-economic conditions. Reservation policies ensure that marginalized classes have access to various areas to address historical injustices by providing educational and social mobility opportunities for students from these backgrounds. The gradual withdrawal of support from public institutions has reduced reservation benefits for marginalized classes, and the imposition of privatization has negatively affected the reservation system. Today, reservations are gradually weakening. However, some communities are advocating for the inclusion of reservations for marginalized classes in private institutions, including education and employment. Thus, the study aims to understand student perceptions regarding this debate, and the following figure illustrates the perceptions of the selected student respondents regarding reservation support for SCs in private institutions.

Figure No. 6.15: Student Perspectives on Reservation Support for Scheduled Castes in Private Institutions



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure no. 6.15 represents the opinion of the student respondents regarding the support for the reservation of scheduled caste in higher education institutions, especially in the private sector. Out of 150 students, 140 (93.3 Percent) replied and believed that reservation in the private sector is the only solution for developing scheduled caste in India. Therefore, they have

supported the reservation in the private sector. A total of 5 students (3.3 percent) stated that reservations were not necessary for Scheduled Castes in the private sector. Here, the researcher noted that children from financially stable and socially respected families could not comprehend the benefits of reservation for marginalised sections in India. 5 (3.3 per cent) students were unwilling to answer this question.

Section - 6 B

UNDERSTANDING SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILES AND PARENTAL PERCEPTIONS

‘Section 6 B’ covers the parent responses. In this study, parents constituted the second type of respondents. These participants were the parents of students who participated in the study. However, the participation of parents decreased due to the non-residential status of student families in Bengaluru’s urban area and the COVID-19 situation in India. Consequently, the study included only half of the parent population compared to the student sample. Through in-person interviews conducted using an interview schedule, the researcher engaged with 75 parents who willingly participated in the study.

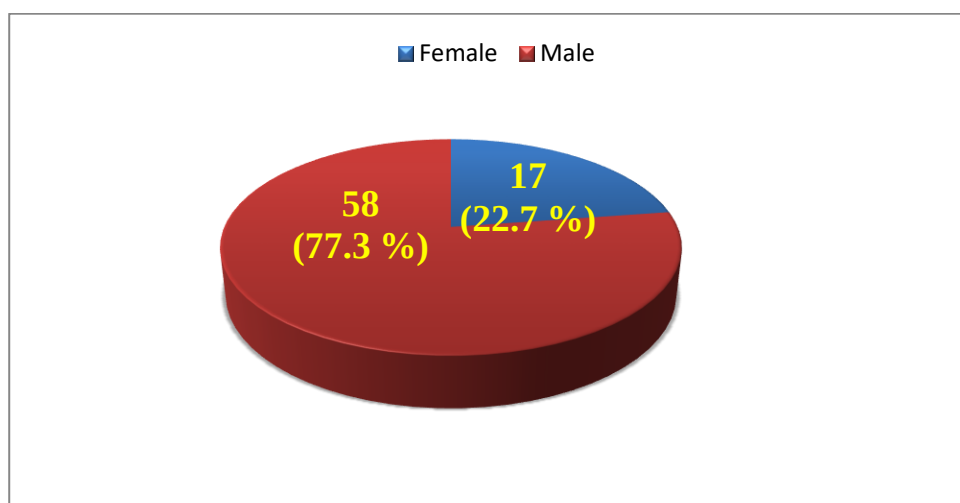
This section aims to understand socio-economic status by analysing factors such as gender, educational attainment, marital status, family type and size, and parents’ awareness of their children’s academic performance. Additionally, the subsequent pages discuss the impact of privatisation and the challenges and perspectives related to higher education in general.

6Ba Socio-Economic Profiles of the Parent Respondents

The study of the parent respondents' socio-economic profiles is vital and holds profound significance in understanding the dynamics of modern societies. As the cornerstone of any community, parents play an essential role in shaping their families' social fabric, economic stability, and overall well-being. A systematic investigation of the socio-economic backgrounds sheds light on the diverse experiences and challenges parents face and offers valuable insights into the broader socio-economic landscape of a region or nation. The following sections deal with the various aspects of the socio-economic conditions of the parents to understand their problems and challenges to educate their child in the growing higher education landscape.

6Ba.1 Gender Composition of Parental Respondents

Figure No. 6.16: Gender Composition of Parental Respondents



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure No. 6.16 presents the gender of the selected parent respondents. In the study, the researchers treated the mother and the father as a single unit. Initially, the researchers gave them the choice to participate voluntarily as respondents. Typically, only those who could effectively address the researcher's inquiries agreed to an interview. Consequently, out of the 75 parents chosen for the survey, 58 (77.3 percent) were men, and 17 (22.7 percent) were women from the Bengaluru urban district. The researchers observed that female respondents from the selected parent families displayed apprehension and hesitation to participate in the study. However, single mothers and those who held authoritative positions willingly engaged in the interview.

6Ba.2 Marital Status of the Parent Respondents

Table No. 6.16: Marital Status of the Parent Respondents

Particulars	No of Responses	Percentage
Married (Together)	67	89.3 %
Widow	8	10.7 %
Divorced/ Separated	0	0 %
Total	75	100.0 %

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Table No. 6.16 presents the marital status of the respondents. Family is one of the most vital social structures, contributing to a robust support system within a responsible society. In analysing parents' marital status, the study discovered that among the 75 respondents, 8 (10.7 percent) were widows or single mothers, shouldering the exclusive responsibility for their family's well-being. Additionally, 67 (89.3 percent) families had both mother and father present. The study did not come across any respondents who were divorced or separated from their spouses. In the contemporary world, providing education to a child is a formidable challenge, with escalating fee structures and other factors significantly impacting a child's educational trajectory. Sometimes, both parents must work to realise their child's aspirations. The study acknowledged single parents' challenges in accessing social and financial support for their children's education.

6Ba.3 Educational Qualification of the Parent Respondents

Table No. 6.17: Educational Qualification of the Parent Respondents

Educational Qualification	Father of the selected student Respondents	Mother of the selected student Respondents
Illiterate	17(22.7 %)	27(36 %)
Schooling	38(50.7 %)	37(49.3 %)
Under-graduate	13(17.3 %)	10(13.3 %)
Graduation and above	7(9.3 %)	1(1.3 %)
Total	75(100 %)	75(100 %)

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

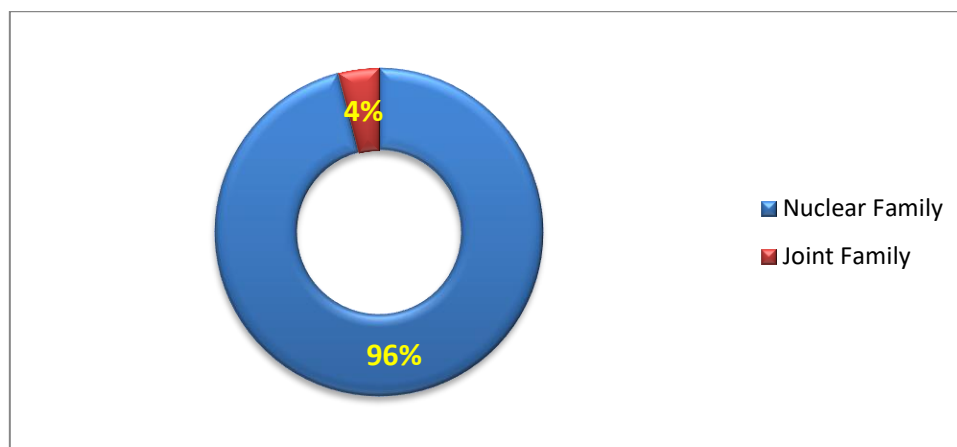
Parents' education directly influences children's access and participation in education and other developmental sectors. Educated and analytically skilled mothers often contribute to well-functioning families. Additionally, children frequently aspire to surpass their parents' educational achievements. Consequently, the researcher inquired about the educational backgrounds of both parents.

Table No. 6.17 (father) presents the level of education of fathers. As per the table, 17 (22.7 percent) of the responding fathers are illiterate, 38 (50.7 percent) have completed secondary education, 13 (17.3 percent) have attained an undergraduate degree, and merely 7 (9.3 percent) have achieved a graduate degree or higher.

The data in the table above also encompasses the educational history of the responding mothers. The data indicates that approximately 27 (36 percent) of the respondents have a high school diploma, while 37 (49.3 percent) have completed only primary school. Additionally, 10 (13.3 percent) of the 75 parents who participated in the survey reported having undergraduate degrees. Among the 75 parents, merely 1 (1.3 percent) of the responding mothers have completed their education.

6Ba.4 Family Types of the Selected Parent Respondents

Figure No. 6.17: Family Types of the Selected Parent Respondents



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

The figure above illustrates the family types of the selected parent respondents for the study. India has a unique history of joint families, a longstanding tradition. However, nuclear families are progressively on the rise today, while the prevalence of joint families is diminishing. Increased industrialisation, especially after India adopted the LPG policy, has shifted family dynamics and can be attributed to the rise of nuclear families. Joint families historically held a greater sense of collective responsibility towards their members.

Conversely, individual responsibilities within the much smaller nuclear families represent a smaller fraction of all family relationships. The data in Figure No. 6.17 reveals that among the 75 families, 72 (96.0 percent) were nuclear families, while only 3 (4.0 percent) were identified as joint families in the study. These joint families typically comprised a maximum of 8–12 members.

6Ba.5 Family Size of Parent Respondents and Children in Higher Education

Table No. 6.18: Family Size of Parent Respondents and Children in Higher Education

Total members in the family of the Parent Respondent	No of Responses	Total Children in the a family who is pursuing Higher Education	No of Responses
Between 3-4 Members	38(50.7 %)	Only One	42(56 %)
Between 5-6 members	31(41.3 %)	2 to 3 members	31(41.3 %)
Between 6-8 members	3(4 %)	More than 3 members	2(2.7 %)
More than 8 Members	3(4 %)		
Total	75(100 %)	Total	75(100 %)

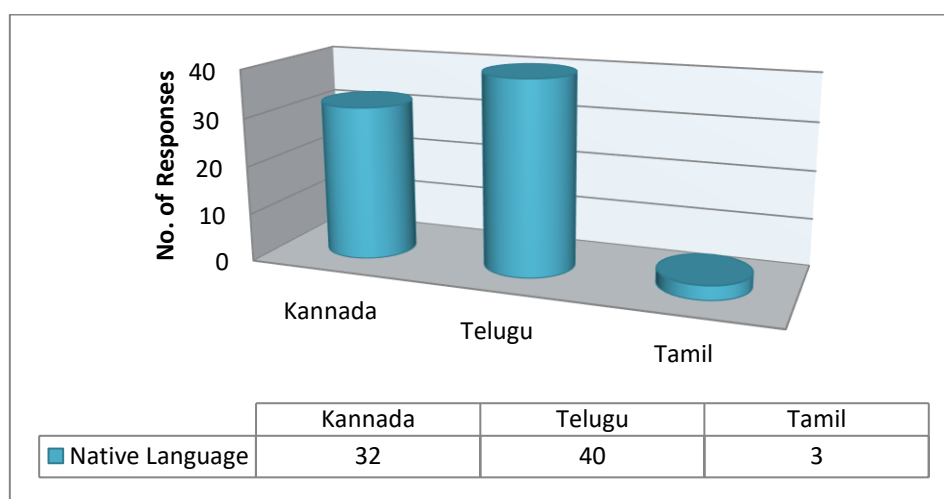
Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

The researcher aimed to comprehend the family structure to assess the psychological pressure and level of commitment involved in raising children. The table above provides information about the total number of members in the family and the count of children pursuing higher education. Among the 75 randomly selected parent respondents (displayed in the first two columns), 38 (50.7 percent) belong to families with three to four members. Additionally, 31 (41.3 percent) respondents indicated that their families comprise 5 to 6 members, while 3 (4.6 percent) indicated a family size of 6 to 8. Only three (3) individuals (3.4 percent) mentioned families with more than Eight (8) members.

Of the 75 families, 42 (56 percent) have only one student pursuing higher education. Furthermore, 31 (41.3 percent) families reported having 2 to 3 students enrolled in higher education. Only 2 (2.7 percent) families claim to have more than three (3) higher education students within their household.

6Ba.6 Mother Tongue / Native Language Spoken by Parent Respondents

Figure No. 6.18: Mother Tongue / Native Language Spoken by Parent Respondents



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure No. 6.18 focuses on the native language of the parent respondents within the city. Among the 75 parents, 32 (42.7 percent) were Kannada speakers, 40 (53.3 percent) were from Telugu-speaking community families, and only 3 (4.0 percent) belonged to Tamil-speaking families. Additionally, respondents who spoke other languages were able to understand Kannada.

6Ba.7 Native Place of Parent Respondents

Table No. 6.19: Native Place of Parent Respondents

Particulars	No of Responses	Percentage
Karnataka	34	45.3 %
Andhra Pradesh	38	50.7 %
Tamil Nadu	3	4.0 %
Total	75	100.0 %

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

The table mentioned above, No. 6.19, covers the native locations of the parent respondents. As per the data, 34 (45.3 percent) of the 75 respondents' families identified Karnataka as their home state. On the other hand, 38 respondents (50.7%) stated that Andhra Pradesh was where they were born. Only 3 (4.0 percent) respondents claimed to have moved from Tamil Nadu to Bengaluru.

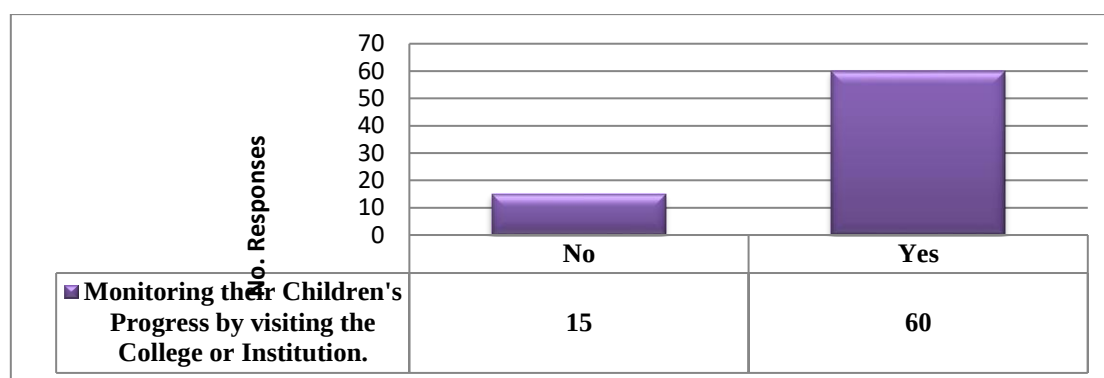
6Bb Perceptions of The Parents

Parents' perceptions regarding the role and responsibility of educating their children within the context of the privatisation of higher education are of utmost relevance and significance in today's evolving educational landscape as the dynamics of higher education continue to undergo transformative changes. Parent's attitudes and beliefs regarding their involvement in their child's academic journey play a pivotal role in shaping the outcomes and experiences of students.

By analysing the parental perspectives on this matter, the study aims to inform educational policymakers, institutions, and stakeholders about the alignment or misalignment of parental expectations with the realities of the privatisation of higher education. Thus, the following study analyses the various insights of the parents on various factors of challenges of privatisation of higher education.

6Bb.1 Parental Assessments on College/Institution Visits for Monitoring Children's Progress

Figure No. 6.19: Parental Assessments on College/Institution Visits for Monitoring Children's Progress

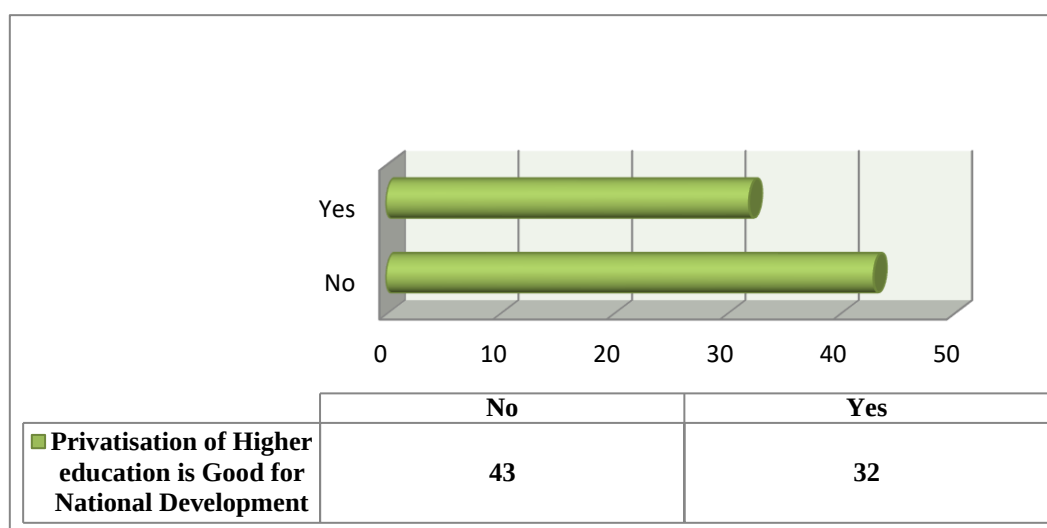


Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure No. 6.19 displays the responses of the parent respondents, providing insights into how parents monitor their children's progress by visiting colleges or other institutions. Among the 75 respondents, 60 (80.0 percent) of the parent respondents mentioned visiting colleges or universities to stay informed about their children's well-being. Additionally, 15 (20.0 percent) of the parent respondents indicated experiencing minimal fear or anxiety when visiting their children's college or other institutions. As a result, mothers often participate in this observation process alongside their children.

6Bb.2 Parental Perspectives on the Effect of Higher Education Privatisation on National Development

Figure No. 6.20: Parental Perspectives on the Effect of Higher Education Privatisation on National Development



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure 6.20 above illustrates the viewpoints of parent respondents regarding the role of private higher education in national development. “National development” encompasses progress in various aspects such as politics, economics, society, culture, science, and material well-being. It signifies a nation’s capacity to elevate its citizens’ living standards, indicating its development level. Among the 75 parent responses, only 32 (42.7 percent) respondents believed private higher education would contribute to national development. Conversely, the majority, comprising 43 (57.3 percent) respondents, believed private higher education does not facilitate national development.

6Bb.3 Indicators for Assessing the Contribution of Higher Education Privatisation to National Development.

Table No. 6.20: Indicators for Assessing the Contribution of Higher Education Privatisation to National Development

Particulars	No of Responses	Percentage
Provides Good education compared to public institutions	14	18.7 %
availability of best infrastructure facilities compared to public institutions	7	9.3 %
Teaching and Curriculum are more progressive than in public institutions	11	14.7 %
Not Applicable	43	57.3 %
Total	75	100.0 %

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

The table above discusses the responses of 14 parents (18.7 percent) who indicated that privatisation could offer better education compared to public institutions. Additionally, Seven (7) parents (9.3 percent) believed privatisation leads to superior infrastructure facilities compared to public institutions. Moreover, 11 parents (14.7 percent) argued that privatisation fosters more progressive teaching methods and curricula than public institutions. However, 43 parents (57.3 percent) regrettably believed that privatising higher education was not conducive to the nation's overall development.

6Bb.4 Parental Perspectives on Public Institutions in Karnataka

Table No. 6.21: Parental Perspectives on Public Institutions in Karnataka

Particulars	No of Responses	Percentage
The number of Institutions has to be increased	21	28.0 %
Funding for Public Institutions has to be Increased	30	40.0 %
The privatisation of Public Institutions must stop	22	29.3 %
There is no need for any changes as they are the best functioning than Private Institutions	2	2.7 %
Total	75	100.0 %

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

The above table outlines the perspective of parent respondents regarding the state of public institutions in Karnataka. According to the data presented in Table 6.21, 28.0 percent of the respondents believe that public higher educational institutions in Karnataka should enhance their development by increasing the number of institutions. Additionally, 30.0 percent of parent respondents indicated the necessity of augmenting funding for public institutions. About 29.3 percent of parents believed that the privatisation of public institutions should cease immediately. Furthermore, nearly 2.7 percent of respondents felt no changes were required as public institutions outperformed private institutions.

Section - 6C

TEACHER PERSPECTIVES ON HIGHER EDUCATION AND ITS PRIVATISATION: ANALYSING CHALLENGES AND OUTLOOKS

Teachers constitute a significant group of stakeholders in this study. The researcher interviewed approximately 50 teachers to comprehend the effects of higher education privatisation on Scheduled Caste students and themselves. The researcher also aimed to gain insight into Scheduled Castes students' academic achievements and conduct as perceived by teachers. Ultimately, teachers are among the primary stakeholders who can directly witness the impacts of policy modifications. This section encompasses at least two case studies illustrating discrimination teachers face due to their caste background.

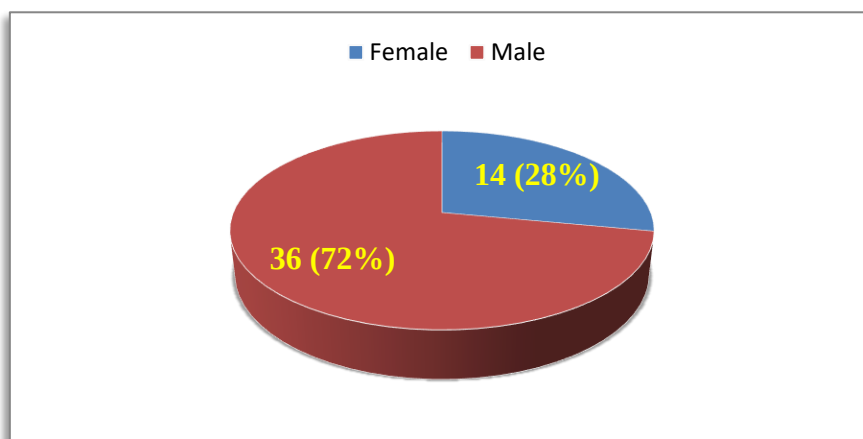
6Ca Socio-economic profile of the teachers

As the commercialisation of education continues to reshape the educational landscape, the socio-economic backgrounds of educators become a critical factor in shaping the quality and equity of the learning experience. Unlike the socio-economic profile of students and parents, which has received substantial attention, the socioeconomic profile of teachers remains a relatively unexplored facet of the educational ecosystem.

By examining the socio-economic profile of teachers, the current research seeks to contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the multifaceted challenges and opportunities that arise in the commercialized education system. Ultimately, it aims to inform policy decisions, professional development strategies, and teacher recruitment efforts to enhance the quality, inclusivity, and fairness of education for all students, regardless of their students, regardless of their socioeconomic backgrounds.

6Ca.1 Gender Distribution Among Teacher Respondents

Figure No. 6.21: Gender Distribution Among Teacher Respondents

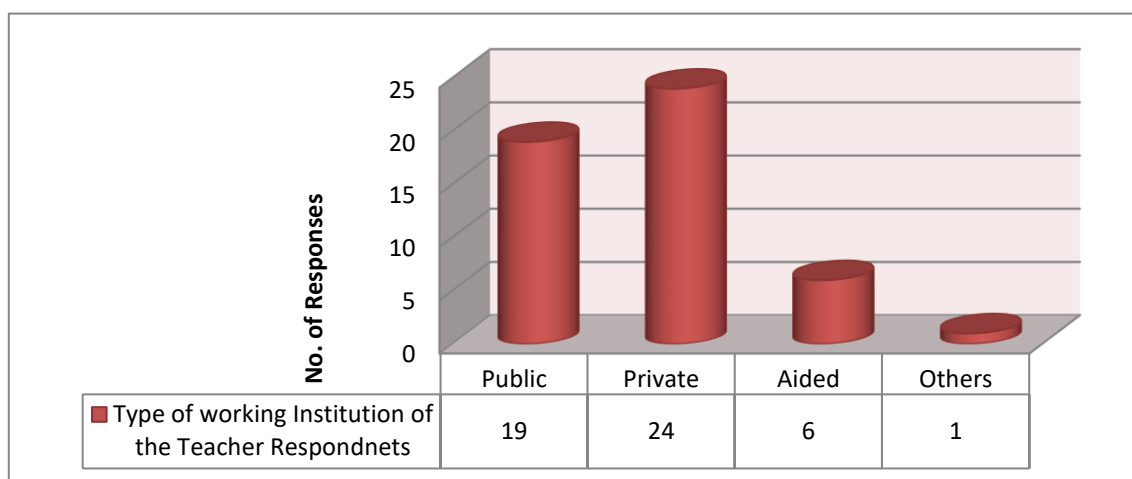


Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure 6.21 above illustrates the gender distribution among the selected teacher respondents for the study. Of the 50 teacher respondents, 36 (72.0 percent) are male, and 14 (28.0 percent) are female. Researchers selected these teachers from both private and public institutions and colleges.

6Ca.2 Employment Institutions of Teacher Respondents

Figure No. 6.22: Employment Institutions of Teacher Respondents



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure 6.22 above depicts the type of workplace of the responding teachers. Among the 50 teacher respondents, 19 (38.0 percent) were selected from public institutions, 24 (48.0 percent) from private institutions, 6 (12.0 percent) from aided institutions, and 1 (2.0 percent) from a private university.

6Ca.3 Age Range of Teacher Respondents

Table No. 6.22: Age Range of Teacher Respondents

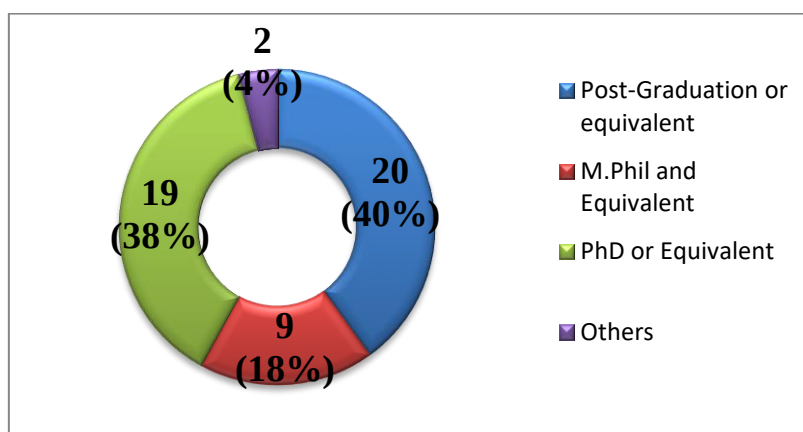
Age-scale	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Between 20 and 30 Years	6	12.0 %
Between 31 and 40 Years	28	56.0 %
Between 41 and 50 years	11	22.0 %
50 years and above	5	10.0 %
Total	50	100.0 %

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

The age distribution of the teacher respondents is outlined in Table 6.22 above. The researcher categorised the age range into four main groups. Among the total respondents, 6 (12.0 percent) teachers fall within the 20–30 age range. Additionally, 28 (56.0 percent) of the teacher respondents are between 31 and 40 years old, while 11 (22.0 percent) are between 41 and 50. Finally, a minority of 5 (10.0 percent) respondents are aged 50 years and above.

6Ca.4 Educational Qualifications of Teacher Respondents

Figure No. 6.23: Educational Qualifications of Teacher Respondents

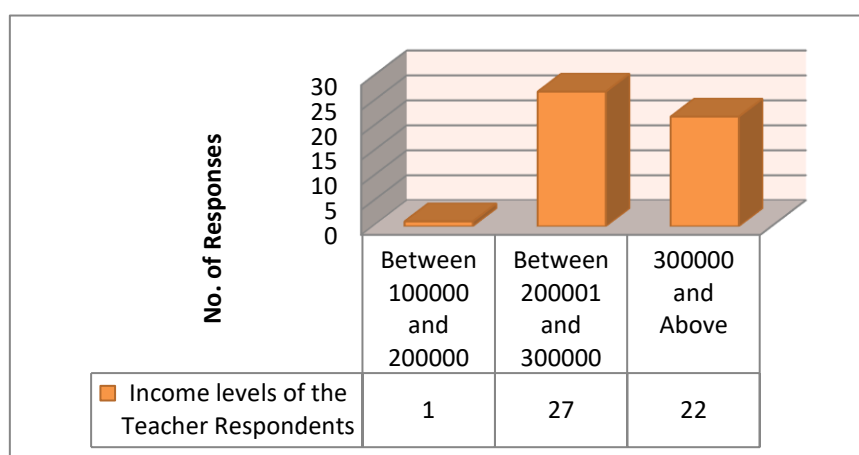


Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure 6.23 above illustrates the educational qualifications of the teacher respondents. Among the 50 selected teacher respondents, 20 (40.0 percent) have attained post-graduation and equivalent degrees, while 9 (18 percent) have completed their M.Phil and equivalent courses. Additionally, 19 (38 percent) teacher respondents hold PhD or equivalent qualifications, and 2 (4.0 percent) teachers have pursued teacher training courses to educate students at higher educational institutions.

6Ca.5 Income Levels of Teacher Respondents

Figure No. 6.24: Income Levels of Teacher Respondents



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

The table above depicts the income levels of the teacher respondents. Among the 50 selected teachers, approximately 27 (54.0 percent) fall into the income range of 2,00,000 to 3,00,000. Additionally, 22 (44.0 percent) teacher respondents earn an annual income of 3,00,000 and above. Only 1 (2.0 percent) respondent indicated receiving a salary scale between 1,00,000 and 2,00,000.

6Ca.6 Teacher Respondents’ Reasons for Choosing Teaching as Their Profession

Table No. 6.23: Teacher Respondents’ Reasons for Choosing Teaching as Their Profession

Particulars	No of Respondents	Percentage
Passion	39	78.0 %
Temporary Option	6	12.0 %
Others Influence	1	2.0 %
Other Reasons	4	8.0 %
Total	50	100.0 %

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

The table above labelled 6.23, illustrates the teachers’ responses regarding their teaching profession choice. Of the 50 respondents, 39 (78.0 percent) stated that passion is the primary motivation for choosing to teach. 6 (12.0 percent) respondents mentioned that teaching is a temporary option as they prepare for another profession. 1 (2.0 percent) respondent indicated that they entered this profession due to the influence of others. Additionally, 4 (8.0 percent) respondents had various reasons for selecting teaching as their profession.

The study recognised teachers as key respondents for comprehending the impact of higher education privatisation at the institutional level. The study presented open-ended questions to gain insights from teachers’ perspectives (Assistant, Associate, and Professors). The upcoming pages will present information in three categories: positive, negative, and neutral viewpoints.

6Cb Teacher Perceptions on Higher Education and Its Privatisation in India and Karnataka

The current study focused on teaching professionals, especially those from the Scheduled Castes, who play a pivotal role in shaping the educational landscape. The study aimed to unravel educators’ nuanced perceptions regarding the privatisation of higher education,

specifically focusing on India and Karnataka. Through this examination, the study intended to contribute valuable insights to the ongoing discourse surrounding the transformation of higher education and its consequences for equitable access and social justice. The study sought to shed light on the multifaceted impact of privatisation on both institutions and the marginalised communities they served, particularly the Scheduled Castes (SCs).

6Cb.1 Teacher Perspectives on the Present Higher Education System in India

Table No. 6.24: Teacher Perspectives on the Present Higher Education System in India

Opinion of the teachers on the current higher education system in India		
Particulars	No of respondents	Percentage
Positive response	3	6 %
Negative response	47	94 %
Total	50	100 %

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

The study has categorised teachers' perceptions into two main categories: positive and negative opinions, as shown in the table above (6.24). Only three out of 50 teachers held a positive opinion about India's current higher education system, while the remaining 47 teachers expressed dissatisfaction with it.

Positive Response

Rapid expansion characterises the education system, significantly higher education, which undergoes frequent structural changes and developments. In the past, education was accessible only to a privileged few from affluent backgrounds, but this landscape has transformed significantly. Today, education is becoming more accessible to a broader range of socio-economic classes, including working and marginalised communities. The ongoing rise in literacy levels contributes positively to the nation's development. Educational planners have strategically designed the education system to benefit future generations. Some respondents expressed that policymakers are showing reduced discrimination regarding including marginalised classes in education in general and higher education in particular.

Negative Response

As per the viewpoint of 47 teachers, the current state of higher education, particularly in public institutions, is deteriorating progressively. The underprivileged and marginalised sectors are the primary recipients of public education. Simultaneously, the higher education system is

expanding in scale and structure. Many autonomous institutions are introducing market-oriented courses in response to demand. However, humanities and social sciences courses face neglect and cost escalation, primarily due to private ownership and management of most institutions in Bengaluru. Consequently, access and participation for marginalised groups are often limited to general humanities and social sciences programs offered by private institutions. Additionally, rural areas suffer from inadequate infrastructure and facilities in many public institutions.

6Cb.2 Teacher Opinions on the Growing Privatization of Higher Education

Table No. 6.25: Teacher Opinions on the Growing Privatization of Higher Education

Opinion of the respondents on the increasing privatisation of higher education		
Particulars	No of respondents	Percentage
Positive response	7	14 %
Negative response	43	86 %
Total	50	100 %

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

The study found positive and negative opinions about the increasing rate of privatisation in the higher education sector in India.

Positive response

Seven (7) teachers believe privatisation is a beneficial process that enhances the quality of higher education. Since the introduction of privatisation in India, substantial enhancements have been observed in facilities and various structural aspects. Privatising higher education has led to a notable surge in enrollments, particularly from the less privileged segments of society, thereby expanding their opportunities. Consequently, privatisation contributes to enhancing access and participation across all communities. The teachers also believed that the increasing trend of privatisation and corresponding regulations for private educational institutions is diluting the government's role. Ultimately, they expressed the opinion that the fusion of private-sector efficiency with public resources will augment the nation's quality and advancement of higher education. The private sector's commitment to quality and sustainability and the government's role in fostering longevity and security would be instrumental in achieving this.

Negative Response

According to the teachers' opinions, privatisation threatens India's existing higher education system, particularly impacting the reservation system. It has caused significant harm to marginalised communities, specifically Dalits and Adivasis. Over the past few years, the rise of privatisation in higher education has notably diminished opportunities for Dalits and Adivasis. These communities find higher education financially unfeasible due to the limited implementation of affirmative action in a few public universities. Additionally, privatisation in education has curtailed the choices available to scheduled caste students, particularly in selecting professional courses.

The cost of education has surged due to privatisation. The regulatory guidelines set for private educational institutions in India are often weak, with the government occasionally ignoring their own rules and regulations. Many institutions have obtained autonomous status, enabling them to determine fee structures at their discretion. Consequently, numerous institutions are striving for autonomous status. There is a lack of effective oversight regarding the privatisation of education. Furthermore, the government is moving towards permitting foreign universities to establish branches in India with limited government oversight. This approach will only exacerbate the disparity in education access for Scheduled Castes students.

The privatisation of education is poised to widen the gap between the affluent and the impoverished. This development is concerning, as only the privileged or economically well-off individuals can pursue further education. Higher education remains out of reach for the less fortunate, often concluding their educational journey after primary schooling. This cycle perpetuates injustice and discrimination within society. While India boasts reputable universities with superior quality compared to private institutions, the process of privatisation commercialises the education system. Presently, numerous public colleges and post-graduate centres are shutting down due to a lack of students, while the number of private sector colleges and post-graduation centres continues to rise annually.

6Cb.3 Teacher Perspectives on the Influence of Higher Education and its Privatisation on Scheduled Castes Participation and Representation in Higher Educational Institutions

Table No. 6.26: Teacher Perspectives on the Influence of Higher Education and its Privatisation on Scheduled Castes Participation and Representation in Higher Educational Institutions

Teacher Perspectives on the Influence of Higher Education and its Privatisation on Scheduled Castes Participation and Representation in Higher Educational Institutions		
Particulars	No of respondents	Percentage
Positive response	0	0 %
Negative response	50	100 %
Total	50	100 %

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

No teachers provided positive responses regarding the impact of the privatisation of higher education on participation and representation in higher educational institutions.

Negative Response

According to the teachers' perceptions, the privatisation of higher education will impact scheduled caste students in the classroom environment in three aspects. Firstly, it will initiate caste differences through the application and admission process. Secondly, it will impose higher donations or significant fees on the students. Thirdly, it will practice favouritism based on various reasons. Private universities have a lower representation of Scheduled Castes and other marginalised sections.

Additionally, most private institutions do not adhere to government rules and regulations. These private institutions do not effectively implement affirmative action policies. The majority of them have steep fee structures that discourage students from applying. Even if students manage to enrol, private institutions fail to provide an inclusive space for marginalised communities. Given that most scheduled caste students in India are first or second-generation learners, these private institutions indirectly hinder their access to higher education. Furthermore, teachers believe that under the pretext of maintaining quality, higher fee structures and other norms perpetuate societal inequality.

6Cb.4 Teacher Perceptions on the Impact of the New Education Policy (NEP) on Access to Higher Education for Scheduled Castes Students

Table No. 6.27: Teacher Perceptions on the Impact of the New Education Policy (NEP) on Access to Higher Education for Scheduled Castes Students

Teacher Perceptions on the Impact of the New Education Policy (NEP) on Access to Higher Education for Scheduled Castes Students		
Particulars	No of respondents	Percentage
Positive response	2	4%
Negative response	48	96%
Total	50	100 %

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

From Table 6.27 above, we can infer that only 2 (4 percent) out of 50 respondents believed that the new education policy 2020 had positive aspects concerning the access and participation of Scheduled Castes students. On the other hand, these respondents strongly believed that the new educational policy and its norms were intentionally designed to facilitate full access for marginalised communities. However, 48 (96 percent) respondents felt that this policy would exacerbate the conditions of Scheduled Castes in India in the future. They also provided several observations, such as the absence of specific mention of caste as a form of discrimination and effective methods for addressing it in the NEP document. Private educational institutions are not obliged to implement reservation even though it is mentioned in the NEP.

Moreover, NEP does not provide specific details for implementing inclusive reservation policies in public institutions. The policy explicitly promotes Sanskrit and Hindi, which excludes many marginalised students from non-Hindi backgrounds. The emphasis on privatisation in education within NEP will also influence the representation of Scheduled Castes students in higher education.

One teacher respondent expressed that the New Education Policy 2020 is a poorly planned endeavour that lacks transparency and open discussions in parliamentary or intellectual forums. Moreover, NEP does not address social justice; it primarily focuses on merit, which can inadvertently deny opportunities. NEP's potential encouragement of foreign investment in Indian higher education might transform education into a profit-driven enterprise, veering away

from a service-oriented philosophy. The teacher emphasised that only the state can ensure the welfare of Scheduled Castes and other marginalised communities.

6Cb.5 Teacher Perceptions on the Impact of Privatisation Higher Education on Inclusive Social Policies, such as Reservations

Table No. 6.28: Teacher Perceptions on the Impact of Privatisation Higher Education on Inclusive Social Policies, such as Reservations

Teacher Perceptions on the Impact of Privatisation Higher Education on Inclusive Social Policies, such as Reservations		
Particulars	No of respondents	Percentage
Positive response	2	4%
Negative response	48	96%
Total	50	100 %

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Historical records in India demonstrate that certain groups of people have remained underdeveloped due to historical injustice and exploitation. As a result, the Indian Constitution explicitly includes provisions for “reservation” in Articles 15(4) and 16(4). These provisions were incorporated into the constitution to ensure socio-economic justice for society’s weaker and oppressed sections and achieve social equality. Reservation eligibility primarily relies on traditional social and economic disadvantage rather than economic status. The reservation policy has changed over time. Even economically weaker sections among the upper castes have benefited from the 10 percent reservation, which generated significant discussion in favour of and against its implementation.

At this point, the study aimed to comprehend the teachers’ perspectives on how the privatisation of higher education impacts affirmative action policies. Among the teachers in the study, 2 (4 percent) believed that privatising higher education does not affect reservation in higher educational institutions. They asserted that private institutions operate according to government guidelines, and it is the government’s responsibility to ensure the implementation of affirmative action policies in all private institutions.

Conversely, most 48 teachers responded that adopting liberalisation policies, including privatisation, works against the benefits of affirmative action in India. Therefore, the respondents concluded that the marginalised sections, particularly the ageing, are the primary losers in this situation.

6Cc. Teacher Suggestions for Advancing Higher Education in India and Supporting the Well-being of Scheduled Castes and Marginalized Communities

The higher education sector currently lacks inclusivity across all sections of society, which is a significant issue. This division is unique to India and stems from the increasing privatisation and commercialisation of higher education. This trend has excluded Scheduled Castes and marginalised classes. According to teachers, the solution is effectively implementing affirmative action policies in private educational institutions based on the nation's population proportion.

Communities in social and economic need are provided with additional support. However, these communities have a poverty history, resulting in fragile social structures and economies. Hence, extra attention is necessary to ensure equal access and participation for these communities.

- The state should adopt uniform exams for all students to improve quality across all levels. A bold move could involve eliminating private education or merging private institutions with government ones to establish universal education throughout India.
- Discriminatory practices in educational institutions should be addressed through an institutional-level equal opportunity cell backed by monitoring rights.
- Teachers should take the initiative to aid students, while the government should provide essentials. Multinational corporations should support government schools, and public institutions should offer free education to marginalised classes from kindergarten to doctoral studies.
- Establish an administrative body comprising experts from various social groups to identify issues and discuss solutions. Emphasise Total Quality Management, maintain a roster system, periodic recruitment, appoint an ombudsman for SC/ST complaints, and establish Lok Adalaths for marginalised class grievances. The study underscores the significance of policy implementations in higher education.
- Prioritise local concerns such as history, language, culture, and literature, as they impact disadvantaged classes' way of life and economic status. This approach considers the welfare of all castes.
- Uphold constitutional safeguards by ensuring inclusivity and identifying stages for social groups' entry into higher education. Increase fellowships for general and SC/ST research and introduce career-oriented courses in public institutions.

- The government should regulate laws to ensure education quality at private and public tertiary levels, maintaining fair prices and equal access regardless of social background. Education should be state-controlled, with sufficient funding.
- Enhancing public universities' transparency, financial stability, and viability is essential. Diverse educators are necessary, but the commercialisation of education exploits marginalised classes.
- Improving quality at the primary level is crucial for effective higher education efforts. Teachers should receive proper pedagogical training, and primary and secondary schooling should be in the local language. Foundational education should cover listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Avoid the roster method and prioritise fostering rationalistic thinking while cultivating democratic, scientific, and research-oriented mindsets. There should be academic freedom and bureaucratic control should be avoided. Prevent blind adoption of models from advanced countries. Primary and secondary teachers should receive higher salaries, continuous training, research support, and language proficiency training.
- View funding for public institutions as an investment with potential returns rather than just an expense.

In response to the question, '*Effects of Higher Education Privatization on Scheduled Castes' Representation in Higher Education*' the study revealed two unique experiences of the lack of freedom and discrimination towards the scheduled caste teachers and even the professors.

6Cd Selected Case Studies on the Impact of Privatisation of Higher Education

The case studies presented here offer a profound glimpse into the challenges and complexities that individuals within the educational sector face, particularly against the backdrop of the highly growing commercialisation of education. These narratives shed light on two distinct yet interconnected facets of this evolving landscape, focusing on the experiences of educators and their encounters with systemic discrimination and suppression of freedom of expression.

6Cd.1 Case Study 1: Prof. Sham Babu (Pseudonym)

The case study comprehended the incidents involving depriving opportunities for Prof. Sham Babu (pseudonym), a professor from a reputable engineering college in the Bengaluru area. In 1987, the story began with the appointment of Prof. Babu as a lecturer in the evening colleges (Aided) managed by a trust. This same trust also operated another engineering college with a

similar name. After working for four and a half years in the evening college, Prof. Babu applied for the position of Assistant Professor in 1991 and subsequently attended an interview in 1992. The advertisement was for a backlog post, and Prof. Babu, as the sole candidate from the Scheduled Castes community, applied. However, the institution rejected his application because he did not meet the requirement of having five years of service. This decision shocked Prof. Babu, who observed clear violations as candidates from the Scheduled Castes community were entitled to a two-year relaxation based on the requirement rules. Despite making representations, he received no response from the administration.

In 1994, the institution advertised the same post again, and Prof. Babu applied as the sole candidate. However, they rejected him during the interview, considering him unsuitable for the position. In 1996, the post was advertised again with competing candidates. While awaiting the results of the third interview, Prof. Babu challenged the discrimination he had faced during the first interview in 1992. He approached the National Commission for Scheduled Castes (NCSC) in 1996. Subsequently, the NCSC summoned the institution's principal, who acknowledged the mistake of not including the relaxation rule in the initial advertisement.

Consequently, the NCSC issued orders favouring Prof. Babu, confirming his appointment from the date when the results of the first interview were announced, which was 3rd February 1992. However, the principal delayed deciding until 15th July 1997, the deadline for complying with the NCSC's recommendations. On that day, the principal issued an order stating that they had made the appointment on 31st March 1997, which was the result date of the third advertisement.

The institution also appointed another candidate for the same post, who had successfully cleared the interview. They allowed this candidate to take the position while instructing Prof. Babu to await government approval. Despite the NCSC's recommendation, he was not officially appointed. In response, he approached the Karnataka Education Tribunal, pursuing justice against this injustice. However, the principal secretary, the additional chief secretary, and the director of technical education all rejected his case at all three levels of representation. They stated that the appointment of the other candidate was valid according to procedures.

Undeterred, Prof. Babu filed a writ petition with the Honorable High Court. After thoroughly examining the case details, the court issued a notice to appoint him according to the NCSC's recommendations. The court granted a two-month compliance period for the appointment. This decision challenged the institution, as they were only authorised to appoint for the backlog

post. To comply, the institution removed the other candidate and appointed Prof. Babu. However, the other candidate contested this decision in court, claiming that their appointment was in line with the proper procedure and that terminating it was unconstitutional.

After three years of legal battles, the court finally issued a judgment confirming both appointments within the institution. Unfortunately, Prof. Babu's appointment date was 15th July 1997 instead of 31st March 1992. Disheartened by this outcome, Prof. Babu filed a writ appeal against the judgment. A year later, the honourable high court division bench rectified the situation and issued an appointment order for the position of Assistant Professor dated 31st March 2022. The institution in the Supreme Court later challenged this decision. However, in 2009, the Supreme Court dismissed the institution's argument and upheld Prof. Babu's appointment as Assistant Professor. It concluded his seventeen-year struggle to secure his position.

As per the rules of reassessment, three years of service as Assistant Professor were required to be eligible for promotion to the rank of Professor. However, due to the prolonged denial of his appointment, Prof. Babu was deprived of this promotion opportunity. He presented his case to the institution, requesting consideration for promotion from 1995, based on the court judgment. Regrettably, the institution showed no concern for his request, and the matter remains pending in the Supreme Court. Consequently, despite his nearly 25 years of service, Prof. Babu missed the chance to become the college's principal.

In the latter part of the story, 2018, the incumbent principal resigned, leaving the position vacant. With his approximately 25 years of service, Prof. Babu was the most senior candidate for the principal position. However, they appointed an individual from a forward caste to the position without following seniority criteria. Prof. Babu challenged this decision in court, and the court ruled in his favour, ordering his appointment as principal. Regrettably, neither the government nor the institution acted to implement the court's ruling.

In 2021, during the retirement of the existing principal, the institution circulated an internal notice inviting applications for the role of in-charge principal based on merit rather than seniority. Prof. Babu questioned this discriminatory action and appealed to the Karnataka High Court. The institution conducted interviews for the in-charge principal position and withheld the results. The court intervened, instructing the institution to halt the announcement of interview results and allowing Prof. Babu to assume the role of in-charge principal. Despite

informing the institution of the court's decision, they disregarded it and retained the previous individual in the role even after retirement.

In May 2021, Prof. Babu, seeking to formalise his appointment as principal, entered the college premises, received blessings from the institution's founders, and occupied the principal's office. However, they promptly suspended him via e-mail for entering without authorisation. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, he could not approach the court immediately. The suspension persisted for five months, during which he faced financial difficulties. Eventually, the institution's chairman revoked the suspension and charges against him. In October, Prof. Babu was offered the position of in-charge principal under the condition that he withdraw all three writ petitions (related to seniority, suspension, and charges) against the institution. In pursuit of a peaceful and dignified conclusion to his professional career, Prof. Babu withdrew the petitions and was appointed the institution's in-charge principal in November 2021 by the college chairman.

On the same day, the existing principal and trustee members appointed another individual for the in-charge principal position without cooperating with Prof. Babu. The chairman knew of the court-ordered appointment but did not object to this discriminatory action. According to Prof. Babu, this situation demonstrated the institution's manipulation to coerce him into withdrawing the writ petitions. After retracting the petitions, the institution appointed the candidate whose name had been kept sealed for an extended duration. This betrayal led Prof. Babu to file a First Information Report (FIR) against six individuals involved in this covert injustice. As he faced the end of his professional journey with only nine months left until retirement, he continued to fight for justice.

6Cd. 2 Case Study 2: Suresh (Pseudonym)

A 38-year-old lecturer named Suresh (pseudonym) from a private aided institution in Bengaluru urban district, who holds a Master's degree in Political Science from one of India's top central universities, has shared his experiences of how the college management suppressed his freedom of expression.

Upon joining, he began as a probationer for the initial year. Impressed by his work style and knowledge, the institution appointed him a permanent faculty member in the Department of Political Science. Throughout three and a half years, he taught political science and the Indian constitution to undergraduate students from various disciplines such as B.A., B.Com., BBA, B.Sc., and BCA.

During his final days at the college, an incident about freedom of expression significantly affected his career trajectory. That year, the college observed “International Human Rights Day,” and each class was assigned to perform a cultural act representing human rights violations in India. The college allowed students to voluntarily select themes, including casteism, communalism, terrorism, and other significant topics.

While students from various departments used posters, drawings, makeup, drama, dance, and other forms to present their themes, the B.A. class performed a skit on casteism and its contemporary consequences. In this particular skit, they highlighted untouchability practices and other societal issues in the broader society and the classroom. Additionally, they chanted slogans against the prevailing caste system in India. Suresh, on his part, emphasised that he played no direct role in their presentations and talents. As the program coordinator, he organised the stage arrangements to facilitate the event. Nevertheless, the College’s management was unsatisfied with this performance and arranged a face-to-face meeting with its principal. During the meeting, they accused Suresh of creating a disruptive environment by addressing the issue of casteism and questioning the legitimacy of teaching political science.

Suresh attempted to explain, but the college management ignored his explanations and terminated his employment. The next day, the Head of the Department of Political Science held a meeting where they instructed the team to ensure Suresh's resignation. Suresh said he had no direct involvement in the presentation and talents of those students. He was just a programme coordinator who helped them arrange a stage for all the performances, but those students were responsible for that performance. The college management expressed dissatisfaction with Suresh's performance and scheduled a meeting with him and the principal. During the meeting, the principal accused Suresh of creating a disruptive environment by discussing casteism in the classroom. The management also questioned the constitutionality of teaching political science and the Indian constitution. Despite Suresh's explanations, the management declined to listen and terminated his services at the college. The following day, a meeting was convened with the Head of the Department of Political Science, instructing them to obtain Suresh’s resignation. When he asked for a valid reason for seeking his resignation, the management failed to provide one. They also threatened the Head of the Department with resignation if he could not secure Suresh’s resignation, and consequently, he conveyed this information to Suresh.

The college permitted students to independently choose themes, which encompassed subjects such as casteism, communalism, terrorism, and various other essential topics. Despite sending

numerous e-mails, he received no replies from the college's leadership. In the meantime, the management issued a circular to the entire college, urging avoidance of discussions related to caste, untouchability, and related topics in the teaching-learning process. Under immense pressure, Suresh resigned from his position, having endured a painful experience where the management disregarded his voice and perspective. He also alleged that many private higher education spaces do not provide a platform for dialogue on the inclusion and exclusion of marginalised communities in India.

Suresh also experienced discrimination in terms of financial benefits from the college. He observed discrepancies in increments and other benefits, varying increment amounts among lecturers. He believed that his caste background played a significant role in this discrimination, given the limited representation of marginalised classes such as Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, and Other Backward Classes (OBC), leaving him with no one to advocate against the injustices committed by the management. Ultimately, Suresh stated that his colleagues strongly opposed pro-reservation sentiments and other aspects of inclusion and exclusion. He believed that if there had been more open dialogue, they could have resolved the issues within the confines of the principal's office rather than resorting to his removal from the job.

Section – 6D

NAVIGATING GENDER DYNAMICS: CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES IN HIGHER EDUCATION AMONG FEMALE RESPONDENTS

For centuries, Indian women have lived in silence, enduring double discrimination based on gender and the patriarchal system. On the other hand, Scheduled Castes women face triple discrimination encompassing gender, patriarchal values, and caste, leading Gail Omvedt to label them as the “oppressed among the oppressed”. Caste remains an inescapable factor in the Indian social system.

Despite improvements in educational standards across the country, females in the Scheduled Caste community continue to grapple with experiences of caste prejudice and discreet patriarchy within their community. These issues persist and pose significant obstacles to the educational choices and development of Scheduled Caste females in India. The forthcoming data will shed light on various aspects of Scheduled Caste female education and the factors influencing their educational choices, drawn from recent fieldwork conducted in the Bengaluru urban area.

The study interviewed approximately 150 students to obtain an equal number of respondents from both genders. However, the reality of the education system revealed disparities in the educational ratio between Scheduled Caste girls and boys. Consequently, the study could only conduct interviews with 63 female students across various courses, all volunteered to participate.

The table below illustrates the types of courses in which all 63 enrolled female respondents.

6D.1 Qualification of Female Respondents

Table No. 6.29: Qualification of Female Respondents

Qualification of Female Respondents		
Sl. No	Name of the Course	Number of Respondents
1	Post-Graduate	22
2	Diploma	1
3	Others	4
4	Doctorate	3
5	Under-Graduate or Graduate	33
Total		63

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

According to the data in the table above (Table. No.6.29.), 33 respondents currently pursue undergraduate or graduate degrees, making it the largest group in the study. Twenty-two respondents pursuing post-graduate degrees followed the above. Only three respondents actively pursue doctoral degrees, while just one respondent is currently enrolled in a diploma program. Furthermore, we classify four respondents as “Others,” indicating their involvement in various vocational courses, which may suggest participation in various specialized programs. The data above highlights a significant gender disparity in the representation of students at higher levels of education, particularly in doctoral programs, where female students are notably underrepresented compared to their male counterparts. Furthermore, there is a substantial difference in the selection of general and professional courses between the male and female respondents.

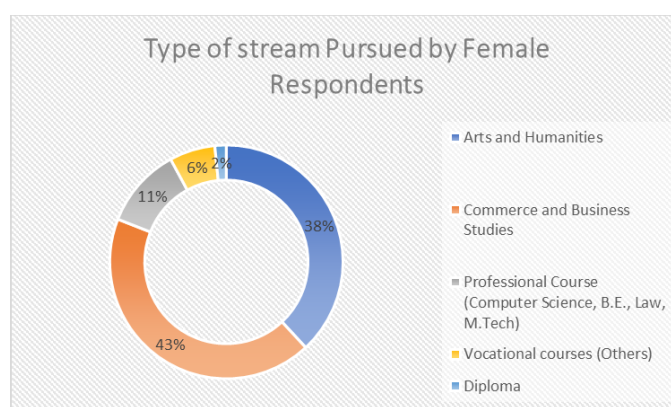
6D.2 Enrollment Differences between General and Professional Courses

Table No. 6.30: Enrollment differences between general and professional courses

Type of stream of learning Pursued by Female Respondents		
Sl. No	Type of the Course	Number of Respondents
1	Arts and Humanities	24 (38 %)
2	Commerce and Business Studies	27 (43 %)
3	Professional Course (Computer Science, B.E., Law, MTech)	7 (11 %)
4	Vocational courses (Others)	4 (6 %)
5	Diploma	1 (2 %)
Total		63 (100 %)

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure No. 6.25: Type of stream of learning Pursued by Female Respondents



Parents, especially fathers, almost exclusively influence the choice of courses female students pursue. The study also observed that most Scheduled Caste female students gravitate towards general courses like Arts, Humanities, Commerce, and Business Studies, whereas fewer females opt for professional courses such as MBBS, Engineering, Law, and Computer Sciences. According to the data in the table above (Table. No.6.30.), out of the 63 female respondents, 24 are currently enrolled in courses related to Arts, Literature, and Humanities subjects. The highest number in any subject category is 27 female respondents pursuing courses related to Commerce and Business Administration subjects. The number of female respondents in the professional courses category is notably lower, with only one respondent each in Computer Sciences, B.E., and MTech programs and three female respondents in the Law course. The study also identified one female respondent enrolled in a diploma program and four female respondents in vocational courses.

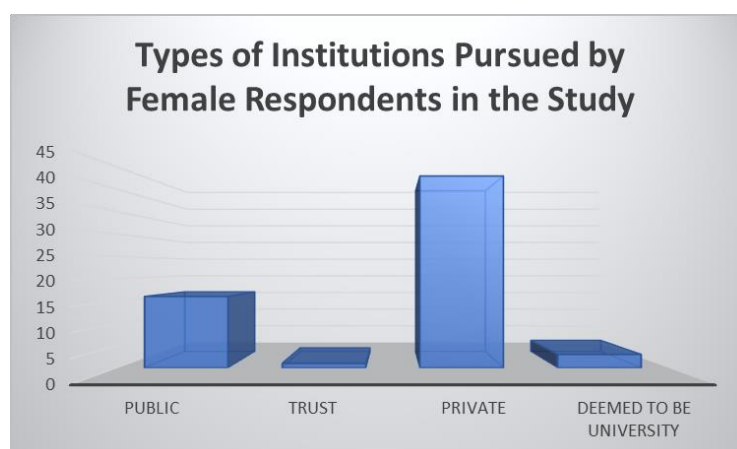
6D.3 Type of Institutions of Girl Respondents

Table No. 6.31: Type of Institutions of Girl Respondents

Type of Institutions Pursuing by the Female Respondents of the Study		
Sl. No	Particulars	Number of Respondents
1	Public	16
2	Trust	1
3	Private	43
4	Deemed to be University	3
Total		63

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure No. 6.26: Type of Institutions Pursuing by the Female Respondents of the Study



The table above (Table. No.6.31.) depicts the educational institutions female respondents in the Bengaluru urban district attend. The data in the table indicates that 16 respondents enrolled in public educational institutions, which include public colleges and educational institutions. One female respondent is studying in a trust-maintained educational institution. The most prominent female respondents, 43, pursue courses in privately managed educational institutions. Additionally, three female respondents are pursuing their education in institutions with a “deemed to be university” status, typically denoting a high level of autonomy.

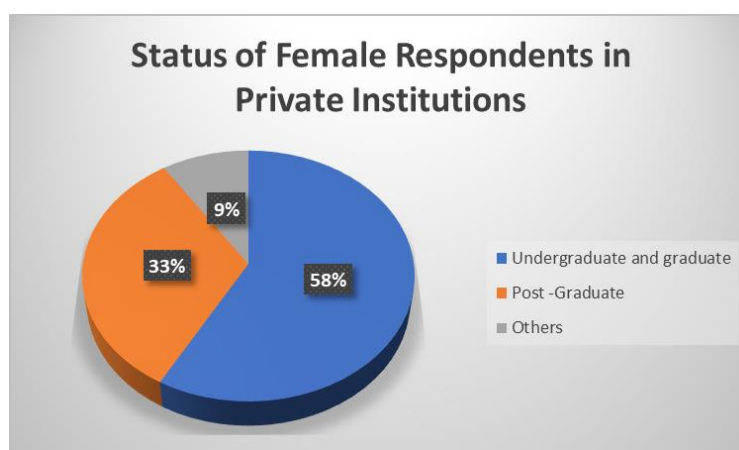
6D.4 Status of Female Respondents in Private Institutions

Table No. 6.32: Status of Female Respondents in Private Institutions

Status of Female Respondents in Private Institutions		
Sl. No	Particulars	Number of Respondents
1	Undergraduate and graduate	25
2	Post -Graduate	14
3	Others	4
Total		43

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure No. 6.27: Status of Female Respondents in Private Institutions



The table above (Table. No.6.32.) illustrates the presence of female respondents across different course categories in private institutions. In the Undergraduate and Graduate programs category, 25 female respondents actively pursue these programs in private higher educational institutions. This observation indicates many female students engaging in undergraduate and graduate-level studies within private institutions. Furthermore, 13 female respondents are pursuing post-graduate programs in various private higher educational institutions,

underscoring the significant representation of female students in post-graduate education. Lastly, four female respondents are pursuing vocational courses in the private institutional category.

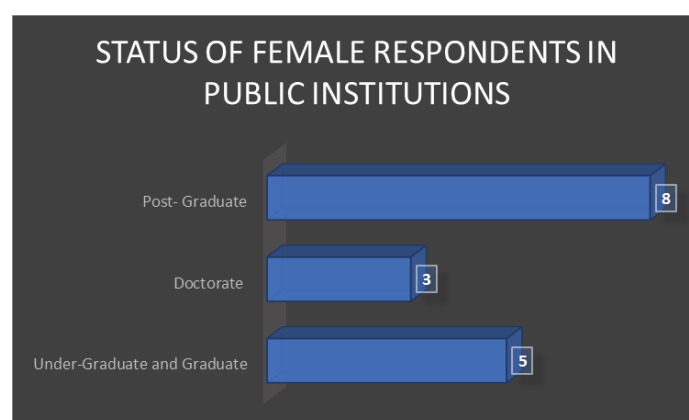
6D.5 Status of Female Respondents in Public Institutions

Table No. 6.33: Status of Female Respondents in Public Institutions

Status of Female Respondents in Public Institutions		
Sl. No	Particulars	Number of Respondents
1	Under-Graduate and Graduate	5
2	Doctorate	3
3	Post- Graduate	8
Total		16

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure No. 6.28: Status of Female Respondents in Public Institutions



The table above (Table. No.6.33.) depicts the female respondents' presence in public institutions. The study identified 16 female respondents currently pursuing various courses in public institutions. These institutions have enrolled five female respondents in undergraduate and graduate-level programs. The study includes eight female respondents pursuing post-graduate courses and three pursuing doctoral courses within public educational institutions.

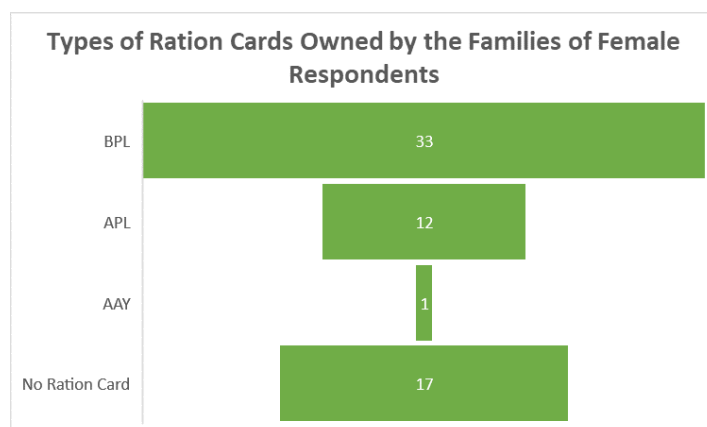
6D.6 Types of Ration Cards Owned by the Families of Female Respondents

Table No. 6.34: Types of Ration Cards Owned by the Families of Female Respondents

Types of Ration Cards Owned by the Families of Female Respondents		
Sl. No	Particulars	Number of Respondents
1	BPL	33
2	APL	12
3	AAY	1
4	No Ration Card	17
Total		63

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure No. 6.29: Types of Ration Cards Owned by the Families of Female Respondents



The table above (Table. No.6.34.) illustrates the types of ration cards held by the families of female respondents. According to the data, out of the 63 selected female respondents, 33 respondents possess the ration card designated for Below Poverty Line (BPL) families. Only 12 families possess an Above Poverty Line (APL) ration card. It is worth noting that AAY is a government program in India that offers highly subsidized food to the most economically disadvantaged individuals. There is one female respondent whose family possesses an AAY ration card. However, nearly 17 families do not possess any ration card, often due to various reasons.

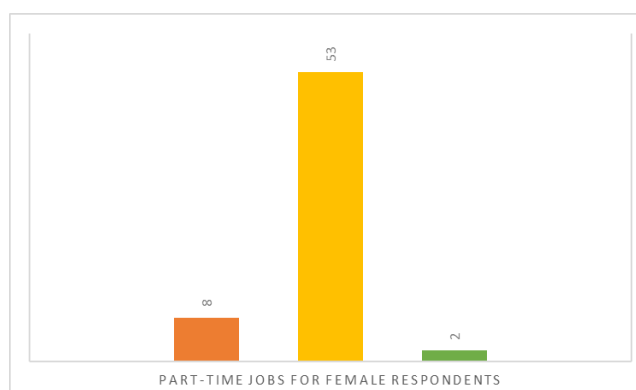
6D.7 Part-Time Jobs for Female Respondents

Table No. 6.35: Part-Time Jobs for Female Respondents

Part-Time Jobs for Female Respondents		
Sl. No	Particulars	Number of Respondents
1	Yes	8
2	No	53
3	Prefer Not to Answer	2
Total		63

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure No. 6.30: Part-Time Jobs for Female Respondents



The table above (Table. No.6.35.) portrays the status of female respondents regarding their engagement in part-time jobs to meet their economic needs. The data indicates that, out of 63 respondents, the majority of the selected respondents, 53 are not involved in part-time employment. Eight female respondents are actively engaged in part-time jobs, which may include teaching in tuition centres or working for multinational corporations during their free hours. Two female respondents did not answer the question about their part-time job status. The study observed that female respondents face significant constraints when choosing their profession. Some reported that they have a degree of freedom in pursuing their studies, but beyond that point, they encounter various restrictions within their households.

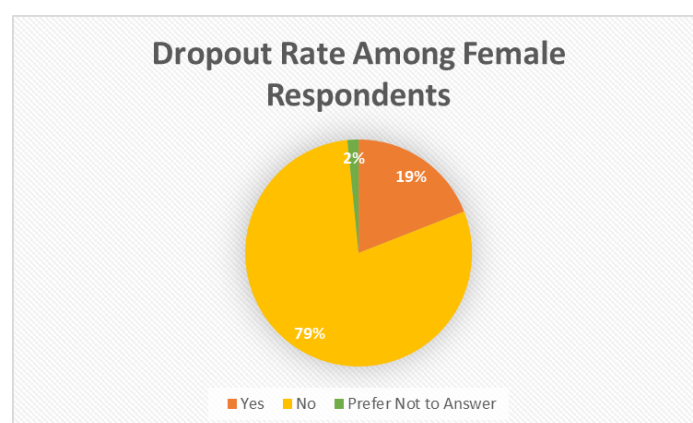
6D.8 Dropout Rate Among Female Respondents

Table No. 6.36: Dropout Rate Among Female Respondents

Dropout Rate Among Female Respondents		
Sl. No	Particulars	Number of Respondents
1	Yes	12
2	No	50
3	Prefer Not to Answer	1
Total		63

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure No. 6.31: Dropout Rate Among Female Respondents



The table above (Table. No.6.36.) analyses the dropout or discontinuation rates among the selected respondents for the previous academic courses. According to the data, 12 out of the 63 respondents discontinued their studies and experienced a period of dropouts. The reasons for this included failing subjects, parental and familial restrictions, and personal reasons. In contrast, 50 female respondents have no dropout history in their previous academic records. Nevertheless, a few respondents expressed their inability to continue their studies further due to economic imbalances within their families and the constraints imposed on them by family members.

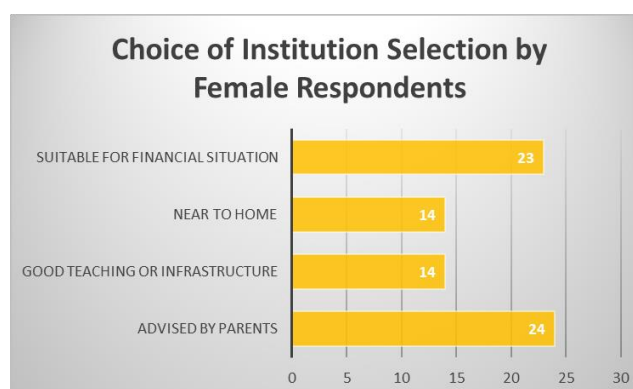
6D.9 Choice of Institution Selection by Female Respondents

Table No. 6.37: Choice of Institution Selection by Female Respondents

Choice of Institution Selection by Female Respondents		
Sl. No	Particulars	Number of Respondents
1	Advised by Parents	24
2	Good Teaching or Infrastructure	14
3	Near to Home	14
4	Suitable for Financial Situation	23
Total		63

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure No. 6.32: Choice of Institution Selection by Female Respondents



Female respondents' choices regarding the institution they attend for their studies significantly differ from those of male students, involving several considerations such as safety, necessity, and the clarity of their chosen courses. The table above (Table. No.6.37.) presents the preferences of female students when selecting their educational institutions. The data reveals that out of 63 respondents, 24 stated they do not have a say in choosing their institution; instead, their parents decide both the course and the institution. In contrast, 14 students indicated they could select the institution, focusing on factors like infrastructure and the quality of teaching for their chosen subjects.

Another group of students opted for institutions close to home, a decision made jointly by parents and students. Parents opt for this choice due to their desire to be readily available for their children and their concerns about the safety of female students. Finally, the financial

burden of education on female students has become a significant concern for parents, especially those with more than two children. Some respondents mentioned that their families cannot afford an equal education for all their children, leading to discrimination in educational opportunities. Unfortunately, Females often experience this type of discrimination in most families, sometimes resulting in them becoming dropouts for life.

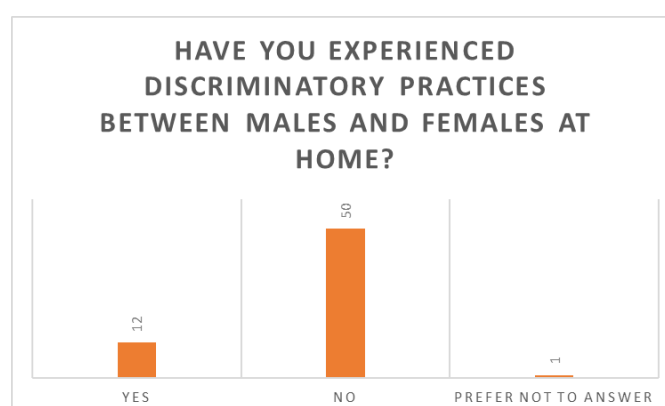
6D.10 Discrimination and Stereotyping

Table No. 6.38: Discrimination and Stereotyping

Have You Experienced Discriminatory Practices Between Males and Females at Home?		
Sl. No	Particulars	Number of Respondents
1	Yes	12
2	No	50
3	Prefer Not to Answer	1
Total		63

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2019-20.

Figure No. 6.33: Have You Experienced Discriminatory Practices Between Males and Females at Home?



The table above (Table. No.6.38.) presents the opinions of female respondents regarding the discriminatory behaviour exhibited by their parents or caregivers towards their male siblings. According to the data in the table, out of 63 respondents, 12 female respondents acknowledged experiencing discrimination within their families.

This discrimination primarily manifests in the unequal freedom granted to male and female children by their family members. According to these respondents, family members mistreat them when accessing education, particularly at higher levels, and providing for their educational needs. Female students constantly fear that if they remain idle at home, their parents will consider arranging their early marriage, a concern not shared by their male counterparts.

6D.11 Summing Up

In the present world, many sociological and cultural norms suppress the female body, particularly in developing countries. India has actively engaged in numerous developmental activities and positioned itself as a global leader, guiding other nations to improve their quality across various domains. Women in Indian society have achieved numerous milestones, often surpassing other nations. However, upon closer examination of smaller communities, it becomes evident that females still experience various forms of patriarchal oppression in multiple fields, as detailed below.

Caste-based Discrimination:

Caste discrimination serves as a significant impediment to educational development in India. It restricts opportunities and access for marginalized classes, resulting in various effects of caste discrimination. Females within the Scheduled Caste groups frequently encounter caste-based discrimination in workplace settings.

The study revealed that most female respondents confirmed experiencing acts of caste discrimination within educational institutions, both verbal and non-verbal. They recounted being categorized as quota and non-quota students, often subjected to comments labelling them as reserved category students who benefit from government-provided incentives. Even their choice of attire became a subject of commentary in many instances.

Cultural and Social Norms:

In addition to caste discrimination, Indian society imposes certain cultural and social norms on females in education and employment. These norms often establish explicit guidelines for what females should and should not do. The study revealed that over half of the female respondents have encountered various forms of socio-cultural norms, while male siblings within the same family do not come under the orbit of these norms and values.

Limited access to quality education:

The lack of access to quality education constitutes a significant concern for females in India. In most traditional Indian families, the father primarily determines access to and participation in education, and his decision is often the final word for many female students in the country. The study also reveals that, in most cases, females' access to and participation in the field of education, particularly at the higher education level, are not based on their preferences.

Instead, they can choose between receiving whatever education is available or remaining idle at home. Furthermore, many parents limit their children's education to the extent that they can communicate effectively with the world without harbouring aspirations to see their daughters reach respectable societal positions.

Economic Disadvantages and Poor Nutritional Status:

For ages, marginalized classes, including SCs, STs., and OBCs, have faced deprivation in various economic activities. This historical discrimination continues to persist, leading to an unequal distribution of resources in society, which in turn has created disparities between the poor and wealthy individuals. The study has noted that female respondents are particularly susceptible to the adverse effects of poor economic and nutritional status.

Furthermore, the research has observed a lack of confidence in various aspects among these female respondents, resulting from the economic disadvantages their community faces.

Early Marrying and Employment:

Societal backwardness and the imposition of patriarchal values have resulted in the practices of early marriage and child labour. As Dr. B. R. Ambedkar asserts, "I measure the progress of a community by the degree of progress which women have achieved." The study has noted that Scheduled Caste female students consistently live in fear of early marriage or jobs if they do not belong to the realm of education. According to the responses from a few respondents, this fear compels them to pursue various courses to escape from this moral burden.

Mental Health Challenges:

Limited roles, discrimination among siblings, caste-based discrimination within society, including institutional settings, and the lack of freedom and opportunities for females have resulted in significant health and psychological issues among female students in the country.

The study has also noted that female respondents grapple with mixed emotions, ultimately impacting their pride and confidence.

Fear of learning and conversing in English poses a significant hurdle for those from local language backgrounds, particularly Kannada. Additionally, the study has observed that some students harbour concerns about their physical appearance and fashion choices. Maintaining proper nutrition, especially during menstrual cycles, poses a challenge for many respondents, especially those from single-parent or less attentive families.

Safety Concerns:

Families and the government share a significant concern for the safety of females. They have incorporated numerous rules and regulations into civil laws and the constitution to guarantee the safety of females in society. However, looking at statistics from the NCRB and other reports, it becomes evident that females in India are still not safe. The most affected group falls within the age range of 5 to 40 years.

Female students frequently encounter ragging, verbal and physical abuse, and other social problems. The study has also identified that many female respondents have experienced ragging and verbal abuse, both within and outside institutional settings, perpetrated by known and unknown individuals.

Chapter -7

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, by drawing on the diverse insights from the present study, the researcher's primary aim is to provide readers with a comprehensive overview of the significant findings and key insights from both primary and secondary research. Furthermore, it will discuss the limitations of our study and propose thoughtful recommendations that extract the essence of our research findings. These recommendations guide future scholarly endeavours and inquiries within this study area.

7.2 Summary

The current study revolves around two principal research aims. First, to understand the impact of privatisation on Scheduled Castes students and the challenges they face within the context of privatisation of higher education in urban areas. As part of this, the study conducted an in-depth examination of the privatisation of higher education in Bengaluru's urban district, aiming to answer key research questions, including:

- How has the structure and function of higher education in Karnataka evolved with the different phases of India's higher education policy?
- Given the deprived socio-economic position, how do Scheduled caste families navigate increasingly privatised higher education?

The research journey involved a thorough review of secondary sources, shedding light on crucial aspects of higher education in India and the following objectives are framed.

Objective – 1: To review the historical development of policies within the Indian higher education system.

The study mainly focused on the historical evolution of policy-making in India and Karnataka. Traditionally, education in India was considered a noble endeavour and a vital social service provided free of charge by the state. However, the colonial era introduced significant changes by promoting private education enterprises, establishing colleges by non-profit organisations, and founding universities by Christian missions.

The post-independence period saw the expansion of the public education system in response to growing demand, but private institutions also began to emerge. The affiliating system allowed public universities to oversee academic activities in their respective areas. The Kothari Commission of 1964-66 recommended autonomous status for exceptional colleges and increased government funding for higher education. The 1980s marked a shift in India's economic policies, with privatisation gaining prominence alongside liberalisation and globalisation. Private participation in higher education, distance education programs, and collaborations with foreign institutions became prevalent.

The 1990s brought budget cuts for higher education, leading to increased private sector involvement, especially in professional programs like engineering and MBA. The University Grants Commission (UGC) introduced self-financing for higher education, allowing private entities to enter the market. Private institutions continued to expand, and a shift towards privatisation in higher education became evident. While this shift expanded access to education, it also raised concerns about quality, regulation, and equitable access.

The historical evolution of policies within the Indian higher education system demonstrates a nation's unwavering commitment to adapt and transform its educational landscape in response to the diverse needs of its populace, promote social and economic development, and foster inclusivity. This journey can be summarised into distinct phases that span several decades.

Pre-Independence Period: The foundation of India's modern education system was laid during British colonial rule. These policies were marked by efforts to provide Western education and establish institutions that primarily served the colonial administration's needs. However, these policies were rooted in elitism and did not prioritise the broader population.

Post-Independence Period (1947-1960s): With India gaining independence in 1947, a compelling need arose to redefine and expand the education system to cater to the diverse requirements of a newly independent and rapidly growing nation. Around this time, some commissions on education were established, including the Kothari, Mudaliar, and Radhakrishnan Commissions. As mentioned earlier, the commissions made extensive suggestions to accomplish universal primary education. These included restructuring curricular frameworks, endorsing regional languages as teaching languages, and improving teacher preparation programmes. In particular, the Kothari Commission ushered in a visionary age that emphasised financial increases, changes to higher education, and an education revolution.

Expansion and Diversification (1970s–1980s): Higher education in India saw more expansion and Diversification in the 1970s and 1980s. New universities were established, including the agricultural universities and the Indian Institutes of Technology (IITs). The focus was on offering possibilities for specialist research and education. Policies also sought to lessen gaps in educational opportunities and encourage inclusion, particularly for disadvantaged populations.

Economic Liberalisation (1990s–Present): The 1990s saw the onset of globalisation and economic liberalisation, greatly influencing India's higher education system. A greater emphasis on technical and professional education results from policies created to match higher education with the demands of a globalised economy. During this time, the number of private schools expanded and competition in the education market intensified.

Recent Reforms and Challenges: Recent years have seen efforts to introduce reforms focused on enhancing the quality of education, fostering research and innovation, and aligning education with industry and the job market. Initiatives like the National Education Policy (NEP) 2020 aim to address these challenges and reshape India's education system for the 21st century.

With this, the current study genuinely tried to satisfy the objective by reviewing the historical development of Indian higher education policies, offering a comprehensive overview from pre-independence. It highlights vital milestones, commissions, and policy shifts structured into distinct phases. The transition from colonial elitism to post-independence expansion is evident, emphasising influential commissions like Kothari. It addresses the impact of economic liberalisation, the growth of private institutions, and current reforms like the NEP 2020. This historical perspective is invaluable for understanding the context and challenges of India's current higher education system.

Objective – 2: To understand the structure and functioning of Indian and Karnataka's higher education system.

The study also explores the structure and development of the higher education system in India and Karnataka. At a national level, the higher education sector experienced several structural changes. By introducing the National Education Policy 2020, the government recently replaced the old education structure 10+2+3 with the new 5+3+3+4 structure. The Ministry of Education and The University Grants Commission (UGC) play a vital role in governing tertiary-level

higher education, categorising institutions into Research Universities, Academic Institutions, and those with Autonomy. The New Education Policy introduced flexible undergraduate and postgraduate programs, resulting in a diverse landscape of educational institutions.

A favourable Pupil-Teacher Ratio, a notable presence of Scheduled Castes teachers, and a significant growth in private educational institutions characterise the higher education landscape in Karnataka. However, despite these positive aspects, equitable access and social inclusion challenges persist, necessitating a multifaceted approach to address them.

PTR (pupil-teacher ratio): Karnataka has a higher PTR in higher education than the national average, according to the statistics in the report. It suggests that a comparatively improved student-teacher ratio is necessary for high-quality instruction. This positive PTR demonstrates the state's dedication to offering inclusive education.

Representation of Scheduled Castes in Teaching: The analysis shows how instructors from Karnataka's higher education institutions are represented. Even though diversity in the teaching profession is present, more work has to be done to foster it. In order to foster diversity and social inclusion in the educational system, this representation is essential.

Growth of Private Educational Institutions: Private higher education institutions, including general degree colleges, medical institutions, polytechnic colleges, and engineering colleges, have grown significantly, according to the statistics. This increase is indicative of Karnataka's preference for private education. It calls into question the calibre and accessibility of the education offered by these establishments, as well as the impact of privatisation on the development of the educational system.

Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER): The research emphasises how the Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) shows progress in gender parity and overall enrollment. It is a good sign that more people are pursuing higher education. The state should, therefore, keep concentrating on enhancing access for all demographic groups.

Historical Context: The historical context provided in the analysis underscores Karnataka's rich heritage in higher education. It acknowledges the contributions of various kingdoms and empires in shaping the educational landscape. This historical perspective is essential for understanding the foundations of education in the region.

Budget Allocation and Inclusivity: While historically inclined towards neoliberal policies, the approach considers difficulties related to finance and diversity. It draws attention to the necessity of a balanced approach to guarantee that higher education is still open to all, including underprivileged populations.

Challenges for Scheduled Castes: The study highlights several challenges that Karnataka's Scheduled Castes confront, such as high dropout rates and the demand for more equity in higher education. Targeted policies and initiatives are needed to address these issues.

The study effectively accomplishes its second objective: comprehending the structure and functioning of the higher education institutions in Karnataka and India. It thoroughly understands these systems while highlighting significant structural advancements and modifications. It draws attention to the National Education Policy 2020, the responsibilities played by the Ministry of Education and the University Grants Commission (UGC), and the implementation of flexible educational programmes at the national level.

Objective – 3: To study the profile of privatisation of higher education in the Bengaluru urban district of Karnataka.

The privatisation of higher education in India has led to the advent of private universities and colleges as an alternative to public institutions. Private institutions offer a range of courses and degrees, fascinating students with improved facilities, better education quality, and more flexible curricula. However, worries about accessibility, cost, and quality have increased due to the privatisation of higher education. For many students, especially those from disadvantaged families, higher education is expensive due to the increased tuition fees charged by private colleges and universities. Furthermore, there have been instances where private educational institutions have relaxed guidelines in order to increase revenues at the expense of quality. Another issue is the private education sector's lack of regulation and oversight. Regulatory bodies overseeing private institutions have been criticised for their lenient approach and inadequate measures to ensure these institutions meet the required standards.

In Karnataka, there has been significant growth in higher education, with a growing number of private colleges and universities. New Education Policy 2020, which emphasises flexibility and integrated courses, has been adopted by the state. Examining the profile of privatisation of higher education in Bengaluru's metropolitan region, the study identifies a complicated environment marked by a surge in private institutions of higher learning. Perceived quality,

regulatory restrictions, and increased demand for higher education drive this expansion. Nonetheless, there are still issues, such as lower enrollment rates than the general population, limited teacher representation among Scheduled Caste kids, and high dropout rates among these students.

With an emphasis on the Bengaluru district, the privatisation of higher education in Karnataka has created a complex web of alternatives and challenges for marginalised people, in particular the Scheduled Castes (SCs). The study examines the effects of higher education privatisation from multiple perspectives: accessibility, quality, historical backdrop, and socio-economic effects. More alternatives for education have resulted from privatisation, but the costs and inclusion of pupils from poorer socio-economic backgrounds have also come under scrutiny. The findings of this research will play an essential part in minimising inequities, guiding institutional practises and policy decisions, and promoting a more inclusive and equitable higher education system in Karnataka. The study also explored that institutions offering various courses have increased students' choices, but this has raised concerns about education quality and standards. Private institutions often impose higher tuition fees, creating a barrier for economically disadvantaged students. Government policies have significantly shaped privatisation, requiring a balance between promoting growth and ensuring quality. Maintaining educational standards is crucial and necessitates effective regulation and accreditation mechanisms. The pattern of higher education privatisation in Bengaluru's urban district aligns with broader trends in Indian higher education. While it has expanded access and choice, persistent questions revolve around quality, affordability, and government involvement. Policymakers must thoughtfully weigh the implications of privatisation to achieve a balanced approach prioritising access and quality.

Thus, the study attempted to satisfy its third objective of studying the profile of privatisation of higher education in Bengaluru's urban district of Karnataka. It provides a comprehensive analysis of the impact of privatisation in higher education in India, highlighting the emergence of private universities and colleges as alternatives to public institutions. While acknowledging the benefits, such as increased course choices, it raises concerns about affordability, quality, and accessibility in private institutions due to higher fees and potential compromises on quality for profit.

Objective -4

To explore the perceptions of Scheduled Castes' students, their parents and teachers on the challenges and opportunities with the contemporary privatisation of higher education in the Bengaluru urban district.

The study tried to satisfy its fourth objective by investigating the perceptions of Scheduled Castes students, their parents, and teachers' perceptions of the consequences of higher education privatisation in Bengaluru's urban district. The significant findings encompass students' perceptions and experiences, parents' opinions, teacher perspectives, and two case studies exemplifying discrimination and challenges Scheduled Castes individuals face within the higher education system. The study yields the following significant findings:

7.3 Significant Findings of the Study

1. High Percentage of Scheduled Caste Families in Bengaluru Experience Internal and External Migration for Employment, Impacting Educational Aspirations

Many people inhabit Bengaluru, and it embraces individuals from all corners of the world's population. Bengaluru encompasses a mini-world within itself. Nearly one-third of the selected respondents come from migrant families. The study reveals that most scheduled caste families experience internal or external migration to the city within Indian territory. Geographically, neighbouring states like Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, and Kerala are the origins of most migrant families. Most Scheduled Caste families are first or second-generation learners, with some not having first-generation students. All these families work in the informal sector, serving as contract-based group-D workers. Their chances of educating their children in renowned private institutions are negligible, and they do not harbour grand aspirations for their children's education. Their primary focus is to earn enough to sustain their future. Students from this background often drop out, thus shattering their dreams.

2. Caste-based Discrimination and Societal Norms Impacting Scheduled Castes Female Students in Bengaluru's Higher Education

The research on the experiences of Scheduled Caste female students in higher education in the Bengaluru urban area reveals significant findings. Firstly, it highlights that caste-

based discrimination persists within educational institutions, negatively impacting the educational journeys of these students. Secondly, cultural and social norms in Indian society impose restrictions on female students, influencing their educational and career choices and often constraining their opportunities compared to their male counterparts. Thirdly, limited access to quality education is a substantial issue, with parental decisions playing a significant role in shaping the educational paths of female students, sometimes against their preferences. Economic disparities and poor nutritional status also affect these students' well-being, leading to various health and psychological challenges. The fear of early marriage or employment pressures frequently motivates them to prioritise education.

Furthermore, discrimination and societal expectations contribute to mental health challenges, affecting their self-esteem and overall well-being. Safety concerns within and outside educational institutions also significantly impact them. Gender disparities continue to exist in higher education, particularly in professional courses. Parental influence, especially that of fathers, heavily dictates the choice of courses female students pursue. Various factors often limit their ability to choose educational institutions, and many undergo dropout periods during their academic journeys. Lastly, the types of ration cards families hold can indicate their economic status, influencing resource access.

In conclusion, the research underscores the multifaceted challenges Scheduled Castes female students face in India's higher education system, influenced by caste discrimination, cultural norms, limited access to quality education, economic disparities, and safety concerns. Addressing these challenges requires concerted efforts to promote gender equity, eliminate discrimination, and expand educational opportunities, particularly for those from marginalised backgrounds.

3. Economic Status and Caste Considerations Shape Academic Preferences Among Marginalised Students in Bengaluru

The socio-economic conditions of the family closely interconnect with the students' educational choices. The students' academic preferences in marginalised communities are primarily influenced by their economic status, following caste considerations. The study revealed that over two-thirds of the student respondents come from Arts and Commerce backgrounds, with minimal representation in professional or technical

courses. These choices are also determined by the student's parents, based on their economic capacity. The study observed that the families of the student respondents had limited financial resources, and none considered utilising their existing financial means to educate their children.

4. Privatisation of Higher Education: Effects on Scheduled Castes and Social Equality in Bengaluru

Private higher education is often portrayed as an accessible room only for those who can pay for their services. The study also observes that many students and their parents choose the private higher education structure. Today, private institutions have become their first choice. Surprisingly, this choice is the artificial inevitable conditions created by the market forces. There was intentional propaganda over the public education system to reduce its quality of learning. A tiny portion of the marginalised classes paying the fees can be admitted to these private institutions. However, most of these marginalised populations who are unaffordable to these higher charges either remain in public educational institutions or result in dropouts.

There was also a clear demarcation and expectations can be observed between the students from public and private institutions.

The commodification of higher education is a fundamental problem impacting social equality and justice. Privatisation of higher education will act upon the direction of the market forces, which proved detrimental to the overall development and social mobility. Thus, the study identified that private higher educational institutions lack social concern for bringing equality among the masses. The scheduled castes are also affected by various impacts such as immense arbitrary fee structures, bias at entrance and selection, lack of financial aid and withdrawal of the reservation policy, ultimately limiting the access and participation of Scheduled Castes in Higher education structure in India and rapidly growing world.

5. Caste Awareness, Disclosure, and Discrimination: Insights from Students in Bengaluru

The study found a complex relationship between caste awareness, disclosure, and experiences of discrimination among students. Most student respondents openly acknowledge their caste identities among their classmates, indicating comfort and a

lack of fear related to their caste backgrounds. However, many students reported experiencing discrimination, with language and caste being the most commonly cited factors. This data underscores the need for ongoing efforts to address caste-based prejudices and promote inclusivity in the educational environment.

6. Teacher Dissatisfaction and Concerns: Implications for Higher Education in Karnataka

One of the study's major conclusions is that teachers in India, particularly in Karnataka, hold significant dissatisfaction with the current higher education system. Approximately 94% of educators hold unfavourable views on India's higher education system, citing issues such as poor standards, limited access for disadvantaged students, and inadequate resources at public universities.

Teachers' perspectives on privatising higher education are also mixed; 86 percent consider it harmful, particularly for marginalised groups, while just 14 percent think it has enhanced access and quality of education.

Teachers unanimously approved that privatisation negatively affects the involvement and representation of Scheduled Castes in higher education. They maintain that the rising cost of education, deficiency of affirmative action implementation, and commercialisation hinder the access of SC students.

The teachers also express significant worries about the New Education Policy (NEP), with 96% thinking it will worsen Scheduled Castes' situation. They feel that the NEP does not adequately address issues of discrimination and inclusivity in higher education. This study presented how privatisation of higher education impacted the Scheduled Caste students. Here, it can be argued that the introduction of NEP, which emphasises the role of private players rather than the public sector, would further worsen the situation unless the issues of discrimination and exclusivity are addressed with the top priority. In other words, efforts need to be made as much to improve the quality of education as to inclusivity.

The study highlights the discrimination and suppression faced by teaching professionals from marginalised backgrounds, exemplified by the cases of Prof. Sham Babu and Suresh. Prof. Sham Babu's long struggle for justice exemplifies the challenges faced by Scheduled Caste teachers, while Suresh's case demonstrates how discussing sensitive topics like casteism can lead to discrimination and termination, particularly in private institutions.

7. Parental Solid Involvement Amidst Discrimination in Institutions: A Mixed Scenario

Parental involvement in monitoring their children's academic progress is strong, with 80.0 percent of parents actively visiting colleges or institutions. It demonstrates a deep commitment to their children's education and overall well-being. However, the behaviour towards the parents is varied as most of them reported discrimination and ill-treatment by the institutions due to fee payment issues.

8. Diverse Parental Perspectives on Public Higher Education in Karnataka

Education is considered a fundamental right, especially in elementary education for those between 5-14 years old. However, the government's failure to provide the basic facilities and infrastructure pushes poor parents to send their children to private educational institutions. Even the higher education system in India is becoming more vulnerable. One of the significant findings of the research is that parents in Karnataka hold diverse perspectives on public higher education institutions within the state. The study found that a substantial percentage of parents believe there is a need to increase the number of public institutions and allocate more funding, indicating a desire to expand and improve the public education system. However, 29.3 percent of parents advocate for halting the privatisation of public institutions, expressing concerns about the ongoing privatisation trend. Additionally, a small percentage (2.7 percent) view public institutions as outperforming private ones, showcasing varying perceptions of the quality of education between these sectors. These diverse viewpoints underscore the complex dynamics surrounding public education in Karnataka, which should be considered in shaping educational policies and reforms.

9. Demand for the inclusion of Reservation policy in private educational institutions as the remedy for creating equal opportunity in society

Our study underscores a significant finding regarding the demand for including reservation policies in private educational institutions. It has been revealed that such an initiative is a potential remedy for promoting equal opportunities. This significant finding highlights the growing consensus among various stakeholders that extending reservation policies to the private sector can play a pivotal role in fostering social inclusivity and equitable access to education, ultimately contributing to a more just and balanced society. This study outlined how different educational policies in India pushed

education towards privatisation and created imbalances in outcomes due to financial capability presumably determining access to quality education. In an era of increasingly privatised higher education, marginalised sections, especially Scheduled caste students and their access and participation in education and the market, the demands for the reservation of the private sector, including the education sector, are justifiable.

10. Equitable Reservation Policies Needed for Representing Subcastes Among Scheduled Castes in Karnataka.

As indicated in the introduction chapter, there are 101 subcastes listed within the Scheduled Castes in the Karnataka state. Among these, some of the significant and dominant subcastes include Adi Karnataka, Adi Dravida, Adi Andhra, Holey, Madiga, Bhovi, Samagara, Chalavadi, Korama, Banjara, Bhovi, and others. However, the study found that most of these subcastes were not encountered during the field study. This observation suggests that the representation of all subcastes within the Scheduled Castes in higher education and employment is not uniform, and the benefits of reservation policies are somehow not reaching these subcategories. In order to establish the necessary mechanism for the inclusion of underrepresented sub-castes in the education system and job market, it is crucial to consider the calls for reservations, which may include sub-quotas, in both the private and public sectors.

11. Low-fee private and aided institutions contribute the maximum percentage of marginalised sections, including scheduled castes students.

Our study has unveiled a significant major finding that low-fee private and aided educational institutions play a pivotal role in serving marginalised sections of the population, particularly scheduled castes students. This discovery underscores the essential contribution of these institutions in offering educational opportunities to those who have historically faced socio-economic challenges and limited access to quality education. It highlights the importance of recognising and supporting such institutions as essential social inclusion and educational empowerment agents.

12. Privatising higher education has made the teaching profession the most insecure for the maximum percentage of teacher responses.

One of the most significant findings of our study pertains to the impact of privatising higher education on the teaching profession. Our research has shown that as higher

education becomes more privatised, a substantial percentage of teachers have experienced increased job insecurity. This revelation underscores the need to critically examine the consequences of privatisation on educators, focusing on addressing the factors contributing to the heightened job insecurity within the teaching profession.

13. It is the need of the hour in the entire country to increase its expenditure on the public education system.

A study understood that the expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP in India has been increasing in recent years, but it remains lower than in many other countries. As per the latest available data of the Ministry of Education/MHRD, Government of India, the expenditure on education in India as a percentage of GDP is 3.1 percent during the fiscal year 2021-22, which is lower than the global average of around 4.5 percent. High-income countries spent nearly double the amount on education as low-income countries in 2020. In 2020, the United States spent about 6.05 percent of its GDP on education; in South America, Bolivia led the region at 9.84 percent. Namibia allocated the most significant proportion in Africa, dedicating 9.64 percent of its GDP to education. While in Asia, Saudi Arabia was the top spender at 7.81 percent. Greenland led Europe by allocating 10.5 percent of its GDP to education, nearly double the European Union's average of 5.13 percent. The average expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP in 36 countries was 4.52 percent. India's long-promised 6 percent GDP expenditure on its public education system has remained an unfulfilled promise.

14. There is a lack of a proper monitoring system to regulate private institutions.

The current study has unveiled a critical significant finding concerning regulating private educational institutions. A significant deficiency exists in establishing a proper monitoring system to oversee these institutions. This finding highlights a pressing need to develop and implement an effective and practical regulatory framework to ensure accountability, transparency, and quality standards within the private education sector. Addressing this issue is crucial for maintaining educational quality and safeguarding the interests of students and society as a whole.

15. Findings from the case studies:

Case Study 1: Professor Sham Babu (Pseudonym)

- **Discrimination in Appointment:** Professor Sham Babu, a Scheduled Caste individual, faced discrimination in his appointment as an Assistant Professor in an engineering college. Despite being entitled to a relaxation of two years, he was initially rejected due to a purported lack of five years of service.
- **Prolonged Legal Battle:** Prof. Babu engaged in a prolonged legal battle to secure his rightful appointments and promotions. This battle spanned multiple years and levels of the judiciary.
- **Delayed Promotion Opportunity:** Due to the extended denial of his appointment, Prof. Babu missed the opportunity for promotion to the rank of Professor. His request for retroactive promotion consideration was not acknowledged.
- **Challenges in Becoming Principal:** Despite being the most senior candidate for the principal position, he was passed over in favour of an individual from a forward caste. Legal action led to a court order in his favour, but the appointment was not implemented.
- **Struggle for Justice:** Prof. Babu's fight for justice continued throughout his professional career, marked by multiple legal battles, struggles for appointments, and attempts to secure his rightful place within the institution.

Case Study 2: Suresh (Pseudonym)

- **Suppression of Freedom of Expression:** Suresh, a lecturer at a privately aided institution, experienced the suppression of his freedom of expression. He was accused of creating a disruptive environment by addressing casteism and questioning the legitimacy of teaching political science.
- **Unjust Termination:** Despite having no direct involvement in the student's performance on casteism, Suresh's explanations were ignored, leading to his termination.

- **Discrimination in Financial Benefits:** Suresh observed discrimination in financial benefits, with discrepancies in increments and other benefits among lecturers. He believed his caste background played a significant role in this discrimination.
- **Lack of Dialogue on Inclusion:** Suresh emphasised the absence of a platform for dialogue on the inclusion and exclusion of marginalised communities in private higher education. He believed that more open discourse could have resolved issues within the institution rather than resorting to his termination from the job.

These findings highlight the prevalent discrimination and challenges confronted by Scheduled Castes individuals within the privatised and commercialised higher education system. They underscore the need for systemic reforms to ensure equal representation, freedom of expression, and opportunities for marginalised communities in higher education institutions.

7.4 Recommendations of the Study

- A solid and transparent regulatory framework is essential to empower private higher education institutions to contribute to the advancement of marginalised communities actively. It can be achieved through a robust private-public partnership model, where the government maintains solid regulatory oversight.
- There is a need to expand the number of government-funded educational institutions at the primary and secondary levels of schooling. This growth is crucial for enhancing the quality and inclusivity of the tertiary education system.
- The study recommends that policymakers establish an operative mechanism to extend the advantages of existing affirmative action policies to the underrepresented subcastes. It would enable a more equitable distribution of benefits and opportunities within the Scheduled Castes.
- Complete utilisation, increase the funding of SC Development Corporation and restrict diverting allocated funds for other developmental activities.
- The government should establish a psychotherapy centre to address the psychological issues of students, particularly those belonging to the SCs, in order to help them overcome the fears and inferiority complex resulting from caste and other forms of discrimination.

- This government should also encourage and develop advanced learning platforms and incorporate Coding and Artificial Intelligence (AI) into the curriculum of public higher educational institutions.
- The government should establish skill training centres and placement mechanisms to equip SC students with the necessary skills and facilitate their employment in the appropriate job market.
- The government should establish effective public coaching centres to train a large number of SC students for competitive exams, including CAT, MAT, IIT-JEE, IELTS, GMAT, and GRE, as well as UPSC, KPSC, and various other streams, ensuring equality in every higher education and employment field.
- Public educational institutions should incorporate a collaborative working environment with highly esteemed private institutions by exchanging teaching, learning, and technological programs.
- To pacify economic barriers to the access and participation of Scheduled Castes students, the government should establish and manage a savings mechanism called “Reserve Insurance for Children’s Educational Needs.”

7.5 Limitations of the Study

- The primary objectives of this study revolve around investigating the challenges and opportunities experienced by the scheduled castes population in the context of the privatisation era, given their historical marginalisation in social and economic domains.
- The study employed interview schedules for data collection as a suitable survey method. The reliability and validity of the data depended on the respondents’ honesty and accuracy in their responses. Nevertheless, this method has limitations, as it may not probe into the intricacies of underlying causes, necessitating further investigation. Additionally, the structured nature of the interview schedule constrained the researcher to predefined questions and answers.
- It is worth noting that the study did not conduct interviews with college or institutional management and non-teaching staff, thus presenting a limitation in terms of the broader institutional perspective.

- During the study, approximately half of the parents of the selected students were successfully interviewed, owing to the non-resident status of some parents in the Bengaluru urban area. Furthermore, the study encountered challenges in scheduling interviews with parent respondents due to their work commitments and varying literacy levels.

7.6 Recommendations for Future Researchers

- **In-Depth Case Studies:** Researchers can conduct in-depth case studies focusing on specific regions or communities to understand better how factors like caste discrimination, cultural norms, and economic disadvantages impact female students' access to education. They also employ qualitative research methods like interviews and focus groups to gather personal narratives and experiences of all sections of the students and their families. It can provide a deeper insight into the underlying causes of underrepresentation.

- **Researchers can include the comparative analysis of pre and post-development**

Researchers can undertake a comparative study to examine the profound impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the higher education system, focusing specifically on marginalised classes. This research could shed light on these groups' unique challenges and vulnerabilities during the pandemic and how these challenges have affected their access to and participation in higher education.

- **Intersectionality:** Future research should explore the intersectionality of gender with other identities, such as class, religion, and ethnicity, to comprehensively understand the diverse challenges faced by different groups of female students.

7.7 Conclusion

In conclusion, education serves as a vital catalyst for human progress and forms the foundation of a civilised society. Its role extends beyond merely securing jobs; it encompasses the broader aspects of individuals' psychological, social, political, economic, and cultural well-being, thereby contributing to the overall development of

a nation. The state of higher education in a country is equivalent to its respiratory system, influencing its pride on both national and international platforms.

Historically, India has grappled with issues of caste, race, and gender determining access and participation in education and employment. European powers' arrival brought about reforms that significantly transformed the Indian education system, particularly at higher levels. Since independence, India has witnessed a remarkable increase in higher educational institutions. Nevertheless, the challenge now lies in enhancing the quality of this expanding system, a shift prompted by the adoption of the LPG model.

External quality assurance mechanisms have been introduced to drive institutions to improve their quality, gain a global reputation, and stay competitive. Critics have raised concerns about low learning, teaching, and job prospects for higher education graduates. However, quality higher education must be rooted in primary and secondary school education quality to ensure a robust foundation.

While there has been progress in enrolling Scheduled Caste (SC) and Scheduled Tribe (ST) students, high dropout rates among these marginalised communities persist, driven by factors such as caste-based discrimination and low self-esteem. These issues remain a critical challenge in India's higher education system.

Excessive bureaucracy exacerbates the situation, as policymakers and authorities often fail to appreciate teachers, students, and stakeholders' hardships. The government tends to adopt measures from countries with high-quality education standards without considering the ground realities.

The commercialisation of education has turned it into a commodity rather than a service. This trend has attracted Indian and foreign business interests, making higher education profitable. However, privatisation weakens the state's authority, with affluent individuals exerting control over it. Politicians, who are often business tycoons themselves, advocate for privatisation using the pretext of development, and in doing so, they exacerbate the societal divide.

Instead of strengthening public education institutions, those in power lean towards privatisation, exacerbating disparities. Privatisation hinders individuals from deprived backgrounds from accessing higher education, as it is expensive and excludes them under the pretext of quality and fees.

The future looks miserable for SC, ST, and OBC students from low-income families, who may end up in menial jobs rather than pursuing higher education. If education

continues to remain a commercial good to purchase. Actual development requires the inclusion of all sections of society, and India still has a long way to go in achieving this. In essence, the strength and effectiveness of a country or society depend on the development of its most vulnerable and weakest sections, making them the accurate measure of progress because ***“A chain is only as strong as its weakest link”***.

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Student Questionnaire, Parents and Teachers Interview Schedule

Privatisation of Higher Education and its
Impact on the Scheduled Castes in
Karnataka

Dear Respondents, I Maruthi O, a PhD Research Scholar at Centre for the Study of Social Exclusion and Inclusive Policy, School of Social Sciences, University of Hyderabad (UoH), Hyderabad, Telangana. The title of my PhD thesis is “Privatisation of Higher Education and Impact on the Scheduled Castes in Karnataka”. In this regard, I am collecting primary data from selected respondents who are pursuing higher education in Bengaluru, Karnataka. I request you to provide your valuable responses to this questionnaire. Participation in this primary data collection is voluntary and one may opt not to participate either before or anytime during the process. Kindly note that all the responses will be held confidential and employed only for research and academic purposes. In case of any clarifications with regards to this particular questionnaire and the research study, kindly e-mail to maruthiteju@gmail.com or call at 7901022746. Thanks in advance and looking forward to your valuable responses.

Best Regards,

Mr Maruthi O

PhD Research Scholar,

CSSEIP, University of Hyderabad(UoH)

1. Email:
2. Name :
3. Mobile No for communication (Optional):
4. Name of you College or Institute :
5. Age?
 - A. Between 15 to 20 years
 - B. Between 21 to 25 years
 - C. Between 26 to 30 years
 - D. Between 31 to 35 years
 - E. 36 years and Above

6. Gender Identity
 - A. Male
 - B. Female
 - C. Other prefer not to Answer
7. Do You belong to the Scheduled Caste Community?
 - A. No
 - B. Yes
8. Mention your Sub-Caste?
9. What is your Place of Domicile?
10. What is your Place of Domicile District?
11. Since how long have you lived here in Bengaluru City?
 - A. Less than 5 years
 - B. 5 to 10 years
 - C. 11 to 15 years
 - D. More than 15 years
12. Do you belong to a migrant family settled here in Bengaluru city?
 - A. No
 - B. Yes
 - C. prefer not to Answer
13. If yes, from where did you migrate?
 - A. Andhra Pradesh
 - B. Tamil Nadu
 - C. Kerala
 - D. Maharashtra
 - E. Other / North Indian states
14. What is your Educational qualification?
 - A. Diploma
 - B. Under-graduate

- C. Graduate
 - D. Post- Graduate
 - E. Doctorate.
 - F. Others
15. Can You mention Your Stream of Learning?
- A. Arts and Humanities
 - B. Commerce and Business Studies
 - C. Science and Technology
 - D. Others (Please Specify) Other:
16. if you are not from the Professional Courses, Did you Ever thought to pursue Professional courses Such as Engineering or Medical?
- A. No
 - B. Yes
 - C. Maybe
 - D. prefer not to Answer
17. if Yes, what is the reason for not opting the Professional Courses?
- A. Financial Constraints
 - B. Not Cleared the Required Entrance test
 - C. Parents Unwillingness Others (Please Specify) Other:
18. What is the type of institution that you are studying at present?
- A. Public
 - B. Private
 - C. Others (Please Specify) Other:
19. What is the educational qualification of your Mother?
- A. Uneducated
 - B. Primary Education
 - C. Secondary Education
 - D. Collegiate Education.
 - E. Graduation
 - F. Post- Graduation and Above other
 - G. Other:

20. What is the educational qualification of your Father?
- A. Uneducated
 - B. Primary Education
 - C. Secondary Education Collegiate Education.
 - D. Graduation
 - E. Post- Graduation and Above
 - F. Other
 - G. Other:

Household Information

21. Type of Area you live in?
- A. Village
 - B. Semi Urban
 - C. Urban
 - D. Metropolitan
 - E. Others Other:
22. If Urban/ metropolitan, What is the type of residential Area?
- A. Slum
 - B. Layout
 - C. Hobli
 - D. Others (Please Specify) Other:
23. Type of Residence
- A. Own House
 - B. Rented/ Leased House
 - C. Flat in the Apartment Others (Please Specify) Other:
24. Do avail any kind of following Ration Card Holding?
- A. BPL
 - B. APL
 - C. AAY
 - D. AY
 - E. No Ration Card
 - F. Others Other:

25. Annual Income of the Family

- A. Less than 50000
- B. Between 50000 and 100000
- C. Between 100001 to 150000
- D. 150001 and 200000
- E. 200001 and Above

Academic Qualification

26. What is the type of educational institution you Study In?

- A. Public
- B. Private Aided
- C. Private Un-aided
- D. Trust
- E. Others

27. What is the Name of the College / Institute? / University?

28. Name of the Affiliating Body / University?

- A. Bangalore University
- B. Mysore University Others (Please Specify)
- C. Other:

29. What is the reason for selecting the college/ University?

- A. Nearer to home
- B. Suitable for my Financial Constrains
- C. Good infrastructure compared to the other colleges
- D. Good teaching compared to other colleges
- E. Advised by the parents/ friends and others
- F. Others Other:

30. Did you get the admission in the course which you preferred?

- A. No
- B. Yes
- C. Prefer not to Answer

31. if no, what is the reason for selecting this Course?

- A. Parents wish
- B. Did not find any other alternative
- C. Other
- D. Other:

32. In which category did you get the admission in the course?

- A. Reserved
- B. Unreserved
- C. Physically Challenged
- D. Sports
- E. Defence Others (Specify) Other:

33. If you got admission in this University on the merit basis (entrance + viva), then have you ever found people stigmatizing you by calling/considering you quota/Meritless student?

- A. No
- B. Yes
- C. Prefer not to Answer

4. Have you paid any donation to the college/ university?

- A. No
- B. Yes
- C. Maybe

35. How do you feel regarding the fee structure of your college/university compared to other colleges/ university?

- A. Low
- B. Moderate High
- C. Very High

36. Did you Ever feel Discriminated while interacting with the Administrative staff in your Educational Institutions?

- A. No
- B. Yes
- C. Maybe
- D. prefer not to Answer

37. if Yes, please Explain the Situation
38. Where do you reside?
- A. Home/ Day Scholar
 - B. Hostel
 - C. Paying Guest (PG)
 - D. Others Other:
39. What is the total amount of fee paid per annum including hostel fees?
- A. Less than 50000
 - B. 50000 to 75000
 - C. 75000 to 100000
 - D. More than a 100000
40. What is the financial source for paying the fees and other expenditure?
- A. Parents Income
 - B. Scholarship / Fellowship
 - C. Trust
 - D. Others (Specify)
 - E. Other:
41. Do you avail any Scholarship /fellowship sponsored by state or centre listed below?
- A. Junior Research Fellowship
 - B. National Fellowship for Scheduled Caste
 - C. Single girl Child Scholarship
 - D. Non-NET Fellowship
 - E. Others Other:
42. What sort of comments/remarks do you receive from Non- Scheduled Caste students when you avail the fellowship?
43. Do you go for any part-time job to meet your expenditure?
- A. No
 - B. Yes
 - C. Prefer not to Answer
44. If yes, what is the nature of the job?
45. Are you a dropout student at any point in time in your studies?

- A. No
 - B. Yes
 - C. Prefer not to Answer
46. If yes, reason for the halt/dropout the studies?
- A. Financial Constraints
 - B. Failed in Subjects
 - C. Ill-Health
 - D. Others Other:

Classroom Environment and Behaviour

47. Do you think the classroom provides equal space for learning to all students?
- A. No
 - B. Yes
 - C. Prefer not to Answer
48. If no, why is it so? State the probable reason.
49. With whom do you interact more in the classroom?
- A. Same language students
 - B. Same gender students
 - C. Same ideology background students
 - D. Same region students
 - E. Your own caste students
 - F. Upper caste students Interact with everyone prefer not to Answer
50. Do your classmates know that you belong to the Scheduled Caste community?
- A. No
 - B. Yes
 - C. Maybe
51. What is your feeling in disclosing your caste Background to your fellow students?
- A. Uncomfortable
 - B. Comfortable

C. prefer not to Answer

52. Have you seen SC students in your college / Institution face discrimination?

A. No

B. Yes

C. Don't Know

D. prefer not to Answer

53. If yes, state the nature of discrimination you face.

A. Caste

B. Colour

C. Class

D. Religion

E. Gender

F. Ideological Background

G. Appearance Identity

H. Region

I. Language

J. Others Other:

54. What is the conduct of your teachers towards you?

A. Non- Discriminatory

B. Discriminatory.

C. Neutral

D. Prefer not to Answer

55. Has your Caste background affected your academic relationship between you and your Teacher?

A. No

B. Yes

C. Maybe

D. prefer not to Answer

56. Have you ever felt discriminated based on your caste?

A. No

B. Yes

C. Prefer not to Answer

57. If yes, what kind of discrimination have you faced please elaborate?
58. Where do you sit in the classroom?
- A. Front Rows
 - B. Middle Rows
 - C. Last Rows or Corner of the Class
 - D. No Fixed Place
 - E. can't say
 - F. prefer not to Answer
59. Why do you sit in a particular place in the classroom?
- A. Preventing class interaction (last row)
 - B. Comfortable
 - C. Not having friends/group (d) Friends/group sitting
 - D. Avoiding interaction with teacher
 - E. For better concentration Interaction with the teacher wherever get seat
 - F. Uncomfortable with language
 - G. Don't know
 - H. Preferred Not to Say Any Others (Please Specify)
 - I. Other:
60. Do your teachers provide equal opportunity to all the students in the class?
- A. No
 - B. Yes
 - C. Prefer Not to Answer
61. Does caste background of students affect the student-teacher academic relationship?
- A. No
 - B. Yes
 - C. Don't Know
 - D. prefer not to Answer
62. Does caste background of students affect their social interaction in the campus?
- A. No
 - B. Yes
 - C. Don't Know
 - D. prefer not to Answer

63. Does any of your friends form their group based on their caste background?

- A. No
- B. Yes
- C. prefer not to Answer

64. Do you Have any student organisation at your college/university?

- A. No
- B. Yes
- C. prefer not to Answer

65. if Yes, Are you part of any Student Organisation?

- A. No
- B. Yes
- C. prefer not to Answer

Working of the Institution and Privatisation of Higher Education

66. Do you support the Privatisation of Higher education Across the Country?

- A. No
- B. Yes
- C. Prefer not to Answer

67. How do you feel about the current situation of privatisation of Higher Education in India?

- A. Fully Satis ed
- B. Partially Satis ed Unsatisfied
- C. prefer not to Answer

68. Are you aware of the open and distance learning courses such as MOOCs?
MOOC?

- A. No
- B. Yes
- C. prefer not to Answer

69. If yes, have you done any course from MOOC or any other learning platforms?

- A. No
- B. Yes
- C. prefer not to Answer

70. Does your institution have any student exchange programme with other institution or country? If yes have benefited from that programme?

- A. No
- B. Yes
- C. prefer not to Answer

71. Does your institution increase the fee frequently?

- A. No
- B. Yes
- C. prefer not to Answer

72. Does your institution fulfil all these basic facilities? please tick

- A. Each separate classroom
- B. Adequate teachers to all the subjects
- C. Play Area / Ground
- D. Pure RO drinking Water facilities
- E. Electric connections
- F. Library
- G. Proper Books for the various streams
- H. Well-Equipped Lab
- I. Separate lavatories with hygiene
- J. NCC/ NSS
- K. Online Classes

73. Has your institution taken any initiatives to improve the capacities of students in the following aspects?

- A. Language
- B. Academic reading
- C. Academic speaking
- D. Academic writing
- E. Reasoning and analysis
- F. Focused support of particular subject
- G. Special bridge programmes
- H. Remedial support
- I. Special tutorials and tutorial programmes and Centers

74. Does your institution follow the following initiatives for the carrier support for students?

- A. Placement (counselling and assistance skill development courses)
- B. Physical and emotional health support and Wellness
- C. Financial support (Scholarships, Stipend and Boarding)
- D. Facilities for sports and Arts
- E. Facilities for medical care
- F. Counselling services
- G. Involvement of students in institutional process (committees of institutions)
- H. Topic centered clubs and activities (music, literature, poetry and etc..) Grievance cell/ Equal opportunity Cell

75. In what ways do you cope up with caste-based Humiliation, stigmatization and exclusion?

76. Do you Support Privatisation of Higher Education in Karnataka?
No Yes prefer not to Answer

77. Do you think due to Privatisation of Higher Education most of the Scheduled Castes are losing their opportunity to get into Higher Education?

- A. No
- B. Yes
- C. prefer not to Answer

78. Do you feel the Private Higher Educational Institutions are performing very well then, the public higher educational institutions

- A. Strongly Disagree
- B. Disagree
- C. Neutral
- D. Agree
- E. Strongly Agree

79. if you Agree/ Strongly Agree, please explain the reasons for it

80. Do you support Reservation for the Scheduled Castes in the Private Institutions?

- A. No
- B. Yes
- C. prefer not to Answer

81. if no, please explain the reason?
82. What do you suggest for the effective participation and equal opportunity for the Scheduled Castes in Higher Education?
83. What are the pros and cons of the Privatisations of higher educations? please explain

Parents Interview Schedule regarding the Privatisation of Higher education

1. Name of the Student :

2. Gender of the student :

☐Female

☐Male

3. Name of the Parent Respondent

4. Gender of the Respondent

☐Female

☐Male

Prefer not to say

5. Marital Status of the Respondent

☐Married

☐Separated / Divorced

☐Widowed

☐Other:

6. Name of the Spouse

7. Educational Qualification of Respondent (Father)

☐illiterate

☐Schooling

☐Under graduate

☐Graduation and Above

8. Educational Qualification of Respondent (Mother)

- ☐illiterate
- ☐Schooling
- ☐Under graduate
- ☐Graduation and Above

9. Type of Family

- ☐Nuclear Family
- ☐Joint Family

10. Total Number of Family Members

- ☐3-4
- ☐5-6
- ☐6-8
- ☐Other:

11. Total Number of children pursuing Higher education in your Family?

- ☐Only One
- ☐2-3
- ☐More than 3

12. Type of college of your children Studying in?

- ☐Public Institution
- ☐Private Institution
- ☐Public- Aided
- ☐Do not know
- ☐Other:

13. What is the Mother Language / Communicative Language at home?

☐Kannada

☐Telugu

☐Tamil

☐Other:

14. What is your Birth place?

☐Karnataka

☐Andhra Pradesh

☐Tamil Nadu

☐Other:

15. Do you reside at Own house in Bangalore?

☐No

☐Yes

16. Are you facing any difficulty in sending your children to pursue the Higher education?

☐No

☐Yes

17. Do you monitor your children progress by visiting college or Institutions?

☐No

☐Yes

18. is privatisation of higher education is a good process?

☐No

☐Yes

19. if Yes, what are the Reasons?

- ☐ Provides Good education compare to Public institutions
- ☐ availability of Best Facilities Compared to Public Institutions
- ☐ Teaching and Curriculum is progressive than Public Institutions
- ☐ Other:

20. What is your Opinion about the Public institutions in Karnataka?

- ☐ Number of Institutions has to be increased
- ☐ Funding for the Public Institutions has to be Increased
- ☐ Privatisation of Public Institutions must be stopped
- ☐ Not Needed any Changes as they are best functioning than Private Institutions

21. What do you suggest for the effective participation of Scheduled Caste Children at the Higher educational Institutions?

Questionnaire to Teacher - Privatisation of Higher Education and its Impact on the Scheduled Castes in Karnataka.

1. Email :

2. Name :

3. Name of the Working Institute:

4. Type of the Institution

☐Public

☐Private

5. Age

☐Between 20 and 30 years

☐Between 31 and 40 years

☐Between 41 and 50 years

☐50 years and Above

6. Qualification

☐Ph.D.

☐M.Phil.

☐Post- Graduation

☐Others

7. Religion

8. Caste

9. Sub-caste

10. Income per annum

☐Less than a 100000

☐Between 100001 and 200000

☐Between 200001 and 300000

☐300000 and above

11. Reason for choosing the teaching field?

☐ Passion

☐ Temporary option

☐ Others Influence

☐ Other Reason

☐ Other

12. What is your opinion about the current higher education system in India? Please Elaborate

13. What is your opinion on the increase in privatisation of education particularly, the higher education? Please Elaborate

14. How does the privatisation of Higher Education affect Dalit student's representation in Higher Education? please elaborate

15. How do you think the New Education Policy with Impact Dalit Entry into Higher education?

16. Does privatisation of higher education affect social inclusive policies like reservations?

17. What are your suggestions in implementing inclusive educational policies?

18. Do you support the reservation for the marginalised class students in the private educational institutions?

19. What are your suggestions to improve public institutions of higher education?

List of Colleges/ Institutions selected for the study

Sl. No	Name of the college	No of students	Name of the board or university
1	Abbas Khan College for Women	6	Bangalore City University
2	APS COLLEGE ARTS AND SCINCE	1	Vishweshwarayya Technological University (VTU)
3	ASC degree college	1	Vishweshwarayya Technological University (VTU)
4	Baldwin Methodist College	3	Bangalore City University
5	Bangalore Institute of Dental Science	1	Rajiv Gandhi University
6	Bangalore Institute of Technology	2	Vishweshwarayya Technological University
7	Bangalore University, Jnanabharathi Bangalore	30	Bangalore University, Jnanabharathi Bangalore
8	Bengaluru Central College	2	Bangalore City University
9	BES College	2	Vishweshwarayya Technological University
10	BMS College for Women	7	Bangalore City University
11	BMS College of Engineering	1	Vishweshwarayya Technological University
12	BTL Institute of Technology	1	Vishweshwarayya Technological University
13	CHRIST UNIVERSITY	10	Autonomous (Deemed to be University)
14	Community Institute of Commerce and Management Studies	6	Bangalore City University
15	Dayanand Sagar College of Engineering	1	Vishweshwarayya Technological University
16	Dr. Ambedkar Institute of Technology	1	Vishweshwarayya Technological University
17	Government Arts College	9	Bangalore City University
18	IZee Business School	1	Bangalore University, Jnanabharathi Bangalore
19	Jyoti Nivas College	3	Bangalore City University
20	Kristu Jayanthi College	1	Bangalore University, Jnanabharathi Bangalore
21	Maharani Lakshmi Ammanni College for Women	2	Bangalore University, Jnanabharathi Bangalore

22	MES College	2	Bangalore University, Jnanabharathi Bangalore
23	The National College, Basavanagudi	3	Bangalore University, Jnanabharathi Bangalore
24	NMKRV College for Women	5	Bangalore City University
25	RBNMS FIRST GRADE COLLEGE	1	Bangalore City University
26	RV COLLEGE of physiotherapy	1	RGUHS
27	RV Institute of Management	1	Bangalore University, Jnanabharathi Bangalore
28	RV Institution	1	Bangalore University, Jnanabharathi Bangalore
29	Seshadripuram Arts, Science & Commerce College	2	Bangalore City University
30	Sir, M Vishweshwaryya College	1	Vishweshwarayya Technological University
31	Smt, Gangamma Hombegowda First Grade College	4	Bangalore University, Jnanabharathi Bangalore
32	Sri Sai Ram College for Woman	1	Bangalore University, Jnanabharathi Bangalore
33	Sri Venkateswara College	1	Bangalore University, Jnanabharathi Bangalore
34	St Anne's first grade college for women	1	Bangalore University, Jnanabharathi Bangalore
35	St Joseph's College	9	Bangalore City University
36	Surana College	3	Bangalore City University
37	The Oxford college of Business Management and Information Science	1	Bangalore University, Jnanabharathi Bangalore
38	The oxford College of Science	1	Board of Technical Examination
39	The Oxford polytechnic.	1	Board of Technical Examination
40	UNIVERSITY LAW COLLEGE, BANGLORE UNIVERSITY,	13	Bangalore University, Jnanabharathi Bangalore
41	V V puram Arts & Commerce Degree College	2	Bangalore City University
42	Vijaya Collage	5	Bangalore City University
Total		150	

CHAPTER-2-

LIST OF SCHEDULED CASTES

¹ THE CONSTITUTION (SCHEDULED CASTES) ORDER, 1950

C.O. 19

In exercise of the powers conferred by clause (1) of article 341 of the Constitution of India, the President, after consultation with the Governors and Rajpramukhs of the States concerned, is pleased to make the following Order, namely:—

1. This Order may be called the Constitution (Scheduled Castes) Order, 1950.
2. Subject to the provisions of this Order, the castes, races or tribes or parts of, or groups within, castes or tribes specified in ² [Parts I to ³ [XXV]] of the Schedule to this Order shall, in relation to the States to which those Parts respectively relate, be deemed to be Scheduled Castes so far as regards member thereof resident in the localities specified in relation to them in those Parts of that Schedule.
- ⁴ [3. Notwithstanding anything contained in paragraph 2, no person who professes a religion different from the Hindu ⁵ [, the Sikh or the Buddhist] religion shall be deemed to be a member of a Scheduled Caste.]
- ⁶ [4. Any reference in this Order to a State or to a district or other territorial division thereof shall be construed as a reference to the State, district or other territorial division as constituted on the 1st day of May, 1976.]

1. Published with the Ministry of Law Notification No. S.R.O. 385, dated the 10th August, 1950, Gazette of India, Extraordinary, 1950, Part II, Section 3, page 163.

2. Subs. by the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Lists (Modification) Order, 1956.

3. The figure “XXI” has been successively subs. by Act 18 of 1987, s. 19 and 1st Sch. (w.e.f. 30-5-87), by Act 28 of 2000, s. 19 and 3rd Sch (w.e.f. 1-11-2000) and by Act 29 of 2000, s. 24 and 5th Sch. (w.e.f. 9-11-2000) and by Act 6 of 2014, s. 28 and 5th Sch.(w.e.f.) to read as above.

4. Subs. by Act 63 of 1956, s. 3 and First Sch., for paragraph 3.

5. Subs. by Act 15 of 1990, s. 2, for "or the Sikh".

6. Subs. by Act 108 of 1976, s. 3 and the First Sch., for paragraph 4 (w.e.f. 27-7-1977).

Karnataka

1. Adi Andhra
2. Adi Dravida
3. Adi Karnataka
4. Adiya (in Coorg district)
5. Ager
6. Ajila
7. Anamuk
8. Aray Mala
9. Arunthathiyar
10. Arwa Mala
11. Baira
12. Bakad
13. Vant (In Belgaum, Bijapur, Dharwar and North Kanara districts)
14. Bakuda
15. Balagai
16. Bandi
17. Banjara, Lambani, Lambada, Lambadi, Lamani, Sugali, Sukali]
18. Bathada
19. Beda Jangam, Budga Jangam
20. Bellara
21. Bhangi, Mehtar, Olgana, Rukhi, Malkana, Halalkhor, Lalbegi, Balmiki, Korar, Zadmalli
22. Bhambi, Bhambhi, Asadaru, Asodi, Chamadia, Chamar, Chambhar, Chamgar, Haralayya, Harali, Khalpa, Machigar, Mochigar, Madar, Madig, Mochi, Muchi, Telegu Mochi, Kamati Mochi, Ranigar, Rohidas, Rohit, Samgar
23. Bhovi, Od , Odde, Vaddar, Waddar, Voddar, Woddar, Bovi (Non-Besta), Kalluvaddar, Mannuvaddar]
24. Bindla
25. Byagara
26. Chakkiliyan
27. Chalavadi, Chavadi, Channayya
28. Chandala
29. Chenna Dasar, Holaya Dasar
30. Dakkal, Dokkalwar
31. Dakkaliga
32. Dhor, Kakkayya, Kankayya
33. Dom, Dombara, Paidi, Pano
34. Ellamalwar, Yellammalawandlu
35. Ganti Chores
36. Garoda, Garo
37. Godda
47. Jambuvulu
48. Kadaiyan
49. Kalladi
50. Kepmaris
51. Kolupulvandlu
52. Koosa
53. Koracha, Korachar
54. Korama, Korava, Koravar
55. Kotegar, Metri
56. Kudumban
57. Kuravan
58. Lingader
59. Machala
60. Madari
61. Madiga
62. Mahar, Taral, Dhegu Meg
63. Mahyavanshi, Dhed, Vank
64. Maila
65. Mala
66. Mala Dasari
67. Mala Hannai
68. Mala Jangam
69. Mala Masti
70. Mala Sale, Netkani
71. Mala Sanyasi
72. Mang, Matang, Minimadi
73. Mang Garudi, Mang Garc
74. Manne
75. Masthi
76. Mavilan
77. Meghval, Menghvar
78. Moger
79. Mukri
80. Mundala,
81. Nadia, Hadi
82. Nalkadaya
83. Nalakeyava
84. Nayadi
85. Pale
86. Pallan
87. Pambada
88. Panchama
89. Panniandi
90. Paraiyan, Paraya
91. Paravan
92. Raneyar

37. Gosangi

38. Gosangi

39. Halleer

40. Halsar, Haslar, Hulasvar, Halasvar

41. Handi Jogis

42. Hasla

43. Holar, Valhar

44. Holaya, Holer, Holey

45. Holey Dasari

46. Jaggali

93. Samagara

94. Samban

95. Sapari

96. Sillekhyathas

97. Sindhollu, Chindollu

98. Sudugadu Siddha

99. Thoti

100. Tirgar, Tirbanda

101. Valluvan.

1. Subs. by Act 61 of 2002, s. 2 and the First Sch.,

2. Subs. by Act 4 of 2015, s.2. for entry 23

Annexure - IV

The Field Work Photos







CERTIFICATE OF APPRECIATION

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conferences
the last individual of a species

Certified for Mr/Ms.

Presented a Paper Titled

Manu H. S.
"Higher Education in the Contemporary Rural
India: Issues and Policy Concerns"

In 2nd International Conference on Rural Development, Social Dynamics and Women's Welfare
March 04 - 05, 2020, University of Hyderabad, India

Organized by

Centre for the Study of Social Exclusion and Inclusive Policy (CSSEIP), Centre for Women's Studies (CWS) and
Dean, Students' Welfare (DSW), University of Hyderabad, India

viand

Prof. Devi Prasad Juvvadi
Conference Chairman
ICRDS 2020

Dr. J. Ratna Prabha

Dr. J. Ratna Prabha
Conference Convenor
University of Hyderabad

Rekha Pande

Prof. Rekha Pande
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University of Hyderabad

Dr. Padmaja Gadiraju

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Role of Higher Education in Transforming Indian Economy: A Critical Study on Goals of FICCI's Vision 2030 for Higher Education in India

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Abstract : Education plays a key role in transforming a society into a knowledge society. The role of higher education is even more critical as it directly contributes to the progress and sustenance of a knowledge society. Despite serious handicaps of means and resources, during the last sixty years, a very large system of education has created a vast body of men and women equipped with a high order of scientific and technological capabilities, robust humanist and philosophical thought and creativity. The Indian constitution resolves to provide quality education to all and in an effort to fulfil the educational needs of the country specifically for the diverse societies and cultures of the country. Higher education provides people with an opportunity to reflect on the critical, social, economic, cultural, moral and spiritual issues facing humanity. It contributes to national development through dissemination of specialized knowledge and skills. The National Policy on Education-1986, revised in 1992 (NPE) states that - Higher Education in general and Technical Education in particular, steps will be taken to facilitate inter-regional mobility by providing equal access to every Indian of requisite merit regardless of one's origins.

During the last decade, education was given a more important status by the state as well as private players. There was an increased participation of private sector in the field of higher education. Though India is the largest provider of global talent, a source for aspiring learners and also a role model for high-quality affordable education system it remains as a developing country from many years. On the contrary, it is evident that neighboring countries like China Japan, Korea, and Singapore, have transformed from developing to the advanced economies in a short span of time owing to a larger vision that correlated development to reforms in education generally and higher education in particular. However, by 2030, India is expected to be the fastest growing economy by reaching the ten trillion USD.

The major focus of the paper is to demonstrate the growth and development of higher education during reform periods and also demonstrate the current status of higher education by critically examining the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry (FICCI's) vision 2030 for higher education in India. It attempts to understand various problems associated with access, participation, and the inclusion of the marginalized sections of Indian society.

Keywords: Higher Education, Indian Economy, Vision 2030, Marginalized Section

1. INTRODUCTION

Education is the major phase of every human's life, it makes a person well civilized and it makes a person knowledgeable, cultured and skilful. It is the enduring learning and training process developing transferable skills and knowledge. India has a colossal portion of working population, and all the way through the history, the education system of India has been attracted the worldwide attention through the times. Since ancient period The education system India has been divided into various typology as a Vedic system of education, post- Vedic, Buddhist system of education, the Islamic system of education later it also had the colonial system of English education. After the independence, the country has adopted an English education system with local needs.

The present education system is following the model of ten years formal schooling and two years of intermediate schooling Education, the studies after this have been considered as higher education and advanced

THE PRIVATISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND THE MARGINALISED CLASSES IN INDIA: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

Maruthi. O¹

Dr. J. Rani RatnaPrabha²

Abstract

Education is the only key which plays a crucial role in transforming a society into a knowledge society. The role of higher education is even more essential as it directly contributes to the growth and sustenance of a knowledge society. Despite serious handicaps of means and resources, during the last sixty years, a very large system of education has created a vast body of men and women equipped with a high order of scientific and technological capabilities, robust humanist and philosophical thought and creativity. During the last decade, education was given a more important status by the state as well as private players. There was an increased participation of the private sector in the field of higher education. Though India is the largest provider of global talent, a source for aspiring learners and also a role model for the high-quality affordable education system, it remains as a developing country for many years. On the other side, Indian society is highly stratified on the basis of caste, class, gender, and race. The marginalised sections like Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes are deprived of education and its amenities for decades, though there was a slight difference in the educational status of these group currently, these marginalised groups are being expelled from enjoying the fruit of positive impact and also bear the disproportionate burden of adverse effect of Privatisation of education in general and higher education in particular. In this regard, this paper

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The Commercialisation of Higher Education: A Paradigm Shift from Educating All to the Facilitating Few

**Maruthi. O,
Dr. J. Rani Ratna Prabha**

Abstract

Education in any form plays a vital role in human development and it helps in transforming society into a knowledge society. The role of higher education is even more essential as it directly contributes to the growth and sustenance of a knowledge society and internationally it is regarded as 'Tertiary Education'. The Indian education system in its present structure (English Education System) is the result of various reforms during the colonial period especially after the Charter Act (1813) for educational development in India. During the time of Independence, there were about 20 universities and 500 affiliated colleges. It was almost like Starting from Scratch and there were many other challenges in the newly independent country to establish stable and sustainable economic development. Despite serious handicaps of resources both in terms of human and capital, during the last seven decades a remarkable change has been taken place. The large body of the education system has created a gigantic change in the utilisation of human resources and equipped them with a high order of scientific and technological capabilities, robust humanist and philosophical thought and creativity. Then after the higher education system started its move with remarkable changes.

The major outstanding achievements in the fields of education and employment were recorded only through public funding in the pre-globalisation period. But the Post- globalisation period experienced the laxity in support of public higher education and the decrease of public funding to meet the global challenges of education and employment. In a flipside, Private higher education sector has emerged and occupied the major portion of the education system. Though the evolution of the privatisation is a recent phenomenon, the private players have rapidly hegemonised their participation in the field of higher education. Within a decade period, they have occupied

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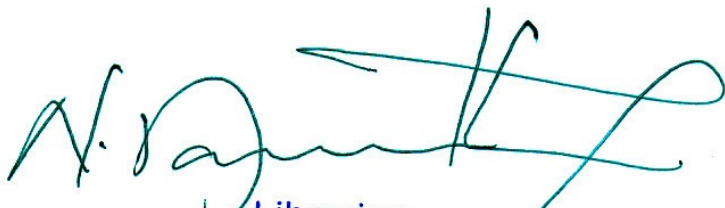
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