Deusto
Universidad de Deusto
University of Deusto

Doctoral Thesis

Program: Educational Innovation and Lifelong Learning

Renewing Dimensions of Lifelong Learning in India
and its Consequences on the
Contemporary National Higher Education Policies
- a socio economic analysis in the age of globalization

Researcher
Sayantan Mandal

Supervisor
Josu Solabarrieta

Faculty of Psychology and Education
University of Deusto

July 2013

Deusto
Universidad de Deusto
University of Deusto

Renewing Dimensions of Lifelong Learning in India and its Consequences on the Contemporary National Higher Education Policies: a socio economic analysis in the age of globalization

A thesis submitted to the faculty of Psychology and Education
of the University of Deusto in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of Doctorate of Philosophy

Researcher
Sayantan Mandal

Supervisor
Josu Solabarrieta

Doctoral Thesis

Program: Educational Innovation and Lifelong Learning
Faculty of Psychology and Education
University of Deusto

© Sayantan Mandal
cover design – Sayantan Mandal

to my parents..

University of Deusto
Faculty of Psychology and Education
Doctoral Program in Educational Innovation and Lifelong Learning

ABSTRACT

Renewing Dimensions of Lifelong Learning in India and its Consequences on the Contemporary National Higher Education Policies : a socio economic analysis in the age of globalization

By Sayantan Mandal

There has been a sea change in the perception of Lifelong Learning (LLL), both globally and in India in recent times. Presently, LLL is often being related with socio-economic and educational development of a society in the age of globalization and help promoting the idea of knowledge society and economy. This view of LLL is different from the traditional Indian understanding of LLL, which harnessed the philosophy of 'learn as long as you live' to find the ultimate wisdom. Hence, there seems to be a distinct difference between the traditional Indian dimension of LLL and the new dimension of LLL: perhaps resulting in a new kind of LLL in India where the renewing dimension(s) are still not well defined. The increased importance of higher education in the discourse of LLL seems also a part of this changing dimension, which is present globally and is unique for India. Hence, it demands detailed analysis. Therefore, this research answers the questions, how are the dimensions of lifelong learning changing in the Indian education policies in recent years and how is it influencing the recent higher education policies.

The research approach was theoretical and it analyzed recent national level policies related to LLL and higher education to find the answer in a focused way. The research strategy divided the thesis into two major section, of which one addressed how the dimensions of LLL change in the national policy domain and the other analyzed how it is influencing the changes in the higher education policies in recent years. The analysis of the relevant socio-economic factors are analyzed with the selected theories of Jarvis (2007, 2008). Together, they test the argument and answer the questions critically. Along with the scholarly works and available secondary data sources, interviews with policy analysts, academics and educationists helped validating some ideas and providing deeper insights.

It is found that globalization is playing an overwhelming role and along with the inclusion of other related factors such as the growth of tertiary economy, improved ICT, demographic dividend and dominance of English as a lingua franca, influencing both the dimensions of LLL and higher education in India in a complex way. The power structure is playing a crucial role, and combined with the speed of market economy, it significantly influences the national level policies to reform. However, the presence of a poor socio-economic-educational scenario of India resist the policies to embrace a neo-liberal paradigm of LLL and the policies rather try to balance the situation constantly while opting for faster development.

The research concludes that the perception of LLL is in transition and changing significantly in India in recent years. Presently it is a multidimensional paradigm influencing the overall educational and specifically higher education reforms. However, all the changes in the higher education domain are perhaps not the sole consequences of the renewing dimensions of LLL. The factors at various levels are also independently influencing LLL and higher education in India. LLL, as an overarching framework channelizes and processes those factors to help guiding the education policies (including higher education policies) in certain directions through a complex interaction of global, national, regional and local situations, pressures and demands, in an intricate manner.

Acknowledgement

First and foremost, I want to thank my supervisor Dr. Josu Solabarrieta. It has been an honor to work under his guidance. I appreciate his friendly way of advising, which helped me becoming a confident researcher. I truly believe that without his constant support, valuable advices and encouragements, the project could not have been completed swiftly in time. Here, I would also like to express my heartiest thanks to Julia González, who helped me to realize the potential of the research topic and guided me with her vast experience, whenever I needed. Together, their guidance helped me to realize my efficacy and find the path along my dissertation journey.

In this journey, the person, who has inspired me throughout, is my father. His knowledge, depth in the concern and understanding has given me the vital support and confidence. However, more than anything, his devotion to the development of education and people have always motivated me the most and encouraged me to undertake the research. In this regard, I must mention my mother too, who, with her love, supported me during the long journey of research, far away from home. Thus, I dedicate this thesis to both of them, as a little drip of tribute to their ocean of love, care and support.

I would also like to thank my sister, my friends in India, who have always been supported me in all the quests until. I specially thank Anirban, Shantanu and Rumki. This long journey would have been difficult without your cordial encouragements. Here, a special thank also goes to my college friend Tony. Similarly, I must acknowledge the many amazing moments I spend with Janvi and my flat mate Ramesh in Bilbao. Their laughter, jokes and positive outlook towards life have helped me to overcome many hurdles during these past few years. I wish you all the very best in life. I am equally thankful to Zvjezdana, and all my Spanish friends in Pais Vasco, who have helped me to feel home, away from home. Muchos abrazos para todos.

I convey my sincere thanks to Dr. Mohankumar, Kalpana Kaushik (IAEA) and Bala Chandrasekaran (MHRD) for helping me to conduct the interviews in India. Here, I would specially mention about Dr. S.Y.Shah and Dr. Søren Ehlers for their continuous and positive support related to many academic and non-academic issues.

I would also like to thank the coordinators of the program, the European Commission and DEIKER for assisting me financially to undertake and continue the project uninterruptedly.

Finally, I would like to thank my *bestest friend* Sanchari, for being with me, always. She is my assurance that there is a beautiful life waiting for us, together.

-Sayantan Mandal
Bilbao, 2013

Contents

Chapter 1 : Introduction and Objectives....1

Sate of the art (gap in knowledge)- 5

Main argument and Research Questions -....7

Research Objectives....8

Delimitations and Scopes....9

Design of the Study [Thesis and chapter structure]....12

Organization of Chapters....12

Significance....20

Chapter 2: Methodology....21

Research methods and design appropriateness....23

Policy Analysis methods- Rationale, Method, Justification....25

The Triple Perspective or the 3P model (Bhola, 2003)-....29

Policy Text Analysis....31

Main theoretical model for analysis –....33

Theory of Globalization: Jarvis 2007-....36

General model of social pressures to produce lifelong learning policies (Jarvis 2008)....42

Methodology for Interview....44

Objectives of Interviews....45

Data gathering [interview types]....45

Data analysis [Interviews]....47

Interview Processes - Sample....49

Sample Size and representativeness –....50

Interviewing process:....51

Organizing interviews, gathering data and Storing....53

Summary....54

Chapter 3: Lifelong Learning and Allied Concepts....57

Introduction....58

From Adult and Continuing Education to LLL....58

Introduction of the term – LLL....60

Definitions and ideas of LLL 60
Importance of LLL 63
Life Long and Life-Wide Dimensions of LLL 65
Key Concepts Related to the Present Discourse of LLL 67
Knowledge Economy, Knowledge Society and Learning Society 67
Globalization 70
Conclusion 75
Chapter 4: History and Development of Lifelong Learning in India 77
Introduction 79
Part I- LLL in Ancient India 79
LLL in Pre Vedic Period (2500 B.C – 2000 B.C) 80
LLL in the Vedic Period (2000 B.C – 200 B.C) 80
LLL in the Post-Vedic Period (200 B.C- 1200 A.D) 81
Part – II – LLL in India in the Medieval Period up to British colonized India (1200 A.D – 1757 A.D) 83
Part – III – LLL in the Pre-Independence period (1757 A.D – 1947 A.D) 84
Reformist movement, nationalist movement and mass-education for adults 85
Part – IV- LLL in the Post-Independence Period (post 1947 A.D) 90
Major programs of LLL initiated by the government after 1947 90
National Five Year Plans- 97
Conclusion 98
Chapter 5: Elements of Lifelong Learning in Major Transnational Organizations 101
Introduction 102
UNESCO on LLL: 103
The European Union on LLL: 107
Pre 1992: LLL and the EU 107
1992 and Beyond: LLL and the European Union 108
OECD on LLL 111
World Bank on LLL 114
Viewing together – Transnational organizations on LLL 119
Chapter 6: Elements of LLL in Major Indian Policy Making Bodies 123
Introduction 124
National Knowledge Commission on LLL 125
XI Planning Commission on LLL 127

University Grants Commission on LLL: 130
Summary: UGC Guideline on LLL and Extension 131
XIIth Five-Year Plan on LLL - 134
Key focus areas: discussion of policies related to LLL, in the Indian context 136
A deeper look: core changes in the Indian dimensions of LLL 136
Conclusion 142
Chapter 7: Factors Influencing the Renewing Dimensions of LLL in India 145
Introduction 146
Background 147
Economy influencing the Indian dimensions of LLL 148
Economy as a supporting factor to the global perspective of LLL (in India) 148
Economy as a supporting factor to the Traditional Indian perspective of LLL: 152
ICT influencing the Indian dimensions of LLL 155
ICT as a supporting factor to the global dimension of LLL in India: 156
ICT as a supporting factor to the traditional Indian perspective of LLL 162
Demography influencing the Indian dimensions of LLL 167
Demography as a supporting factor to the global perspective of LLL 168
Demography as a supporting factor to the traditional Indian perspective of LLL 173
Language, influencing the Indian dimensions of LLL 175
Language as a supporting factor to the global perspective of LLL in India: 175
Language as a supporting factor to the traditional Indian perspective of LLL: 178
Conclusion 181
Chapter 8: Transition Phase - A Complex Dynamics of LLL in India 183
Introduction 184
Background 184
Setting the Scene: globalization and LLL in India 186
Human as Resource and Human as Consumers 188
Further Analysis – major trends/ patterns of LLL in contemporary India 192
Looking Back, Looking ahead – An analysis of the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors and learning opportunities 193
Analysis using Jarvis's theoretical framework- 195
The Welfare perspective of LLL and globalization 197
The neo-liberal perspective of LLL and globalization 199
The Integrative / fragmented perspective of LLL Globalization in the Indian context 201

Conclusion 203
Chapter 9: Consequences of the Changing Dimensions of LLL on Indian Higher Education Policies – A Prelude to the Next Section of study 207
Background 208
Organization of the following chapters 210
Lifelong Learning in India- Key Findings 210
Features of the neo-liberal perspective of LLL in India 211
Features of the Welfare perspective of LLL in India - 211
Conceptual Clarifications 212
Epilogue 213
Chapter 10: A Discussion on the Structure, Development and Policies of Indian Higher Education 215
Introduction 216
Section I 216
Indian Formal Higher Education System – Structure 216
Expansion of Higher Education in India 218
Growth of Private institutes 219
Issues Related to Expansion 219
Section II 221
Development of Higher Education in India 221
Pre Independence Period (pre- 1947) 221
Post independence to 1980 222
1980 and Beyond 222
Section III 223
Major Policies in Indian Higher Education- 223
Radhakrishnan Commission (1948-49) 224
Kothari Commission (1964-66) 225
National Policy on Education (1968) 226
National Policy on Education (NPE 1986) Modified in 1992 227
Post NPE, 1992 229
Ninth Five Year Plan (1997- 2002) 231
Recent Development: post 2000 period- 232
Tenth Five Year Plan (2002 – 2007) 232
Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007 – 2012)- 233

Yashpal Committee on Renovation and Rejuvenation of Higher Education (2009) – 234
Twelfth Five Year Plan, (2012-2017) [draft]- 237
Conclusion 238
Chapter 11: Factors Influencing the Renewing Dimension of LLL on the Recent Higher Education in India 241
Introduction 242
Recap 244
Economy as a changing agent of the recent higher education policy in India- 245
Economy as a supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education in India 245
Economy as a less-supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education- 251
ICT as a changing agent of the recent higher education policy in India- 256
ICT as a supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education in India- 257
ICT as a less-supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education- 262
Demography as a changing agent of the recent higher education policy in India 267
Demography as a supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education in India 267
Demography as a less- supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education in India 271
Language as a changing agent of the recent higher education policy in India.....276
Language as a supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education in India 277
Language as a less supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education in India 280
Other Critical factors 282
Academic Culture 282
Ranking, Research and Resources.....284
Some other critical factors.....285
Wrap up for the next section.....286
Chapter 12: Consequences of the Changing Dimensions of LLL on Recent National Higher Education Policies of India..... 287
Introduction.....288
Background.....288
Setting the Scene 291
Analysis.....295
International influences on higher education policies.....295
UNESCO 295

EU 297
OECD 298
WB 299
Viewing Together: Global, International and National Influence and their Consequences on the Recent Higher Education Policies- 302
Need for Change 303
Direction of Change 304
Priorities 307
Reforms- 311
LLL in Higher Education Policies 316
Conclusion 318
Chapter 13: Conclusion 321
Research Findings 324
Research Findings Related to LLL in India 324
Research Findings Related to the Consequences of LLL in Higher Education Policies in India 329
A Critique and Suggestions for Future Research 333
The Concluding Note 335
Appendices 337
References 345

List of Figures

Figure 1: General conceptual map of the study 5
Figure 2: Detailed Conceptual Map of the Study.....18
Figure 3: Organization of chapters based on the conceptual map.(see Figure 2).....19
Figure 4: Policy analysis and related methodology 25
Figure 5: Policy analysis methods - detailed 27
Figure 6: Approach for selecting the theories (by Jarvis) for policy analysis 36
Figure 7: A global Model of Societies (after Jarvis, 2007) 38
Figure 8: Multilayered model of society (after Jarvis, 2007).....39
Figure 9: National institutions in the social context in a globalising world (after Jarvis, 2008) 43
Figure 10: a conceptual framework for LLL. Source- National Agency of Education, Sweden (2000:19) 66
Figure 11 : Enrolment in Education 2001-02 (Total and women participation) in Primary, Middle, High/Higher Secondary and Higher Education Levels. Source- Ministry of Statistics and Program Implementation; Govt. of India 138
Figure 12: Enrolment in Education 2007-08 (Total and women participation) in Primary, Middle, High/Higher Secondary and Higher Education Levels. Source- Ministry of Statistics and Program Implementation; Govt. of India 139
Figure 13: Projected Population Pyramid - India 2001 168
Figure 14: Projected Population Pyramid- India- 2026 [Source: Govt. of India, 2006].....169
Figure 15: Percentage of Population by Broad Age Groups. India 2001-2026[Source: Govt. of India. 2006].....169
Figure 16: Educational Structure in India. Source - UGC 2012 217
Figure 17: Growth of Higher Education Institute in India since 1950. Source- Ministry of Human Resource Development, India in UGC 2012. 218
Figure 18:Growth of State-wise Number of Universities/ University Level Institutions in India (2011). Source - MHRD/UGC (in UGC 2012) * Provisional: 220
Figure 19: State wise Number of Colleges in India. Source- MHRD, UGC (in UGC 2012) * Provisional 221
Figure 20: Country-wise GER and GDP per capita comparison 272
Figure 21: State wise GER in higher education in India 273
Figure 22: Vicious circle of underperforming traditional universities in India [theoretical map-based on the discussion] 285
Figure 23: Conceptual graphical representation of the LLL influencing higher education and education policies 333

List of Tables

Table 1 - Progress of illiteracy in India (1932-41) (The figures are in thousands) 88
Table 2: Literacy rate in India (1901-1941) and male-female gap in literacy (%).....89
Table 3- Literacy rate in India (1951-2001) and male-female gap in literacy (%).....94
Table 4- Literacy rate and decadal growth of literacy in India - state wise 94
Table 5: Public Higher Education Institutions and Student Enrolled There - in India (Source - Based on Selected Educational Statistics, Various Source, in Rani, G 2003).....232

List of Appendices

Appendix 1: Questionnaire - LLL.....337
Appendix 2: Questionnaire –Higher Education.....339
Appendix 3 : Invitation letter.....341
Appendix 4 : Letter of agreement 342
Appendix 5: brief 343

Abbreviations

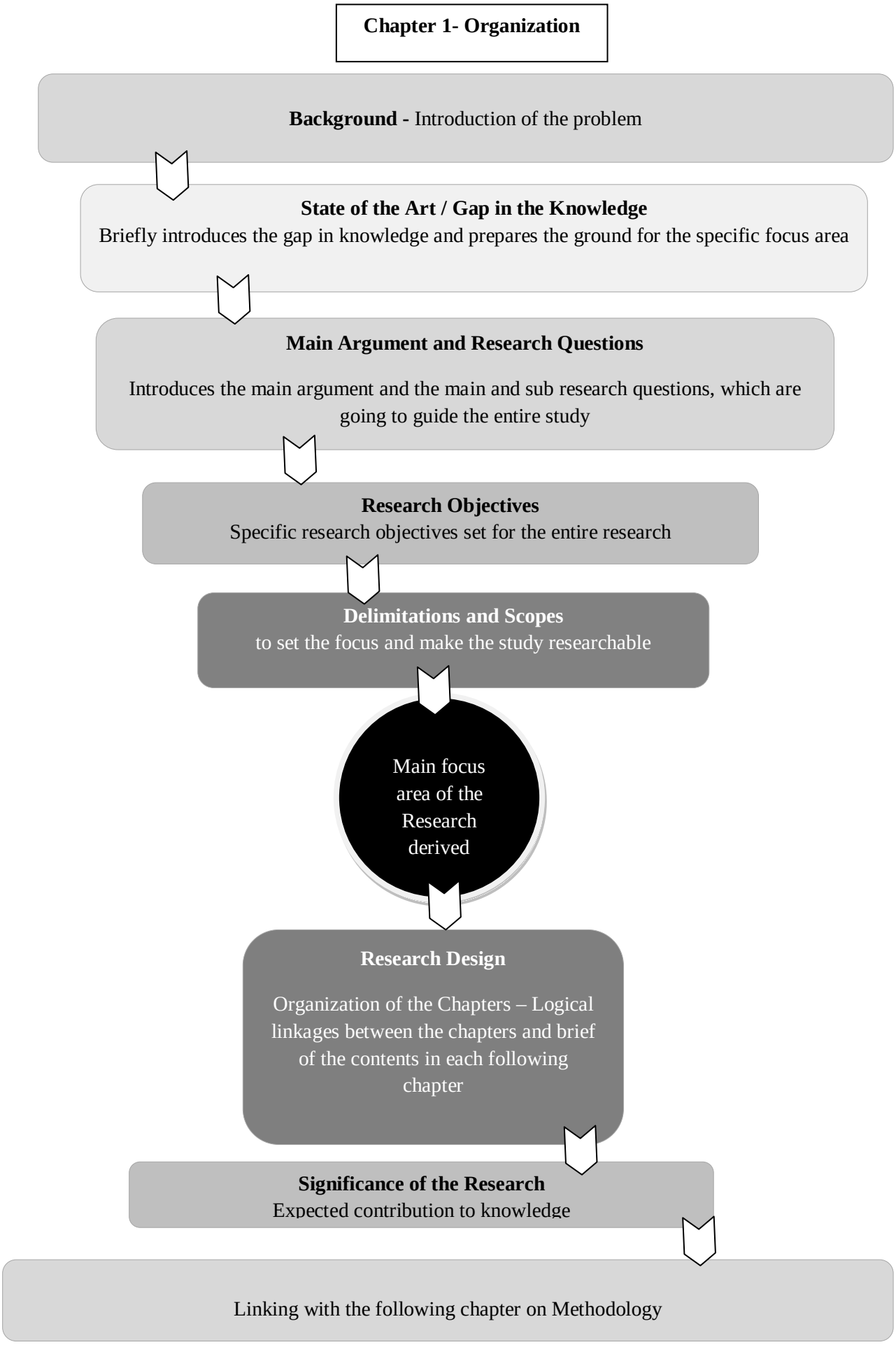
AEC	-	Adult Education Centers
AIMA	-	All India Management Association
BFI	-	Bridge to the Future Initiative
CABE	-	Central Advisory Board of Education
CBFL	-	Computer Based Learning Program
CEC	-	Continuing Education Centers
CEP	-	Continuing Education Program
CII	-	Confederations of Indian Industries
COL	-	Commonwealth of Learning
DACEE	-	Department of Adult and Continuing Education and Extension
DAE	-	Directorate of Adult Education
DFID	-	Department of International Development
DLL	-	Department of Lifelong Learning
EC	-	European Commission
EFA	-	Education For All
ERT	-	European Round Table
ESPRIT	-	European Strategic Program on Research in Information Technology
EU	-	European Union
FDI	-	Foreign Direct Investment
FFLP	-	Farmers' Functional Literacy Program
FLAW	-	Functional Literacy for Adult Women
GER	-	Gross Enrolment Ratio
IAEA	-	Indian Adult Education Association
ICDS	-	Integrated Child Development Scheme
ICT	-	Information Communication Technology
IIT	-	Indian Institute of Technologies
IMF	-	International Monetary Fund
INC	-	Indian National Congress
IT	-	Information Technology
KEI	-	Knowledge Economy Index
LAEP	-	Lifelong Education and Awareness Program
LLL	-	Lifelong Learning
MDG	-	Millennium Development Goals
MFLP	-	Mass Program for Functional Literacy
MHRD	-	Ministry of Human Resource and Development
MLC	-	Mass Literacy Campaign
NAEP	-	National Adult Education Program
NASSCOM	-	National Association of Software and Service Companies
NFE	-	Non Formal Education
NKC	-	National Knowledge Commission
NLM	-	National Literacy Mission
NPE	-	National Policy of Education
NSDC	-	National Skill Development Corporation
NSDCB	-	National Skill Development Coordination Board
NSSO	-	National Sample Survey Organization
OBC	-	Other Backward Classes
OECD	-	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PCI	-	Planning Commission of India

PE	-	Population Education
PEC	-	Population Education Club
PEO	-	Program Evaluating Organization
PLP	-	Post Literacy Program
PPP	-	Public Private Partnership
RFLP	-	Rural Functional Literacy Program
SAP	-	Structural Adjustment Policies
SC	-	Scheduled Castes
SED	-	State Education Department
SLMA	-	State Literacy Mission Authority
SSA	-	Sarva Siksha Abhiyan
ST	-	Scheduled Tribes
TINA	-	There Is No Alternative
TLC	-	Total Literacy Campaign
UEE	-	Universal Elementary Education
UGC	-	University Grants Commission
UIL	-	UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning
UNDP	-	United Nations Development Program
UNESCO	-	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organizations
UNICEF	-	United Nations Children's Fund
UNSTATS	-	United Nations Statistical Division
USA	-	United States of America
VET	-	Vocational Educational and Training
WB	-	World Bank
WEF	-	World Education Forum

chapter

1

Introduction and Objectives


Chapter 1- Organization
Background - Introduction of the problem
State of the Art / Gap in the Knowledge
Briefly introduces the gap in knowledge and prepares the ground for the specific focus area
Main Argument and Research Questions
Introduces the main argument and the main and sub research questions, which are going to guide the entire study
Research Objectives
Specific research objectives set for the entire research
Delimitations and Scopes
to set the focus and make the study researchable
Main focus area of the Research derived
Research Design
Organization of the Chapters – Logical linkages between the chapters and brief of the contents in each following chapter
Significance of the Research
Expected contribution to knowledge
Linking with the following chapter on Methodology

Chapter 1

Introduction and Objectives

Lifelong learning (LLL) is a much-used term today in a wide variety of contexts ranging from education to economic to social once (Field, 2006; Shah, 2009; Bhatia, 2009). LLL is also a highly used term in international policy world. It is often been related with globalization, democracy, socio-economic development and recently, as a tool for promoting 'knowledge society', knowledge economy, learning society etc.[1]. LLL also carries different sets of values[2]. It manifests differently weighted terms like 'human capital/ resource development', 'wisdom' 'freedom' etcetera implicitly or explicitly. One of the reasons could be because LLL is an idea that is interpreted and modified differently by different bodies and entities (Field, 2006; Aspin et. al., 2001, Jarvis, 2007; Rizvi and Lingard, 2010; Field and Leicester, 2000 among others.). Some define it as a beautiful and simple idea, where people learn throughout their lives (Field 2006:1). Some others define it as a means of getting the economic benefit in present era. To Parson (1990) LLL is fabricated as an industrial goal for education, whereas Wain (1991) thinks it is a moral duty, or an empirical reality to reconstruct, as perceived by Belanger (1995). As a result, there are presently several definitions and explanations of LLL, and each one seems appropriate in its own environment (Longworth and Davis 1996:21). Edwards (2000: 4) analyzes that the upsurge of LLL as a key for economic and educational development has emerged recently (Edwards, 2000; Field, 2006). However, Jarvis (1988, 2007) thinks that it has a long history ranging back to Plato. Nevertheless, these various forms of LLL from various times incorporate all forms of learning; namely formal, non-formal and informal. Therefore, the span, definition and the inner meaning of LLL is perhaps much wider than just 'learning throughout life' or 'life-long learning'. It is thus, appears as a highly dynamic term and with different dimensions of meanings, understandings, explanations and implications changing with time.

Considering these overall differences and understandings associated with the term LLL, it is however, still seems possible to identify the present dominant global discourse of LLL. It can be seen that, not only in developed countries, but also in many developing countries (Jarvis, 2008) the contemporary LLL is mostly perceived

[1] See background chapter for more discussion on 'knowledge society'.
[2] See Smith, J and Spurling, A(1999) Lifelong Learning: riding the tiger, for values in lifelong learning.

as a learning mechanism, which allows individuals to learn throughout their lives and upgrade their skills and competences continually in order to be dynamic and competitive in the global knowledge economy. This notion is supported by the neo-liberal ideologies of open competition and market mechanism (Field, 2006; Jarvis 2007, Bhola 2003; Dixit, 2009 among others). This can initially be termed as the 'global perspective of LLL'.

India, has a long and rich tradition of LLL (Shah 2009:16) and for centuries, the philosophy of 'learn as long as you live' to find the ultimate wisdom has been harnessed in India. This perspective of LLL have "accorded prime importance to acquisitions of knowledge and upheld the virtues of learning and observes that transmission of learning gratis is one of the greatest virtues worth practicing'' (Shah 2009:18) and its traces can be found in the ancient Indian texts. However, it can also be seen from Shah (1999) and Bhola's (2003) study that the priorities of LLL have also changed significantly over time in India. Since independence until recently, the prime perception of LLL largely narrowed down to imparting literacy, adult and continuing education, social education etc., where LLL mostly considered as a voluntary initiative with a strong welfare approach. It is still often termed synonymous with 'adult education' in common practices in India. Nevertheless, this 'welfare oriented' dimension of LLL can be initially termed as the 'traditional Indian perspective of LLL'.

Comparing initially, there seems a clear difference between the 'global' and the 'traditional Indian' understandings of LLL. Interestingly however, only recently, the perception of LLL seems started to change once again in India. Moreover, it also seems that the perception of LLL in India is leaning towards the 'global understanding of LLL' as several of its features are now present in the Indian education policies, including higher education policies and guidelines. Higher education is becoming an important sector of education, and often comes in the discussion of LLL globally. In India, it is gaining its importance, with its ambition to become a knowledge society, where a highly educated workforce would be essential for the success in this increasingly knowledge driven economy. Hence, initially, there seems an influence of the changing LLL on higher education as apparently; they are opting for a similar goal of building a knowledge society, among others. Figure 1 in the following page, could help explaining the general conceptual map better.

However, to begin the discussion, a few question can be asked, as, when the dimensions of LLL started to change in India? Or what are the major discourses regarding the changing dimensions of LLL? What can we know about the existing literatures about LLL and its influence on higher education, especially in the Indian context? Although some of these questions are discussed in detail, throughout the thesis, and the literature is used throughout the thesis to analyze the issues better; but it seems that, an initial discussion form the exiting literatures could provide important insights to begin the study with. It may also highlight the gap in the research so far, which demands a study in this regard. The next section explores these briefly.

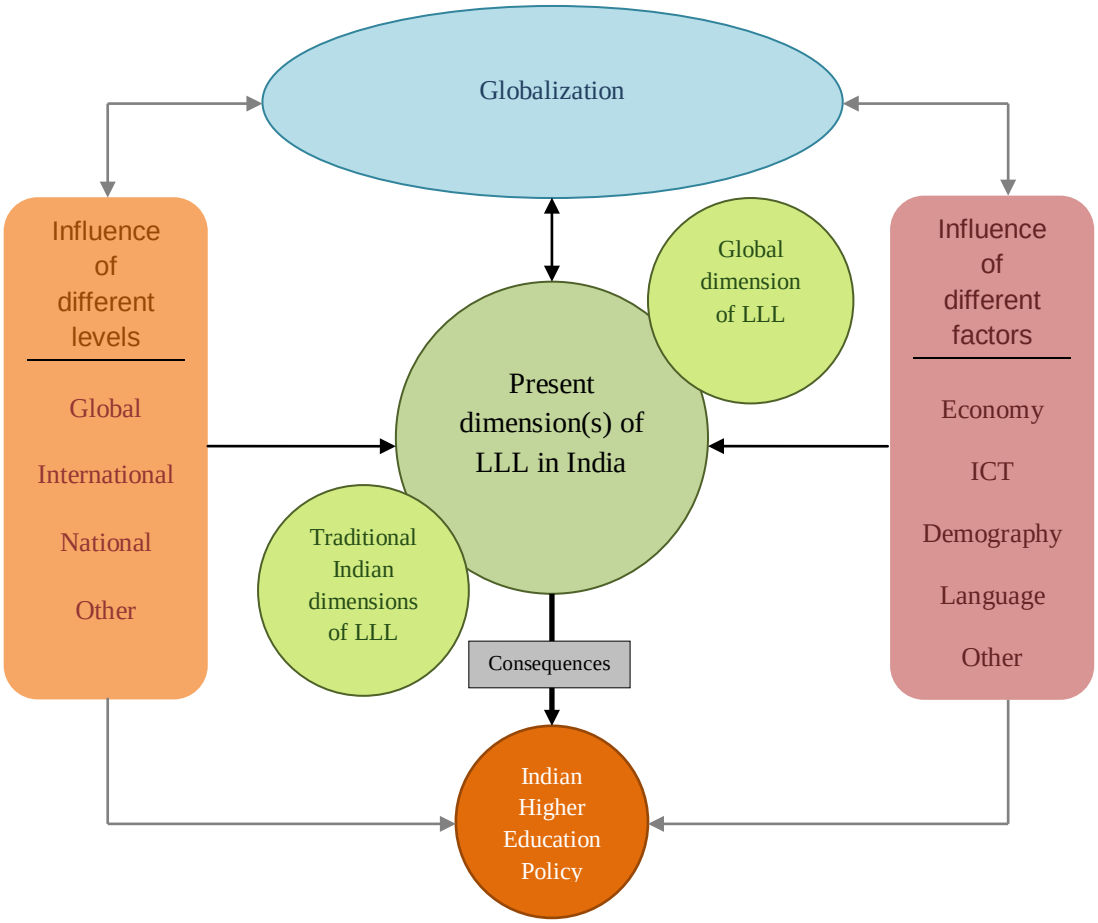


Figure 1: General conceptual map of the study

Investigating the recent changes in the understanding of LLL in India (also highlighted by Shah, 2009; Tilak, 2011; Rajesh, 2009, 2011; Bhola, 2003 among others) it can be found that mainly since 1990s, with the economic restructuring, increased influence of globalization, improvement in Information Communication Technologies (ICT), the Indian education policies started to change significantly. It also seems that this new direction of educational policies is increasingly becoming focused towards an economically oriented one, in the era of globalization. The government now projects learning as a means of making India a 'knowledge based society' and economy (NKC, 2009; Govt. of India, 2007, 2012; Mandal, 2012). LLL is now being increasingly linked with higher education for human resource development to cope with the challenges of economic globalization. The University Grants Commission (UGC)[3] puts increased importance to promote LLL in this aspect. Like that of the global one, this modern conceptualization of LLL is being interlinked with the concepts of knowledge economy, knowledge society and globalization. It speaks more about skills and competencies development, similar to that of the policies of the comparatively developed West.

Investigating the literature to find the possible explanations and reasons for such changes- it could be found that, there is plethora of discussions about the changing

[3] UGC- the apex body of higher education in India.

dimensions of LLL globally (Bagnall, 1990; Castells, 1996, 2000, 2002; Rubenson 2004, 2006; Field et. al. 2000; Field, 2006, Aspin, 2007; Jarvis et. al., 2003; Ehlers, 2006; Jarvis, 2007, 2008, among many). However, there are very few rigorous studies on the Indian perspectives of the same, especially in recent times. Moreover, it is perhaps important to note that there are different terms used in relation to LLL; like 'adult education', 'continuing education', and 'lifelong education' etc., both internationally and nationally and the use of LLL as a term in policy texts (and in general texts) are fairly new in India. Hence, there seems possibly a lack of proper and up-to date researches, specifically on LLL in India as, in spite of being an old concept, the changing understanding seems not well researched in the present Indian context.

Nevertheless, several scholarly works are worth mentioning, which provide better understanding of the situation largely related to the topic of this research. However, the literature available in India is mostly a description of the changing understanding of LLL (e.g. Borodia, 1973; Bareth, 1984; Dutta, 1973, 1996; Farooq, 1991; Naik, 1997; Biswas, 2006, Singh, 2007; among others); patterns of programs related to adult education, the associated development etc. These are useful to investigate the gradual development of the concept of LLL in India but perhaps not so effective in analyzing the present changing understanding of LLL, its various dimensions, complexities etc. Only a few writers have investigated this matter so far (e.g. Chauhan, 1990; Bhola, 1998, 2003, 2008 etc.; Shah, 2008, 2009, 2010, Rajesh 2009, 2011 etc.; Mathew, 2007) and their works provide significant analytical insights. Together, their works help to understand that the perception of LLL is changing and identifying some of the possible factors behind it. However, the analysis of the present Indian dimension of LLL through different socio-economic factors and factors from different levels (e.g. global, international and national) still seems demanding a state of the art analysis to know its present dimensions and complex consequences on the national higher education policies.

In addition, looking at the Indian literature, there are very few scholarly works available, which directly links the issue of LLL with higher education. The works of Narrang (1997) or that of the Tilak (2004, 2005, 2011, 2012), Jairam (2006) contribute indirectly, through their discussion of changing nature of higher education in India. However, the most important are perhaps the works of Altbach (2002, 2006, 2008 etc.) and Agarwal (2006, 2011), where they mention about the influence of globalization, internationalization, commercialization and LLL on higher education in developing countries, including India. These studies, although not directly connected with the consequences of the changing dimensions of LLL on Indian national higher education policies, provide important insights and some necessary analytical base for the study.

Overall, there seems a scope of further research on this changing concept of LLL in India and its consequences on the national higher education policies in recent years. This claim could perhaps be strengthened further, considering the fact that; so far, there is no substantial research work focused to investigate the reasons, processes and consequences of the changing dimensions of LLL in contemporary Indian education policies and its influence on the national higher education policies in

recent years. This, therefore, demands an analysis as LLL, unlike that of the past, is now being linked directly with globalization, knowledge economy, neo-liberalism and so on, including higher education as a part of it. It seems also important since the nature of national level policy formulation has also undergone a sea change in recent times and huge efforts are constantly being made to make them nationally realistic yet globally viable.

Main argument and Research Questions -

This way of relating LLL with the economy (more specifically with knowledge economy) and globalization, mentioned above, is rather new in India; and the renewing dimension seems shifting more towards the present 'global' understanding of LLL. However, the traditional dimension is still present in policies and practices. Looking at the education policies overall, these two dimensions seem distinctly different and somewhat contradictory, especially when one seems based on neoliberal principles and the other on welfare one. Moreover, the recent focus on higher education makes the situation more complex as traditionally, higher education was outside the focal area of LLL. Why are then, these changes taking place and how? Why is there an increased importance on LLL and why is higher education being related with LLL? These questions are perhaps somewhat general; yet seems important in the context of globalizing India with changing educational policies. This research therefore attempts to analyze the changing dimensions of LLL in India and its influence on the recent national higher education policies. To analyze the issue in a focused way, it argues that:

There is a clear tension between the traditional Indian dimension of LLL, which seems based on welfare ideologies and a global dimension of LLL, which seems based on neo-liberal ideologies: perhaps resulting in a new kind of LLL where the renewing dimension(s) are still not well defined. The increased importance of higher education in LLL domain is also a part of this changing dimension, which is unique for India and hence, demands detailed analysis. In fact, this research also argues that the analysis of the influence of the renewing dimension(s) of the lifelong learning in recent Indian higher education is helpful to understand the changing dimension of lifelong learning better. This in turn helps understanding how the changing dimensions of LLL have consequences on the recent higher education (policy).

It is therefore worth finding out the present dimensions of LLL in India and how it influences the recent higher education. It could be however, difficult to find out the present dimension of LLL in India, as a country, as India is geographically large and comprises of immense diversity and regional differentiations. The same logic applies for the issue of the consequences of LLL on higher education as well, where different states could have different understanding of the same and hence, result in different forms of higher educational development. Interestingly, education policies could be effective to find out the changing discourse of LLL and its consequences on higher education as well. For this purpose, the analysis of the central/ national level policies could prove useful, as they make, recommend, and modify policies for the country,

as a whole. Apart from the state policies, these national level policies work as an overarching policy framework, which guides the policies and practices of the other levels. Therefore, this focus towards national level policies also helps to keep the study researchable. Here, it is important to mention that this study recognizes that there are possibly various differences in the understanding of LLL and its consequences on higher education at different levels and those are worth studying to get a deeper insight about the issues. However, this study focuses on the national level only.

In addition, it seems also important to mention that this study does not intent to coin or test a hypothesis. The sole intention is, however, to find out the present dimension(s) of LLL in India and its consequences on the recent national higher educational policies. Hence, instead of a hypothesis, this study approaches with an argument and raises research questions, which are relevant to the issues and focused on the education policy aspect. It tries to find out:

- **How are the dimensions of lifelong learning changing in the Indian education policies in recent years?**
    - Which are the prominent contemporary dimensions of lifelong learning in India?
    - Which are the prominent factors influencing the changing dimension of LLL in India?
    - How are these factors influencing in changing the dimensions of lifelong learning in the education policies of India? (external and internal factors)?

Furthermore, to analyze the influence of the renewing dimensions of LLL on the national higher education policies, it asks:

- **How is the changing dimension of lifelong learning influencing the recent higher education policies?**

    - Which are the visible changes in Indian Higher Education policies in recent years?
    - What are the major consequences of the changing dimensions of LLL on Indian higher education policies?
    - What do they mean for India? Or, in other words, which is the significance of the changing dimensions of lifelong learning on the changing higher education policies (recent) in India?

Research Objectives

Based on the research area, the study selects the following objectives, which are to be fulfilled through the research. There are clearly, two main research objectives. First, to find out the present dimensions of LLL in India by focusing towards the education policies, and second, to investigate the consequences of the renewing dimensions of LLL on the recent national level higher education policies. However, several

additional factors are related with these issues. Jarvis (2007, 2008), Altbach (2002, 2008), Jairam (2007), Shah (2009, 2012), Rizvi and Lingard (2010) (among many) have pointed out that, LLL is itself is influenced from different levels, namely- global, international, regional, local, individual; from different entities; like international organizations, multinational corporations, national and regional governments, NGOs and from different factors; such as, economy, development of modern ICT tools and so on. Therefore, the LLL is a not a neutral concept (Jarvis, 2008) and for this particular research, it seems important to explore how LLL is being influenced by different factors and entities of different levels, before going to investigate about the second part, i.e. how LLL is influencing higher education policies in India. Since the main aim of this research is to analyze the issue on a national level, it focuses on the national scale and sets the specific objectives of the study, which are mentioned below. These are:

- To analyze how LLL is being perceived and how it is changing its understanding and hence dimensions in the present socio-economic condition in India, mainly in its national level policy domains.

- To study the influences of the global, international (external) and other (internal/national/ major regional) factors in changing the dimensions of LLL on national level education policies of India.

- To find out the direction and magnitude of the renewing dimension of LLL on influencing Indian HE policy reform in recent years by analyzing the process of the influence of the renewing dimension(s) of LLL on the recent national level higher education policies in India.

It is the hope that these objectives and the research questions could be able to help understanding the situation systematically and in a focused way. However, there are several specific things to consider for conducting the research while keeping the focus intact. These are discussed in the following section.

Delimitations and Scopes

Overall, the research considers India in a general overall context, which, at a glance, could seem very large to execute the research properly in a focused manner for a single research project or in the absence of a large team. This study recognizes this too and therefore, wants to delimit its scopes so that it is possible to study, discuss and analyze properly without losing focus or track. This section thus explains the scopes and delimitations of this research starting by explaining different segments of the title of the thesis.

The title, as it can be understood, has two major parts. One is the *renewing dimensions of LLL in India* and the other is *the consequences of the renewing dimensions on the national higher education policies in recent years*. In addition, there is a sub heading as well- *a socio-economic analysis in the age of globalization.* This sub section of the title

denotes that the analysis in the research is done from a socio-economic point of views using selected socio-economic factors capable of changing the dimensions of LLL and higher education in India. The globalization aspect is added considering the increasingly globalizing societies and nations and with the conceptualization that education policies are very much influenced by the forces of globalization nowadays and virtually no country in the world are immune from these effects, directly or indirectly (Jarvis, 2007, 2008). However, the main context is not to focus on the global issues, rather take references from them and links it analytically it with that of the Indian scenarios. Hence, the following paragraphs continue with the discussion by further explaining the title of the research and dividing it into various parts.

As said earlier, the overall context here is India. However, by saying 'India', it refers the analysis of its national level education related policies. The basic concern is mentioned earlier. It is perhaps very intricate to study India as a whole or as a single geographical unit considering it size and diversities. Hence, although the scope is large, 'policy' area is chosen as the main context, which also delimits the research and helps to focus it on certain things, relevant for this particular study. However, it recognizes that the study in the regional or further micro scales are as important as the national level studies as they could also provide important insights and contribute significantly in the world of knowledge. To understand the policy discourse better, this research however tries to highlight broad regional diversities and identify different components and factors, which are influencing the regional dimensions of LLL and that of the country as well. To maintain the focus throughout the research, the data are used mainly for national level analysis. Due to the theoretical nature of the research, this study confines itself within the interests of national level policies only, and does not consider analyzing any further divisions, which requires ground level data of various kinds.

The previous paragraph shows that the research intends to focus on policies of India. Policies, however, could be of several kinds. As India follows a federal structure, there are national level policies from the center, state level policies from the state administrations and policies of a district or even institution levels (e.g. policies of higher educational institutions). However, by stating 'policy', this research focuses on the central or the national level policies. This is important to keep the focus of the study and not losing track in the middle of very many policies and documents from various levels. The research however recognizes that there are perhaps significant differences in the policies published at different levels. Nevertheless, the central policies play important role in determining the overall trajectories of educational development, set the goals and provide guidelines for reforms and hence could influence other policies that of the states or institutions. There is however, another consideration about policies. It is related to the type of documents. According to the title, some are policies (e.g. National Policy of Education, 1992), plans (e.g. 11th National Five Year Plan), guidelines (e.g. the UGC Guideline for Lifelong Learning and Extension), committees (e.g. Yashpal Committee on Higher Education) and some are commissions (e.g. National Knowledge Commission or NKC of India). However, all of them produce policy recommendations and in spite of the difference in their nomenclatures, they are all important policy documents useful to analyze the changing dimensions of LLL and its influence on the national higher

education policies. Hence, this study considers all of the above types of documents for discussion under the broad term 'policy'. There is more discussion on this issue on the methodology chapter.

Another important context mentioned in the title, is the 'renewing or changing dimension of LLL'. In the initial paragraphs, the changing nature of LLL is briefly highlighted, which is in turn the main drive to re-search in the present situation. Nevertheless, what this research means by 'dimensions'? Dimension literally means 'an aspect or a feature of a situation, problem or thing' (Oxford Dictionary). In this research, it also tries to find different aspects, features of the renewing LLL, and analyzes why and how they are being shaped in certain ways. It considers analyzing different socio-economic factors to explore the dimensions though 'why' and 'how'. It is related to the overall objectives of the study, that the research analyzes the issue form different levels (e.g. international, national) and through analyzing different socio-economic factors (e.g. economy, ICT, demography and language). These factors are selected, based on extensive study of important factors influencing policy discourses in a national setting and by analyzing the Indian socio-economic scenarios in which these factors seem most relevant. The rationale to select these factors is given in the relevant chapters of analysis. However, there are certainly other important factors in this regard. The study mentions some of them depending on the context. However, it largely delimits itself to the discussion of these four selected factors to guide the study in a focused way. These four major factors are also used to analyze the issue in the next section on higher education. It may help the research to lead in a coherent way.

The next section of the title is the '*consequences of the renewing dimensions (of LLL) on the national higher education policies in recent years*'. Here, by mentioning 'consequences' the study considers the influence of the renewing dimensions of LLL on making significant changes in the national higher education policies. Therefore, it does not consider the consequences elsewhere, except in the policy domain. However, to analyze the issue through the socio economic factors and from different standpoints, it considers discussing the effects of the changing policies on the Indian higher education domain.

The rest of the title is perhaps clear in expressing itself, except what the research means by 'recent years'. It can be found that the major changes in the educational policies have started happening after 1990s, along with the economic restructuring in India. However, the significant and noticeable changes in the higher education in relation to the influence of LLL started happening in post 2000 period, which is also confirmed by Shamshu (2012), in a personal interview with the researcher. There is detailed discussion later on and the rationales are provided as well. Hence, this research confines itself in the intensive discussion of the policies of the post 2000 period, both for LLL and for higher education. The study however, discusses the development of previous policies and several of its distinctive features as a part of understanding the change in dimensions. Especially, the study considers analyzing the last two five years plans [11th (2007-2012) and 12th (2012-2017)-National Five Year Plans, Government of India] thoroughly, as one of them (11th) could show the recent changes based on the changing policy discourse and

the latest (12th) could show the vision and direction of the forthcoming changes. This delimitations also help the research to focus properly on a certain timeline, which it considers 'recent' and prevent it from getting lost in the long historical development of Indian education (including higher education), on which, studies already exist.

Considering the vast scopes of the study area, it seems that the above mentioned delimitations might prove helpful to keep the focus and lead the research towards a specific goal, which is to answer the research question analytically while fulfilling the research objectives.

Design of the Study [Thesis and chapter structure]

The main challenge of this thesis is to unfold the dimensions of LLL and its consequences on the changing national higher education policies, systematically. Hence the successful analysis of the second section (higher education) depends largely on the systematic analysis of the first (on LLL). Therefore, the proper organization of the chapters plays a very crucial part for the successful execution of the research objectives.

In general terms, the design of the study is based on the argument and research questions, where it tries to find the answers based on the theories of Jarvis (2007, 2008) with the help of scholarly works, empirical data accompanied by interviews etc., wherever required.

To explain the design further, this section is divided into two subsections. The first one discusses the logic and order in which the chapters are organized. The second one discusses the general structure of a chapter. However, it is important to note that this general structure of a chapter provides a general overview, which may vary among chapters. These two subsections together help following the logical progression of the research and help the reader(s) to understand the organization of the chapters.

Organization of Chapters

The research has thirteen chapters including the introduction and general conclusion chapters. It is done, keeping in mind the two major sections of the research (LLL and higher education). In addition to these two major sections, several other sections are necessary to explore the issue critically. Figure 2 and 3 (at the end of this subsection) may help explaining the logical progress and the organization of the chapters. The first major section is to find the dimension of LLL whereas the second studies the influence of LLL on higher educational policies. For referring purpose, we may call them sections on 'LLL' and 'higher education' instead of using fully elaborated names every time. These two sections however need detailed background study, discussion and analysis. Only then, it would be possible to understand why and how they are being shaped and/or reshaped and are able to influence other educational domains (e.g. higher education).

Hence, the research has two main sections of background study, development oriented discussions and two main analysis sections divided in respective chapters. These two major sections of analysis (on LLL and higher education) are being linked with a chapter called 'consequences of the changing dimensions of lifelong learning on Indian higher education policies - a prelude to the second section' (Chapter 9). There are more discussions on this chapter in later paragraphs. It is to note that this research does not have a chapter dedicated to literature review or state of the art. Rather, the literature is reviewed throughout the thesis to explore the state of the art and are done as per the demands of the chapters and hence, integrated in the entire thesis. The research uses the scholarly works of several authors (Indian and international), throughout the study, and this vast existing knowledge helps the research to become analytical, critical and facilitates to improve the overall quality of the thesis.

As of now, it can already be seen, that in this **'introduction and Objectives' chapter**, the research provides the rationale of the study, introduces the research questions and sets the objectives, provides the framework of the research chapters and highlights the significance of the study followed by a summary, which also leads the research to the next chapter. This chapter sets the introductory notes for the entire research, and help guiding it throughout its journey. The **second chapter is on 'methodologies'.** It discusses the methods, models and theories used in the thesis and the respective logics / arguments for selecting them (methodologies). All the discussion in this chapter is based on the gradual development of concepts over the years. It reviews literature in each subsection to provide the logic for the models/theories selected to analyze the issues. These reviews of literatures are considered as an important part of a thesis that creates the conceptual base for the entire study. It seems important, since how the research represents its arguments and interprets them also depend on how the research engages with literature (Trafford & Leshem, 2008). Therefore, the methodology chapter concentrates on providing sufficient information about the theory/model, methods selected and discusses its relevance in the present study. It relates the conceptual/ theoretical base of the study with the research problem and provides the necessary conceptual framework for the thesis. Overall, this chapter provides the tools for the research, helping to take the study forward to its next level of the discussion of the major concepts related to LLL.

The **'lifelong learning and allied concepts' is the third chapter** and it largely works both as a background study and as a discussion of the definitions and concepts of major terms used in the study. This is an important chapter, because there are controversies related to the term LLL and with some of its allied terms such as 'knowledge economy' 'knowledge society', 'globalization' etc. It seems important to make it clear what this research understands by these terms as they are used frequently in the analysis. This section also links these various concepts with the main concept of LLL, which also helps to explore the notion that these concepts are interlinked and can influence each other. This notion helps this study in the later chapters, especially in the analytical one.

The **fourth chapter shifts its discussion from a general conceptual discussion of LLL and allied concepts to the 'history and development of LLL in India'**. Here, it tries to study the chronological development of the concept of LLL since the ancient period to recent times. This section helps to know how the focus of LLL shifted from a philosophy of educated elites to a mass concept, to an elitist concept again, and later to literacy, adult and continuing education, before finally changing its paradigm again, which is the main area of focus of this study. This historical discussion possibly helps us to know more about Indian education as a whole, as in olden times there were no clear distinctions between formal, non-formal and informal educations. It also helps to know what happened in the pre and post independence periods, which are the milestones for major paradigm shifts in the concept of LLL and so on. An additional aim of this chapter is to add to the discussion of the gap in knowledge so far, which can delineate its niche, in the vast array of research and development, where this research could fit and contribute effectively to the world of knowledge. It is also a recognition, that this is not a standalone research in the field of LLL and are based on the state of the art so far. The discussion in this section finishes in present time, where it can be seen that not only national factors, but also international factors have major influences on changing the perception of cotemporary LLL. The international influence on the changing dimensions of LLL is however, also coined in the theoretical framework selected for the study, and there it appears as a major factor for analysis. Hence, it has a symbiotic link with the main focus of the research and demands further discussion.

This realization drives the study to go deeper into the discussion of the major transnational organizations and their policies. **The fifth chapter – 'elements of LLL in major transnational organizations'** discusses the respective perception on LLL of UNESCO, European Union (EU), World Bank (WB) and OECD through analyzing their policy of each one of these organizations to explore how it has evolved over time in each of these organizations. This discussion is also developed using the available scholarly literature available and by analyzing major policy documents. This section helps to open the discussion to the present dimensions of LLL, where it can be seen that the concept is not same among the organizations and it has even changed inside a single organization. This introduces with the complexity associated with the changing dimensions of LLL and leads the discussion to the next chapter, which moves from the discussion of the perception of LLL in the transnational organizations to the perceptions of LLL in some of the major national policy making organization in India.

This **sixth chapter is thus purposefully named as, the 'elements of LLL in Indian policy making bodies'.** It reviews the major recent policies of the Planning Commission of India (PCI), National Knowledge Commission (NKC) and the University Grants Commission (UGC). Here, it is perhaps relevant to provide a very brief introduction of PCI, NKC and UGC, although it is provided in detail in the relevant chapter. PCI is the main policy making body under the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD), Government of India. It makes the national five-year plans, which are key policy documents for the country for each five-year plan

period. The NKC is a particular commission (2006-2009) established to find the trajectories of educational development and advocate policy change to the PCI to make India a 'knowledge society'. The prime minister is the chairman of this commission and it is perhaps one of the most influential commission in Indian educational policy arena. The third is UGC, which is the apex body of higher educational administration of the country and it follows the basic guidelines of PCI to monitor, develop the higher education of the country. The discussion of UGC seems important, as it has produced a guideline for LLL for Indian higher educational institutes, which is a very significant document regarding LLL in India, and thus, demands detailed discussions.

The next chapter, i.e. the **seventh chapter of the thesis titled the 'renewing dimensions of LLL in India'** is one of the main analytical chapters in this study. It uses all previous findings and extracts from the discussions, analysis, literature reviews, and policy discussions etc. to analyze the Indian dimensions of LLL. It uses four selected factors (Economy, ICT, Demography and Language) to analyze the Indian educational scenario. With the help of the theoretical models, the analysis of the said socio-economic factors highlights several contradictory situations, presence of dilemmas in each of these four factors etc., which provide the basis of considering LLL as a complex, multi-layered, multi-dimensional concept. This analysis sets the base on which the next interlinked chapter is designed. This is **the eighth chapter, titled as 'transition phase- a complex dynamics of LLL in India'**. This is also the final chapter to explore the present dimensions of LLL in Indian education policies. Hence, the prime focus here is on the analysis of the national level policies. To analyze the findings from the previous chapters and relate them with the policy responses, it uses Jarvis (2007, 2008) and Bhola (2003) theories. This chapter finds out the major trends and patterns of LLL in India and unfolds how the concept of LLL has shifted from its traditional dimension, what is its present focus and how complexly it is related with both the traditional and new concepts. This complex nature however helps showing its possible future inclinations, which is a key in the next section of analysis, i.e. on higher education. The analytical results of this chapter are perhaps one of the most valuable findings in the entire research as, based on these, the second part proceeds to analyze the consequences of the changing dimensions of LLL on the Indian higher education policies.

At this point, the research is on the verge of two major sections (LLL and higher education) and the study understands that a direct leap from LLL to the analysis higher education policies would perhaps result in an incomplete analysis as it would intend to omit any discussion about the linkages between these two major areas. Recognizing this, it includes a **chapter with the title 'consequences of the changing dimensions of lifelong learning on Indian higher education policies – a prelude' (Chapter 9).** This chapter bridges LLL and higher education and provides necessary links to move forward with the aim to analyze the influence of LLL on higher education policies. It begins with a summary of the major findings from the renewing dimensions of LLL, which helps to work as a background argument. The next section highlights few important issues, where some of the findings from the previous

section matches with some of the changing features of higher education in India. It works as the starting point to understand precisely, why LLL can influence the higher education policies. At this point, this chapter prevents itself from any further discussion as it demands in depth analysis, rather than a mere overview. It is to note that the next chapters roughly follow the structure of the previous section (LLL) to make these two sections interlinked and coherent. However, an underline flexibility is maintained, as per the demands of the specific chapters and delimits itself form replicating exactly the same structure mechanically.

The next chapter (i.e. **chapter 10)** could have directly plunged into the analysis of why and how LLL is influencing the recent higher education policies in India. Instead of this, this research prefers a discussion on the development of higher education in India, its major policies, plans and education commissions followed by a brief outline of the major policies of recent times, before the core analysis, to facilitate the readers. This chapter might also help to build the base for the analysis ahead and works as a background study where it uses literatures, scholarly works to discuss the present situation and issues in Indian higher education, the development of major areas of focus and how they have been metamorphosing over time. This discussion also briefly highlights the major policies, plans and commissions on higher education in India since independence and discusses the major changes once further. It especially concentrates on discussing the important features of two major five-year plans (11^{th} and 12^{th}) and one recent committee on higher education (Yashpal Committee, 2009). These three policy reports are perhaps the key to determine how the various dimensions of LLL are influencing the national higher education policies.

The eleventh and twelfth chapters of the thesis follow the analytical pathways paved by the LLL section. Based on the previous findings and discussions, they opt for analyzing the consequences of LLL in Indian higher education policies. The former one discusses the influence of economy, ICT, demography and language on influencing the higher education in India and tries to explore the links with the changing dimensions of LLL. This chapter critically analyzes the contradicting perspectives and dilemmas present in each sections and draws reference form the previous analysis of LLL to investigate further. This extensive analysis of these factors reveals the priority areas, areas of further development in higher education of India, which are in line with the present dimensions of LLL. This section lays the ground for the final analysis, which is the **'consequences of the changing dimensions of LLL on recent higher education policies in India' (Chapter 12).** The main purpose of this chapter is to analyze why and how the higher education policies in India are being directly and indirectly, influenced by the changing dimensions of LLL. To analyze the issue in a focused and methodical manner, it uses the guidelines delineated by Jarvis (2007, 2008) theoretical models and Bhola's (2003) model of policy analysis. First, it briefly introduces the stands of the international policies on revamping higher education and how they coincide with that of the Indian one. Second, it moves to the national level and analyzes why the need of change has been felt, what is its present and possible future directions, what are the priority areas and what are the actual reforms in line of the changing dimensions of LLL in India. Here,

it uses the theories to analyze the policy decisions, policy texts and links it with the socio-economic and educational scenarios of contemporary India. This systematic analysis is then further analyzed critically to extract the core influences of the dimensions of LLL on national higher education policies. It ends by directing the thesis for its final chapter.

The **final chapter is the general conclusion (Chapter 13)** of the entire study. There, it sums up the major findings, tie them together with the logical reasoning, already provided in the main body of the thesis. Hence, it integrates and synthesizes the various issues raised in the discussion and tries to provide the answer of the research questions. It brings the several bits and pieces of arguments, findings, and insights and briefly present them in a systematic manner. To represent, it critically reviews the theories and discusses its effectiveness in the study, without introducing any new information. It also highlights the limitations of the thesis including that of the theoretical models selected. These limitations are perhaps the key to further analysis and research. Hence, another main aim of this section is to provide the directions and possible areas of future research, with which, it ends the study by opening it to further developments.

It is the hoped that the systematic organization of the chapters would help following the argument throughout the thesis and help building systematic knowledge as it progresses. However, the research design does not limit itself only to organizing chapters and considers the organization of each chapter as a method to construct the research with a systematic approach. Therefore, the next section briefly discusses the overall structure and the principles followed while designing a chapter.

Organization of a single chapter-

The specific organization of each chapter differs according to the needs and focus of the particular chapter. However, a general overall pattern is followed while designing each chapter. There is a very brief summary before each chapter starts, which provides a glimpse of what the chapter discusses followed by, the contents of the chapter, along with a conceptual framework (through diagram) of the chapter. These initial sections would help to understand the content of the chapter and to follow it better.

Each chapter then starts with an introduction section (with or without mentioning the term; introduction'). It is followed by a short background study in some of the chapters, where it highlights some of the key points from the previous chapters to provide a smooth transition into the analytical/ discussion part of that particular chapter. The chapter then opts for the discussion/ analysis, depends on the requirement of that particular section. This could be considered as the main body of the chapter. Following this, each chapter provides a conclusion where it opens the discussion for the next section. This conclusion section, however, should not be considered as a proper conclusion of the entire thesis. This is rather a brief summary and/or a platform to link and move to the next chapter. This general organization is helpful as it could add value to a better, systematic and focused analysis of the entire thesis.

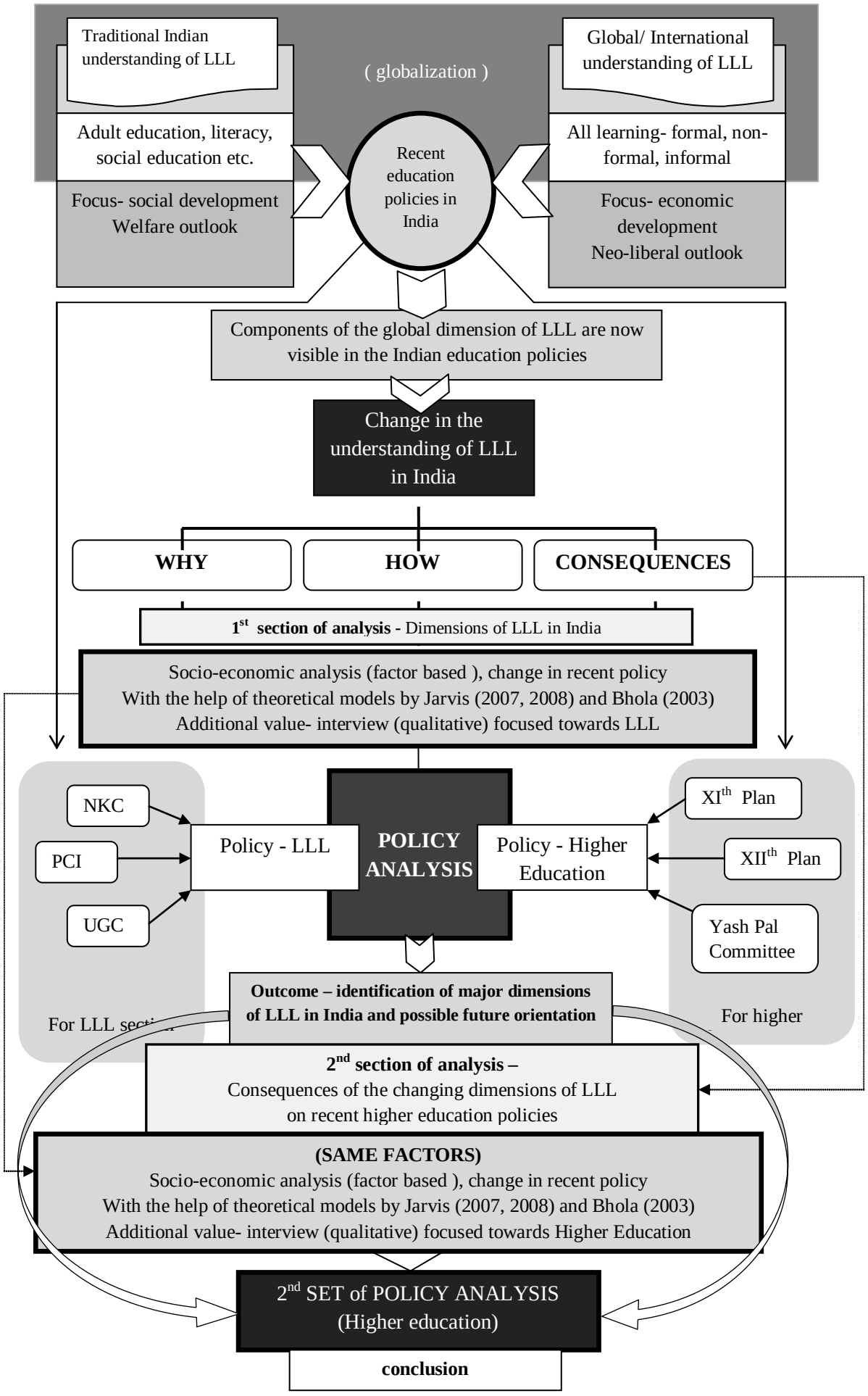


Figure 2: Detailed Conceptual Map of the Study

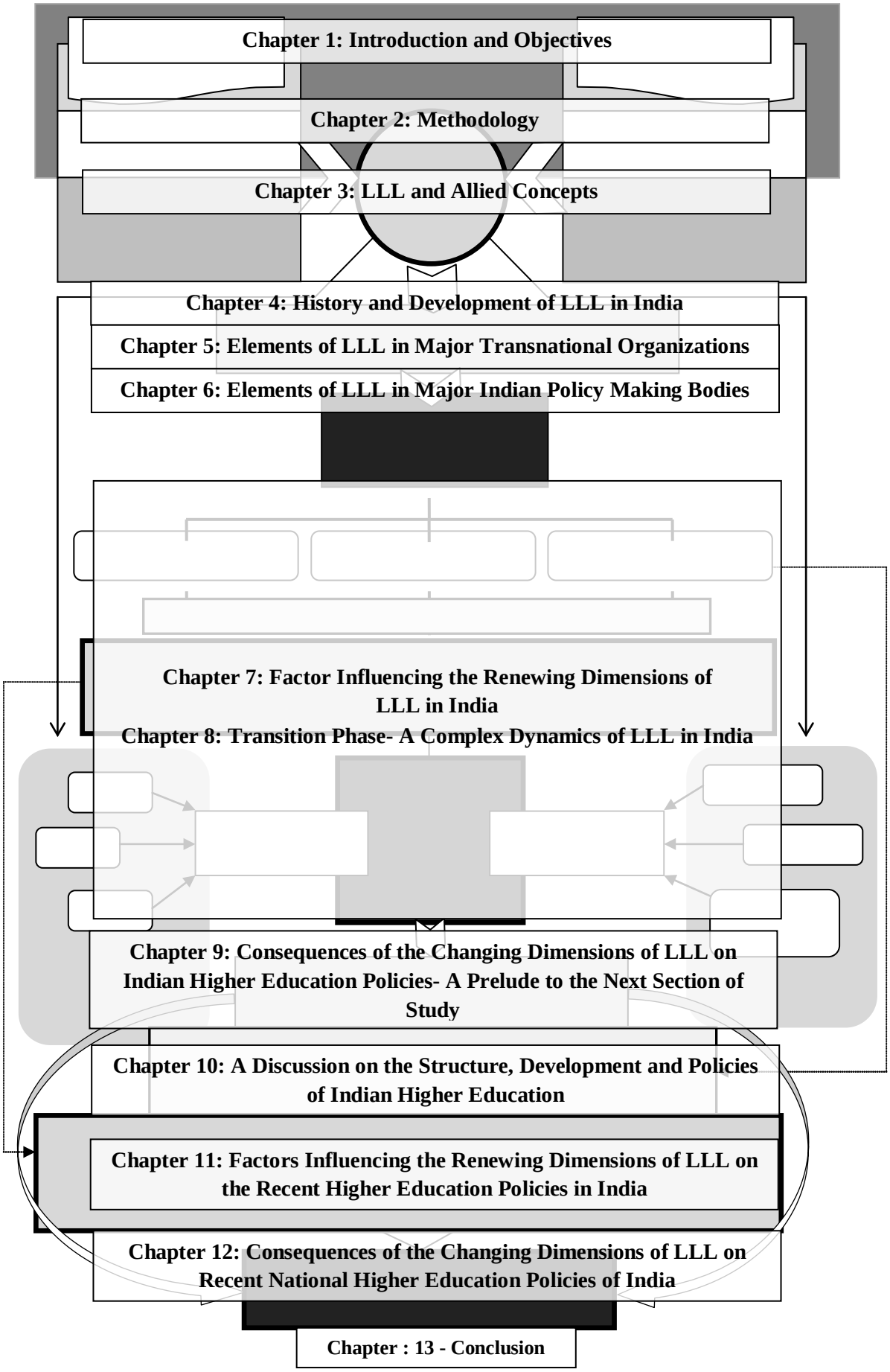


Figure 3: Organization of chapters based on the conceptual map.(see Figure 2)

Significance

The significance of the research is perhaps related with the question: 'what is this research really all about?' as highlighted by Trafford and Leshem (2008: 17). This question leads to the objectives, both general and specific one. It can be seen that the general objective is to contribute to knowledge regarding the specific subject area of this research. However, the specific intended contributions are-

a) Identification of new and emerging issues worthy of investigation and explanation and,
b) Creating a new understanding of an existing issue.

The **first one** indicates to the quest to analyze the renewing dimensions of LLL in India by focusing at the recent national education policies and the **second one** is about creating a new understanding about how the changing dimension of LLL (objective a.) is indeed influencing the changing national higher education policies in India.

The major significance is therefore to help explaining the changing dimensions of LLL in the light of the changing socio-economic situation in India in the age of globalization. It is a study based on the previous discussions about the changing paradigms of education worldwide, including India. It discusses the specific concept of LLL in a national context, which is changing rapidly. It is also a study of policy analysis. Hence, it links policy analysis with socio-economic factors in a way, which may help to understand the complex relationships between different factors, stakeholders and the changing concepts, which is perhaps leading the educational paradigm nowadays.

It intends to contribute to the understanding that LLL in India is perhaps not a linear and simple concept. Hence, the significance lies in the understanding the complexities of the reasons, processes and consequences of the interlinked factors. It could possibly show how the global and international factors are influencing the renewing dimensions of LLL in India and how the policies are adopting and evolving in contemporary time. This may have further significance to the social-analysts, policy makers, educationists to get an updated analysis about LLL and its influence on higher education policies. Finally, this research may contribute significantly in future research development as this research provides a national understanding of LLL, recognizing that there are possibly other major dimensions of LLL in India, considering its size and diversity. More than anything, this research contributes to the knowledge about LLL in India and its consequences on higher education policies, on which there is not many studies available, until now. Hence, through this research, researchers can come to know about this issue and continue to contribute in the knowledge even further.

However, before the beginning of the main sections of analysis, it seems important to gain a clear idea and reasons about the methods it is going to use. The next chapter, therefore, discusses the methodologies and related aspects in detail, which work as tools to critically explore the complex dynamics of LLL in India and its consequences on the national higher education policies in recent years.

chapter

2

Methodology

Chapter 2

Methodology

In the introduction chapter, the rationale, research questions and objectives of this research are presented and the areas of interests are mentioned. From the previous discussion, it can be found that the prime focus of the research is to find out the present dimensions of LLL in India, which are changing. Secondly, the research aims to explore, through critical analysis, the influences of the changing dimensions of LLL on the recent national higher education policies. Consequently, this research is divided into two major parts, LLL and higher education, which are connected together, analytically. It might also be found that in both parts, education policies in a globalizing context are getting utmost importance. Moreover, the study analyzes the situation based on India's changing socio-economic contexts. Overall then, the purpose of the study is to critically analyze the changing dimensions of LLL and its influence on the recent national higher educational policies considering India's present socio-economic situation. Precisely, this study can, thus be considered as a policy analysis. Broadly, however, this is done in a socio-economic context from a macro perspective and mainly analyzes the issue in the national context.

There are several important components of the study. It takes the help of theoretical models, frameworks, interviews, policy reports and documents and other scholarly works etc and analyze then in a socio-economic context, which is also changing and diverse in nature. Properly organizing them to execute a critically analytical, yet easily understandable thesis is perhaps a challenging task. It needs proper organization and methodologies for analysis. The methodology chapter therefore aims to pave the exact steps that is undertaken to address the research questions, and fulfilling the research objectives. This chapter thus describes both the design of the study and organization of the chapters (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). It aims to provide the research the necessary tools to analyze and discuss.

The chapter attempts to unfold in the following steps. **First,** it includes a review of the research method and design appropriateness. This section discusses some of the possible theoretical models, which are relevant for this study. It **then** selects the most relevant one, and provides arguments for the framework and model selected. This section is divided into a few sub-section for the different types of models and theoretical frameworks used for different purposes (overall framework, theories for policy analysis,

socio-economic analysis). The **next section** explains how the data is being collected; the methods used for data collection and analysis, and how it synthesizes with the research objectives. The **last section** of this chapter summarize the discussion, which helps to connect the theories, models with each other in terms of establishing a coherent research methodology for the study.

In all the sub-sections, it follows the principles of *summarize, synthesize, analyze and authorize* (Trafford & Leshem, 2008). It means, it provides an overview of the past, which involves searching the literature to identify sources to this topic and methodology. By synthesizing, it attempts to cluster the sources, which explain the relationship one to another by identifying trends and meaning and significance in the respective works. The next part involves critical evaluation of the sources, which also highlights the critical comments and/or flaws in the theories/models discussed. Finally, the authorize means that the research emphasizes the relationship between the sources and the research. It also draws a conclusion of the sections. Overall, this methodology chapter helps relate itself with the rest of the thesis. It discusses the relation between the research questions, objectives and the methodologies used, including the data collection. Hence, it also explains the organization of the chapters and the logics behind, so that the reader can follow the arguments and theories used, throughout the study. There, it tries to provide a conceptual map of the study. Finally, it opens the discussion for the following chapters.

Research methods and design appropriateness

This research, as mentioned earlier, can mainly be considered as a policy analysis done in the socio-economic context of a selected country (India). The study tries to find a change of dimensions of a certain component (LLL) in policies (national level) and the influence of the changed (or changing) dimensions in another part (higher education) of the policies. Essentially then, this study is primarily qualitative in nature as it aims to find qualitative changes. However, there are several other factors to consider here even before the explanation of that methodology of analysis. For instance, what type of policy research is it, or what type of data it deals with? Depending on these, further steps are determined.

The research attempts to answer the second question first. Firstly, it seems important to recognize here, that changes in the policy dimension do not happen in vacuum. “There is perhaps no denying the fact that policy should be compatible with the context” (Mandal, 2012: 14). Any new national policy depends on the previous policies and plans, follows the progresses so far and aims at up gradation based on the national situation. Hence, the development of the dimension of something (in this case, LLL) in the policy domain depends on the progressive development of the concept in the previous plans, the educational development of the country and goal(s) or vision, perceived by the government and reflected through the policies. Since there are many factors involved, which are measured in numerical figures, there is involvement of qualitative data as well. For instance, educational data, budget, expenses and profit related data and so

forth. These data, however, can be found in secondary data sources, such as national and international reports, reports of commercial and non-commercial corporations, NGOs etc. This data are an important parts of the research, as they help exploring the context better, by demonstrating the changes already taken place or the intention of the government and/or the future direction of the educational development. In other words, in spite of the qualitative nature of this research, it requires quantitative data to analyze the issues critically and support its arguments.

Because of the incorporation of both qualitative and quantitative data, it largely falls in the mixed method category. However, a closer examination would reveal that the prime importance is on qualitative analysis and hence, the study is developed with a 'QUAL-quan' approach (Morse, 1991, Miller, 2003). It implies to a 'dominant-les dominant design' where the study mainly focuses on qualitative analysis (QUAL). However, to assess the arguments and points, it takes the help of published secondary source quantitative (quan) data. These quantitative data help to strengthen the study and the arguments of the qualitative documents. National level planning reports (mainly last two five-year plans) work as main qualitative data along with other reports such as review reports, interim reports and short term reports, etcetera. However, it seems important to mention that this is a general research method it follows as it fits effectively with the nature of data it handles and the type of analysis it does. The specific methods for the research are related with the nature of policy analysis it does and the approaches it takes to analyze the socio-economic factors. This leads the discussion to the next part where it attempts to answer the first question, i.e. what type of policy research is it?

According to the studies of Gordon et. al. (1977), Nutley & Webb (2000), Becker & Bryman (2004), Young et. al. (2002), there is a general distinction between research 'for policy' and research 'of policy'. Research 'for' policy indicates towards various stages of policy process before the formation of policy through the implementation of policy. Whereas, the research 'of policy' refers to research of how problems are defined, agendas are set, policy is formulated and changed and/or how policy is being implemented, evaluated and so on. The first is mainly carried out by individuals and/or organization in order to help policymaking or modifications/ up gradations and thus, supposed to have more political value. On the other hand, academics, teachers, teacher unions, politicians, workers and so on use the other ('of policy'); which aims for critical policy analysis. Chibulka, (1994: 107), however conceptualizes that policy research operating on a continuum and academic and applied policy analysis and Taylor et. al. (2006) argues that there is no absolute distinctions between the analysis 'of' and 'for' policy as it is somewhat artificial and in spite of some differences both the analysts of 'of' and 'for' policies do cooperate. Becker (2004:831) added to this argument and pointed out that policy-oriented research can simultaneously be of both types. Taylor et. al. (2006) continued to mention that the most important aspect in a critical policy analysis is that it should be concerned with reform and change, recognizing the value-laden terms. Therefore, either it is an analysis of policies exploring the values and assumptions that underline policies, changes or related issues of power or as per Jarvis (2007)(among others), it could be value-laden activity, which explicitly or implicitly makes judgments on whether and in what ways policies help to make things better.

This research largely falls in the analysis 'of policy' bracket, and tries to explore the underline reasons for the change of perceptions. However, following the previous arguments, it can also be said that this study seeks answers of value-laden questions to help understand how policies work and how it is related with the issue of power. There are extensive discussions in the following sections, in addition to this broad understanding of the type of research this study undertakes. The next sections therefore, helps exploring the way the study executes the policy analysis, what factors it considers and why, what questions it asks etc. followed by another section, which discusses the types of theoretical frameworks used for the analysis of other socio-economic factors. Nevertheless, this initial discussion on the methodology helps understanding the broad research type, which is dominantly qualitative and 'of policy', but also considers quantitative data and asks questions which are broadly related to critical policy analysis.

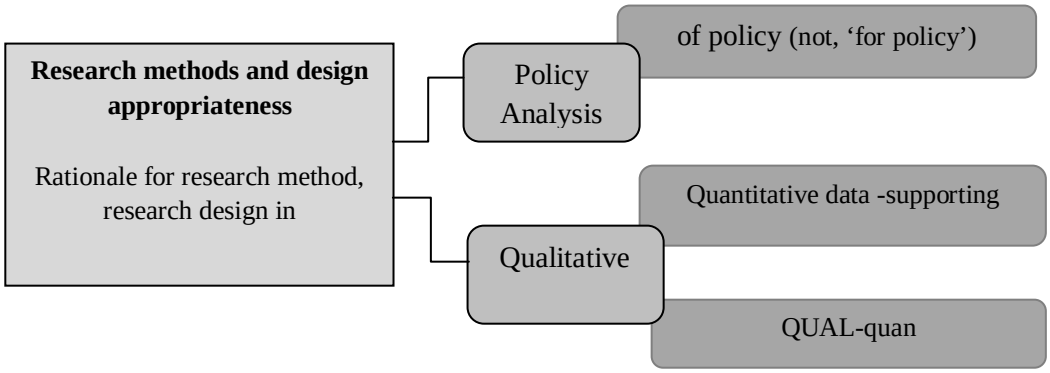


Figure 4: Policy analysis and related methodology

Policy Analysis methods- Rationale, Method, Justification

Several definitions and descriptions of policy analysis are available in literature (Majone and Quade, 1980; Hogwood and Gunn 1984; Aguirre 1995; Bhola 2003). There are several perspectives of policy analysis as well; namely the economic perspective, political science perspective, perspective from different disciplines, anthropological perspective and so on (Sykes et al 2009). Each one analyzes policy from different angles, tending to ask different questions. The prominence of each perspective changes over time and there are different streams of theories, which influence the policy analysis from time to time (Bhola 2003:448). Hence, it seems important to have a clear idea of policy analysis to select the appropriate methods to do this study. The following section therefore, discusses several aspects of policy research, in brief and argues for the method selected for this study, by Bhola (2003).

It starts the discussion of what this research refers as policy. The study of Taylor et. al. 1997 shows that a vast literature is available on this issue, and efforts are being made from various disciplines. However, there is a recognition that "such definition is not an easy task" (Taylor et. al. 1997: 23). Examining the works of Hogwood and Gunn (1984: 12-19) it can be found that policy is a 'general expression of general purpose or desired

state of affairs'. According to them, policy is a specific proposal, decision of government, as formal authorization of the governing agency, as a program or even as a outcome or output. It is also defined as a theory, model or as a process. Harman, in the same year (1984), mentions it as 'action directed towards the accomplishment of some intended or desired set of goals'. It can also be a position or stance, which is directed toward particular objectives, developed in response to a problem or issue (Harman, 1984: 13-14). This view can be termed as 'rational model' of policy. Taylor et. al conforms to this view of considering policy as a 'process' as it involves a recognition of a problem followed by a response through formulation and implementation stages (Taylor et. al. 1997:24). However, they also contradict Harman's (1984) view of the society and its claim that various agents can be defined by a single value consensus where they contribute to the stability of the society. Instead, they argue that society is an amalgamation of competing groups with different values and access of power. Therefore, the idea of a policy should include the political nature of the policy, which recognizes the competing values and interests in the midst of power relations. Hence, policy is "much more than a specific policy document or text. Rather policy is both process and product. It involves the production of the text, the text itself, ongoing modifications to the text and processes of implementations into practice" (Taylor et. al. 1997:14-15). This view is somewhat linked to that of Ball (1994: 10-26) who mentions policies as both text and action, and the view of Bowe et. al. (1992: 20), who mention policy as a multi-layered process, comprises of a top-down and bottom-up approaches, contributing in the process. Hence, this study argues after Bowe et. al (1992), Ball (1994) and Taylor et. all (1997) that policies are complex, and interactive which involves the exercise of power in a multi-layered society.

The next concern is related with the way policies are formed or simply, the 'dynamics of policy formulation processes'. This is important for this study as it is related with the idea of influence of different agents and layers of the society for policy formulation change in certain dimensions, up to its implementation and making of successive policies. The work of Rein (1983:21) can be mentioned in this regard. Rein has pointed out that there are at least three steps involved in policy formulation; problem setting, mobilization of the structure of government action and achievement of settlements in the face of dilemmas and trade-offs among values. The 'trade-offs' are manifested in the policy texts, which are formed in response to the competing interests in the policy process and that policies represent compromises over struggles (Taylor et. al. 1997: 26-37). Taylor et. al. (1997) however, highlights that there are considerable amount of debate over the values, which are allocated in the policies. The prime question is – in whose interest or, whose values are being represented? The pluralistic approach says that the government attempts to address the values and interests of as many groups as possible, whereas, the elitist approach argues that the government mainly listens to the dominant groups. The neo-Marxist puts another dimension to it and says that those, who controls the economic power have more political influence than other have. That means, through the policies, the powerful supports their own interests. However, the approach also acknowledges that the government sometimes takes decisions, which are not always in the interests of the economically powerful. The research largely confronts to this view. It is again discussed in the later section, where the theoretical model is explained. However, along with the neo-Marxist approach, this study recognizes that the decisions

of the government are largely determined by the tensions and political struggle (Taylor et. al, 1997: 27), which are mentioned before. This dimension of policy formulation through the struggle or tensions of the interests groups with different levels of exercisable power is supported by Codd (1988), Fulcher (1989), Yeatman (1990), (Taylor et. al, 1997), Bhola (2003), Jarvis (2007, 2008), Rizvi and Lingard (2010) among others.

Through the discussion so far, we have come across some important terms and components, which are essential in the contemporary understanding of policy and its formulation process. It can be seen that policy is more than a text, it is a non-neutral, power-driven, multi-layered, interactive and dynamic process situated in changing socio-economic contexts. Hence, the discussion should be critical to the policies and open to include the components mentioned. Ball (1994) advocates for an open and creative approach for policy analysis, which emphasizes on finding the appropriate theory and concept for the task, rather than narrowly applying a particular theory which may close off the possibilities for interpretation (Taylor et. al. 1997: 39). Regarding this open approach, Kenway (1990: 24) suggests the use of 'what', 'how' and 'why' questions as a method of beginning the analysis. Taylor et. al (1997) and Bhola (2003) also suggested to begin with questions for policy analysis which underlines the issue of policy and power. However, these questions are based on the development of the popular discourses, which cumulatively helped to come up with the key guiding questions. The section below discusses this briefly before going into the discussion of the guiding policy analysis questions.

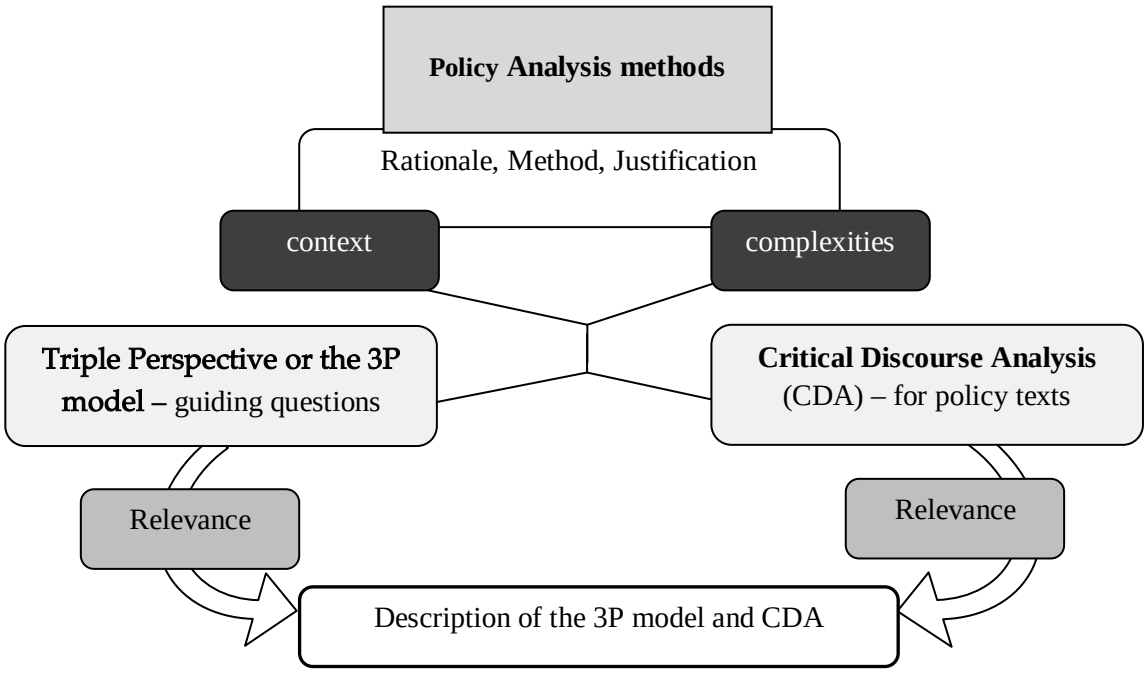


Figure 5: Policy analysis methods - detailed

Bhola (2003: 448) shows that the discourse of policy analysis has changed in important ways over time along with the changing theoretical understandings of democracy. The early literatures tend to be positivistic in its methodology, functionality and assumptions (Taylor et. al. 1997: 38). Policy was seen as an unquestionable dispensation to be in the public interests. Policy analysis used to consider alternative options and reasoned choice among the indicators, such as criteria of costs, utilities and effectiveness (Pogrow, 1985), which still continues to some extends (Darling-Hammond, 1992). Later competing epistemological methodological approaches contested the existing paradigms during the understanding of the existence of the uncertainty in the social world. The discussion of the inside processes of policy formulation came to the fore and policy was seen as 'a mixture of social interaction and intellectual deliberation' (House, 1982). The policy process become blur and the focus shifted to its context and style, which Roe (1994) pointed out as 'no more than developing narrative' (in Bhola, 2003: 448). Other traditions includes focus on policy implementation, the usefulness of the pluralistic approach, the danger of majoritarianism (Dworkin, 1983) or the effectiveness of the social responsibility and affirmative-actions in relation to gender and race (Hawkesworth, 1994). However, according to the analysis of Bhola (2003), what was missing is any attention to the substantive domain of policy as he pointed out that, often the question of fundamental principles and social processes of implementation included in policy analysis tend toward the general. On the other hand, substantive questions relating to a policy are specific to the domain (Bhola 2003:449). This substantive approach is different from the previous approaches, and asks key questions to the policy, regarding its formulation, content and effectiveness in a certain context, in which it is designed for. Kenway (1990) also proposed similar key question to analyze policies, which are related to more general sociological questions such as:

- Why was the policy adopted?
- On whose terms and why?
- On what ground have these selection been justified and why?
- In whose interests?
- How have competing interested been negotiated?

Taylor et. al. (1997) adds few more questions, such as:

- Why now?
- Why is this particular policy on the agenda at this particular time?
- What are the consequences?

Bhola, an Indian educationist suggested an alternative method of policy analysis, which also asks questions to the policy domain. Significantly enough, the questions by Bhola (2003) are somewhat similar to the questions mentioned above, but categorize them in three different sets, with one guiding questions for each section. The model is named as the 'the triple-perspective' or 3P model of Policy Analysis (Bhola, 2003). The research selects this policy as it supports the critical policy analysis through posing key questions to the policy domain. It seems useful for the research in terms of maintaining a flexible approach and answer specific questions relating to the focus of the research without being general in its approach. The model is explained below in details.

The Triple Perspective or the 3P model (Bhola, 2003)-

The '3-P model of policy analysis' does not provide hypotheses to test and to confirm or disconfirm. It provides useful insights, which are understandable for both experts and common people. This model has been tested in both national and international policy initiative (Bhola 2003:456) especially while analyzing policies of developing countries. The guiding questions allow questioning the policy from different angel and opening enough to analyze from any perspective.

Importance of 3-p model in the era of Globalization

"Education systems have not escaped the forces of globalization'' (Bhola 2003:450). National education systems are influenced by global educational policies developed by several international institutions such as OECD, EU, UNESCO, World Bank etc. These policies are formed with different aims and often with explicit or implicit agendas. Policy analysts of the so called 'third world', are therefore, should be aware of the source of these policies. According to Bhola, these policy analysts should also examine the distortions and contradictions in the roles and objectives of education policies hammered at the global level and installed in local communities. This seems as an important consideration as this study analyses the influence of the global and international pressures, powers and their policies. It helps to understand the changing perspective of LLL in India in a globalized context.

Description and utilization of the Triple-Perspective: model for Policy analysis:

In this 'Triple perspective' or 3-P model, the 'context' is one of the most important things; as in today's world globalization has appeared to be an important layer in this context and it can influence all policy making at International, national and regional level. This model asks three main questions and analyzes these in specific context. These three guiding questions are:

- Is the policy principled? (P1)
- Is the policy professionally sound? (P2)
- Is the policy practical? (P3)

This model allows the use of any qualitative or quantitative methods aiming to unravel the complexities of the policy process. The analysis of Taylor et. al (1997: 41) also supports this combined use of qualitative and quantitative analysis methods recognizing that qualitative methods are perhaps better, but a combined method could lead to a better critical policy research.

Bhola (2003: 451) sets a rather dynamic criterion for the three policy questions. Due to the very nature of the questions, they cannot be separated completely because they are often overlapping in nature. However, the analysis of P1, P2 and P3 need not be in a sequential order as they might demand separate or joint analysis based on the policy itself. For analytical exercise however, carefully selected criteria must be used to make these 3-Ps as distinct as possible.

P-1: Is the Policy Principled?

Policies are principled if they envision, promote and sustain a moral social order that is just and fair (Rawls 1971:302 in Bhola 2003:451). This concept is related with the changing nature of democracy and capitalism. Theoretically democracy is related with rights and leading towards development. In fact, Amartya Sen (1999) asserts that 'development is freedom'. If education sets the stage for democratic politics and plays a central role in democratic politics, who should then share the authority to influence the way democratic citizens are educated (Gutman 1987 in Bhola 2003:454)? At practice level, there are however, distinctive aspects of the education system, which are very much related with the analysis of the P-1 question of this 3-P model. These aspects are:

- The distribution of educational benefits and attributes (ability, tenacity and choice)
- The distribution of educational benefits (knowledge, skills, competencies etc.)
- The distribution of surrogate educational benefits (grade, degrees etc.)
- The distribution of non-educational social and economic benefits (positions, status, income etc.) (Bhola 2003:454)

These aspects in P1, seems directing to the question; why was the policy adopted (Kenway, 1990), and loosely related with the question, why is this particular policy on the agenda at this particular time (Taylor et. al. 1997), questioning the intention of the policy. However, Bhola relates the concept of 'just and fair' with P1 and this is perhaps quite subjective, considering the power and struggle involved in a dynamic multi-layered society. Hence, this study considers the concept of 'just and fair' as a matter of critical discussion and analyzes it contextually.

P-2: is the Policy Professionally Sound?

Making judgment about the professional soundness of policy or education policy is full of complexity. Educational policy objectives often vary from individual growth to social reproduction of labor, to politics of socialization etc. It may vary from the position from which of it is viewed; e.g. global, international, regional, local etc. It may also vary depending on the target group. Another variation is related to the 'analysts' perspectives, which may vary from global to local levels and from person to person. In this perspective also, it seems inclined to the direction of the questions raised by Kenway (1990). For instance, the question- on whose terms and why or on what ground have these selection been justified and why, seems relevant as they help determining the professional soundness of a policy from various standpoints.

According to Bhola (2003) however, it is essential to identify the objectives, program and projects that a macro policy may have spawned. This directs to the overall objectives of a policy text. Then the policy should be analyzed further depending on the selected criteria. Another important thing to remember is the socio-cultural context where the policy is supposed to be implemented (Bhola 2003:454).

P-3: Is the Policy Practical?

The question of practicality of a policy is indeed a question of its implementation (Bhola 2003:455). Implementation was largely considered as a social process where policy was not simply and correctly actualized but was in fact reconstructed through outcomes as produced by those who acted on policy. However, later, this idea was modified and policy analysis became able to focus more on the dialectic between policy and practice to confirm earlier learning and to learn new lessons. One important finding regarding this is that policy implementation is incredibly difficult to make happen particularly across layers of government and institutions. Here, local capacity also plays an important role in implementing the policies into practice and pressure and support and the balancing mechanism between the interests of different stakeholders and their interests determines the success of a policy. In other words, it asks; how have competing interests been negotiated (Kenway, 1990) or what are the consequences (Taylor et. al. 1997)?

This guiding question relates the macro and micro aspect of policy and recommends combining the individual and the system. To implement a policy, policy makers have to keep in mind the social construction of the target population, which leads to the balancing act mentioned in the pluralistic, elitist or neo-marxist approaches. This may work as a crucial factor for policy analysis, which indicated the rate of success of a policy (Bhola 2003:455-456) or at least represent the intention of the government and their way of addressing the situation, promoting their vision etc. while being practical. These guiding questions in the P3 model seems useful for this specific study as not only they are open and flexible, but also they seem appropriate to analyze the changing dimensions of LLL in India. It helps to analyze the policies, plans and related policy documents, as they questions the intention, practicality and professional soundness of the change in contemporary temporal and socio-economic context, and hence, able to critically analyze its effect on the higher education policies.

Policy Text Analysis

The previous sections explain the approaches for policy research and argue for the selected methods or models used to analyze policy and the standpoint they take. It also explains why these models and methods are suitable for this study. However, there is perhaps one last question remain unanswered, related to the analysis of the actual policy texts. How it is analyzed? What are the prime method(s) it considers to analyze the actual text(s)? These are basic yet practical questions for policy analysis. This section attempts to answer them and argues the usefulness of the selected methods for this specific research.

There are two broad classification to study documents; content analysis and discourse analysis. The first one analyzes the text; however, the later looks in between the lines. That means, it looks for evidence, links it with socio-economic phenomenon and even sometimes looks for the background of the policy makers to analyze the policies. Both of these need a substantive knowledge of the subject it intends to study. However, effective policy research in education needs more than substantive knowledge of education. It often involves more than one expertise and combination of different methodologies (Majchrzak, 1984: 14). The study of Mejchrzak (1984) also shows that the analysis of

policy documents tend to have certain characteristics like; it is multidimensional, it uses an empirico-inductive approach, focuses on malleable variables, it is responsive to study users and it is value-laden process. Some of these have already been discussed. However, one interesting thing is that along with the study of the policies, it tries to induce concepts and theories in relation to the social problem progresses (empirco-inductive). The study highlights four issues, which are related to the steps of policy analysis- policymaking context of the social problem, range of opinion about the social problem, types of recommendations proposed and; needed and available resources (Mejchrzak, 1984: 32). It provides an extensive guideline for policy analysis. However, not all of them fit with this research and perhaps there is no scope for an elaborate discussion of them here as well. Nevertheless, the points highlighted by Mejchrzak (1984) are useful while analyzing the policy documents.

While analyzing the policy documents, it is important to remember the context. Here, the context is contemporary Indian educational reforms in the era of globalization. It is even more evident with the emergence of the terms, such as 'knowledge economy', 'knowledge society', 'learning society' and so on. Fairclough (2001) refers these as 'discourse driven social change' and pointed out that the language in the policy document has become more important with the emergence of these new terminologies or discourses. Similarly, Luke (2002) pointed out that with the emergence of new kind of globalized contexts enabled by 'discourse-saturated technologies', language, test and discourse become principal modes of social relation, civic and political life, economic behavior and activity (Luke, 2002:98). Taylor (2004) added to "this discussion by saying that the economic and cultural aspects of globalization have lead to increasing fragmentation and plurality- and complexity of social life (Taylor, 2004: 343). In this changing socio-political-educational scenario Luke (2002) argues for a competitive method for discourse analysis and according to Luke (2002:98) the Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) could be the answer.

> CDA explores how texts construct representation of the world, social relationships, and identities, and there is an emphasis on highlighting how such practices and tests are ideologically shaped by relation of power (Fairclough, 1993, 2001 in Taylor 2004: 235)

Recent analysis by Ball (1990), Yeatman (1990), Taylor (1997), Taylor et. al. (1997) among others) shows that in contemporary world, policy making and outcome is an arena of struggle, which Yeatman (1990) termed as 'the politics of discourse'. The struggle is between competing objectives, where language is used tactically (Fulcher, 1989: 7). To analyze the policy text, the CDA is useful as it allows detailed investigation of not only the text, but also the relationship of language with other social process and helps explaining how language works within power relations. It seems as an upgraded composition of traditional content and discourse analysis, which is explicitly critical, helps to reveal the distinctive constructions of power relations, and has commitment to progressive social change. According to Taylor, CDA is best suitable for critical policy analysis (Taylor, 2004). Moreover, we have already mentioned the presence of power relation in policy discourse and will mention again while discussing the main model for

theoretical analysis by Jarvis (2007, 2008) where the model helps to explain how power from different layers of the society modifies the understanding of LLL. Therefore, it seems important to explore the CDA model even further to gain a better understanding for policy document analysis.

However, CDA is not a blueprint and needs to be combined with other forms of analysis (Taylor, 2004: 436). CDA aims to show how semiotic, including linguistic properties of a text connects with what is going on, socially (Fairclough, 2001: 240). Thus, it has two major parts: social analysis (external relations o the text) and semiotic/linguistic analysis (internal relations of the text) (Taylor, 2004: 437). It takes into account:

- The whole text - overall structure of the text, its narrative, direction (s), main arguments and overall message or orientation.

- Clauses combination- the relation between different clauses used in the text and their relation with the direction of change, considering socio-economic-political phenomenon.

- Grammatical and semantic features- The way it portrays its meaning and relates different parts to convey need, reform, direction etc.

- Words (vocabulary, collections, use of metaphors) – use of new hybrid terms or 'buzz words' (e.g. knowledge economy, learning society etc.) to symbolically and metaphorically express the common direction of reforms and power relations, which determines the direction of change, its driving force, transition, adaptation, move, transformation, re-definition etc (Fairclough, 2001).

Several features of the CDA model matches with the topic and direction of the research. However, as mentioned earlier, that CDA 'is still another text and just one cannot know the effects of policy texts without empirical research" (Taylor, 2004: 447). This study agrees with this view and considers CDA as the main model for analyzing the policy texts, but includes other methods to collect data (interviews) and analyze it with the specific focus of fining the dimensions of LLL and its influence on the Indian national higher education policies in recent years.

The next section therefore moves one step further form the discussion of policy related methodology and enters into the discussion of the main theoretical frame/ model, which guides the core analysis. Following it, the research explains the methodology used for collecting and analyzing interviews as a part of strengthening the critical analytical abilities of the study.

Main theoretical model for analysis –

It is mentioned in the introduction chapter that globally, education policies are going through major changes and these processes are no longer determined only by the policy actors of the nation states. Rather policies today are influenced by a range of complex processes that occur in transnational and globally networked spaces (Rizvi and Lingard

2010: 22). This emergence of a complex process involving national and international agents have made the policy analysis more complex, which could be understood from the above discussion as well. Lifelong learning, on the other hand, has been largely presented as a means of embracing globalization (Wilterdink 1993). However, policies in the age of globalisation involve many facets and layers. They modify and re-modify in a complex socio-economic system, which is multi-layered and dynamic. Therefore, to analyse the policies, it is important to go into different layers and levels ranging from international to local, which in turn influences the final policymaking and its components. This section of the methodology chapter discusses three main things together: education policy, lifelong learning and globalization. The issue of education policy is although, already discussed; here it tries to link it with the other two factors which helps to understand the analysis better.

There are, however, several scholarly works, which address these three issues together. The works of Giddens (1990), Appadurai (1990, 2001), Taylor et.al (1997), Rosenberg (2000) Field (2006), Rizvi and Lingard (2010), Jarvis et. al. (2003), Jarvis (2007, 2008) are some important works, among many. Giddens (1990) attempts to construct a theory of globalization, and argues that modernity disembeds people from local frameworks and practices, with the result that all aspect of nature, society and its identities become available for reflexive choice, and rights and markets replace local, traditional norms (Giddens, 1990: 37-39). In this theory, Giddens highlights the change in the meaning or norms, which are considered 'fixed' or 'given'. The globalization here refers to the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distance localities that it affects the local and nation state, thus starts losing control with the emergence of globalization (Giddens, 1990). However, some aspects like how globalization as a set of process has emerged or how modernizing is inherently globalizing (Kiely, 2009: 118) are to be properly considered. Keiley thinks that it is not a proper theory and rather a description and tells little about the social relations. Rosenburg (2000) paetly contested Giddens's idea and and argues that although there is nothing wrong witht the theory of globalization, this must relate to some basic social theories, which could help understanding the phenomena denoted by the term. However, Rosenberg (2000) points out that Giddens's theory lack in explaining the power relations or the unequal consequences of these changes.

In 1999, Held et. al.(1999), came up with a theory, which was partly able to overcome some of the fitfalls of the previous theories. They propose three camps- the hyperglobalizers, the sceptics and the transformationalists. The first one argues that there has been a huge change and the second argues the opposite, saying that the change has been exaggerated and is not historically unprecedented. The third one, or the transformationalist approach argues that the previous two approaches views globalization from two extreme corners,while it should be seen interms of qualitative changes. Theyargue that the recent changes are unprecidented and different form the previous historical changes, and are related with a changing and constantly adjusting world, where there is no clear distinction between international and domenstic, external and internal affairs (Held et. al. 1999: 1-7). Although this theory does consider the power

relations, but it tend to consider the process of globalization uncertain and contradictory. Moreover, the globalization has not led to complete global convergence. Instead, it had created new source of power and inequality, and unequal marginalization to some extent, as some are firmly enhanced in the circuit of global power whereas someare left out or less attached (Kiely, 2009: 119).

In the midst of theories about globalization, Marx's theory could point out something iteresting, which partially helps to lead this discussion towards the theory selected for the analysis. Marx's theory highlighted that globalization, in many aspects, uncertain and coningent. It is therefore a process, where there is no overall control. However, althoughthe power is fluid (Held and McGrew 2002), the capitalists, who are closer to the core of power, have more control over it than the workers. This is an important point which links it with the previously mentioned theories and helps marging the theoterical gaps of the power relations infused in globalization. However, Kiely (2009: 120) pointed out that although it is somewhat clear that globalization is a driving force for change, the theories still do not explain how these have come about, or what are the agencies that lead these changes. Interestingly enough, the answer to these concerns could come form the work of Castells (1996, 1997, 1998), where he explained the enoumous devolopment of the information and communication technology (ICT) and relates it with globalization. One of his argument is that, since it is an information based networked society, it is a globalized society. The upsurge of these thechnologies help the possibilities of practicing new roles of power and goes beyond the geographic boundaries. "Time and space are therefore compressed"(Kiely, 2002: 122). Morever, it encourages to create a new kind of labors, who are highly educated and flexible, and hence, flexible to learn to adopt with the new types of changing global environment. This helps undermnig the clear class structures mentioned in the industrial capitalism, while the power started taking a more complex shape. The basic principal is however, largely the same, where this new social divide helps maintaining the flow of power towards them who are in the circle rather then who are not.

This face resistance from different staratas of the society (Jarvis, 2008; Kiely, 2002). This view also contradicts Giddens's idea of an inclusive globalization. Appadurai (2001) however says that this counter force can sometimes be termed as 'globalization from below' ot 'grassroot globalization' (Appadurai, 2001:16-17). The social organizations like NGOs and civil societies take part to preserve the rights of the concerned groups and sometimes becomes powerful to influence in large scale, even the government. However, Appadurai points out that often most of these organizations fail to counter global capital precisely in its global dimesion. The brute power of global capital, infused with the power of information technology have grown significantly in the last few decades and since the tendency of many of the skaholders are related with 'bread and butter issues' they tend to oppose local interests of these grasroot globalization against global alliance. Nevertheles, Appadurai (2001) helps to understand that globalization is not an unidirectional process. It is from above and below, and it is emmensly complex in nature and its dynamics (Appadurai, 2001: 19). This understanding also refuses to see globalization as a purely technologically driven phenomenon, championed by Castells.

Nevertheless, Castells (1996, 1997,1998) helps us to relize the potential power of globalization and ICT to change the educational system and the dynamics of a traditional society through power relations and struggle.

At this point, the research attempts to introduce the theory of Peter Jarvis (2007, 2008), which discusses the power relations in a globalized multi-layered interconnected, unequal society, where the interaction and dynamics of power shapes the dimensions of LLL. Jarvis, in 2007 and 2008 has produced two conjugated models to explain his thoughts about globalization and LLL. In the first model (2007) he explains the process of globalization and in the second model (2008) he shows the influence of globalization on the changing perspectives of LLL. These graphical models are theoretical models and are represented in a simplified from. The reason for this simplification is to make them more understandable to the reader. However, in the real world, things are immensely complex and Jarvis himself acknowledges this fact in his work. Therefore these models may seem simplified to some extent, but the explanation of these models would probably be able to show the complex nature of both globalization and LLL and help this thesis to analyze the whole issue critically. This model, with some of its limitations, provides the open approach required for the analysis of the metamorphosis of lifelong learning in the Indian context.

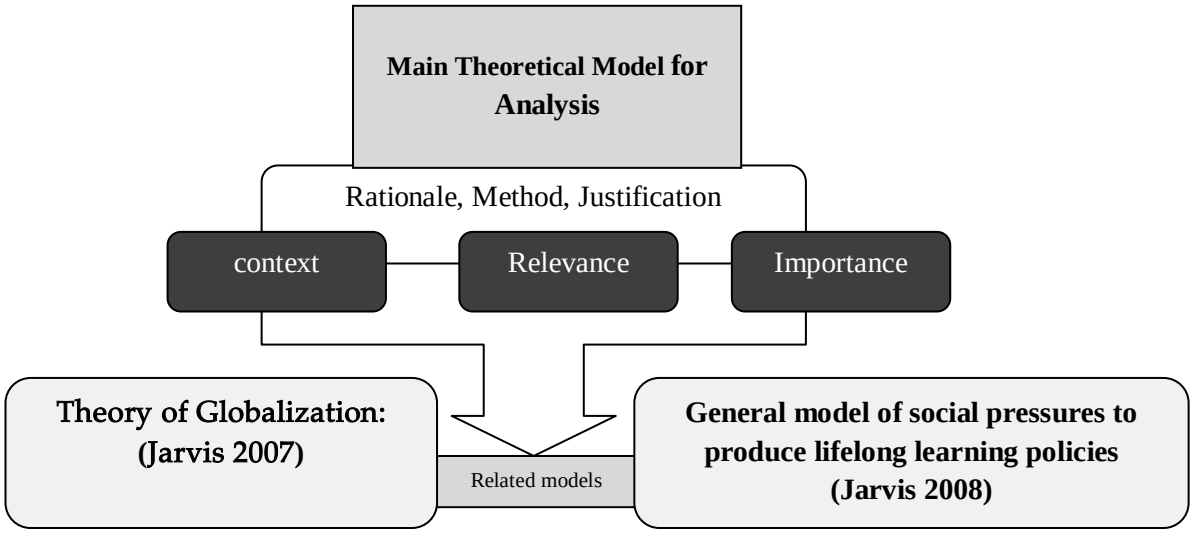


Figure 6: Approach for selecting the theories (by Jarvis) for policy analysis

Theory of Globalization: Jarvis 2007-

According to Jarvis (2007:40) Globalization is a much-used word with a variety of meanings. These theories help to generate the basic proposition for the model proposed by Jarvis (2007). These are 'Imperialist and neo-imperialist', 'Modernization and neo-evolutionalist', 'Neo-Marxist' (including dependency theorist), 'World system' (and the new international division of labor theory) and 'Modes of production' and other theories. Many of these theories recognize the centrality of the economic institutions of society and this is related with Jarvis's concept of a 'substructure'. However, only the Marxist and imperialist models specifically focus on 'power', which may control that economic institution (Jarvis

2007:40-41). The power is playing a central role in Jarvis's (2007) model as well, but it is different from that mentioned in the Marxist theories. For instance, unlike the Marxist model, where the power lies within each society, the substructure is global, complex and interconnected. It exercises considerable pressures on the remaining layers of the society (individual countries, national and international organisations). (Jarvis 2007).

Jarvis (2007, 2008) highlights that the power structure is very much present in the present world. According to the neo-Marxist theory, economic institutions are not alone in the core of globalization and according to Jarvis (2007) these economic institutions coupled with modern technology create the elements of the global substructure. The global power lies in the combination of both. The global substructure is also related with the dominating body/entity, which controls the economic institutions and the modern technology. However, it is recognized before as well, that there is no single superpower at present to control it completely, but according to Jarvis, as a country, USA is in a dominant position in controlling the substructure, more than others are. There is a deliberate process of making the world homogenized since it will consequently help to establish the dominance of the substructure in all societies and help in economic and political activities.

The society is immensely complex nowadays. Thus, the process of homogenization can be questioned. Jarvis's concept differs from the Marxist model where power lies within each society. According to Jarvis; along with globalization, this simple formation of individual power structure has changed into a more complex, interconnected one. "It is now the substructure of the whole world" (Jarvis 2007:42). Basically, it is the economic power that spread across the countries uninterruptedly, and often consists of private capital, multinational corporations and sometimes political power of powerful nations (e.g. US, according to Jarvis 2007).

The process of globalization has increased its speed with the following contributory factors mentioned by Jarvis (2007:44):

- The nature of capitalism itself and the need to make a profit on commodities produced;
- The recognition that modernity itself is being questioned;
- The prevalence of idea of minimal state and neo-liberal economies allowed for power to pass from the state to the capitalist institutions;
- The development of sophisticated ICT which kindle one after another hi-tech innovation, constantly;
- The economic competition from the East, which challenges the West;
- Using scientific knowledge in the production of commodities in the global market;
- The democratization of the west with the fall of the Berlin wall. This allows the US to become more powerful in absence of its competitors.

The prevalence of the capitalism coupled with these driving forces creates a market, which can literally spread all over the world. This market comes with the power as the power percolates from the state to the market and to the actors of the market. 'Today, these (market and globalization) are the overarching international systems. They are virtually shaping the domestic policies and foreign relations of every country (Friedman 1997:7 in Jarvis 2007:40). Jarvis's theory seems to be addressing these interconnected and complex globalization process through a 'global model of societies' (Jarvis 2007). The diagram below represents a simple model but in actual situation, the nature is more complex with overlapping discs and spaces.

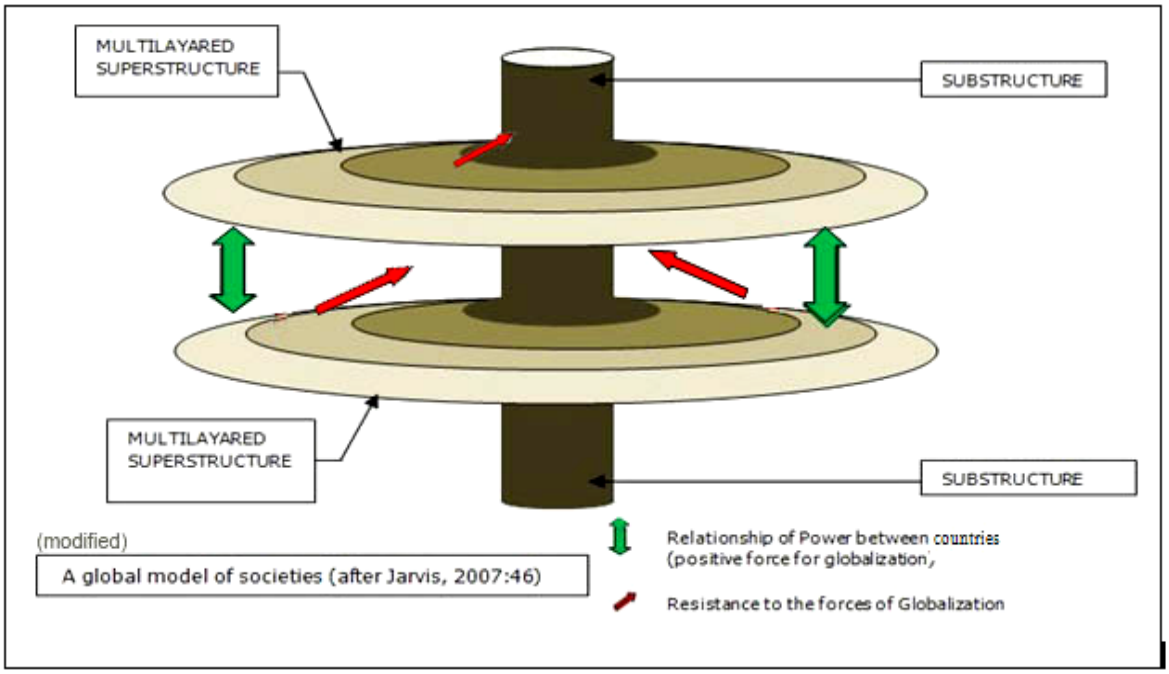


Figure 7: A global Model of Societies (after Jarvis, 2007)

He proposed a 'multilayer model of society', which is placed on a 'global model of societies'. According to the above model, there is a global substructure represented by the core running through all the different countries, which exercise centralized power over each of the countries and works as a force for convergence between the different entities of the world. This core also works as a driving force of each entity consisting of economic system and technology, especially Information Technology (Jarvis 2007:46-49). According to this theory, there are different levels of entities practicing different levels of power and there is also a hierarchy of power streaming from the core to the periphery. Jarvis pointed out that this substructure is mainly under the influence of giant international, transnational companies and in some cases, of some countries.

The large downward arrows show that there is a relationship of power between all the countries in the world, and the small upward pointing arrows show a resisting force to globalization. There is also a hierarchy of power streaming from the core to the periphery and more importantly, it has two-way process where the layers are also

affecting the power running through the core. Although the core criss-crosses the national boundaries; there is competition inside the core as well. This competition generate change in the levels of knowledge, technology and ultimately commodities, lifestyle and spread through each country affected by globalization process. This system is clearly market driven and therefore changes far faster than the other systems like the bureaucracy, administrative structure etcetera. However, one important fact is that the substructure cannot, directly make laws and for that, it needs to reply on the countries or similar entities. Nevertheless, through various market oriented mechanisms, they can effectively convince the countries to make laws in favor of the substructure. Here, it seems important to recall the multidimensional nature of power. Appadurai (2001) shows that, the power is not unidirectional and Lukes (2005) perceived it as a three-dimensional process. Lukes (2005: 29) suggested that power can be exercised over decision-taking and by controlling political agenda, issues, and potential issues, in observable and latent conflict, and in subjective and real interests. This power is exercised form the core to the individual layers of the society and sometimes the national layer does the same to the other subordinate layers.

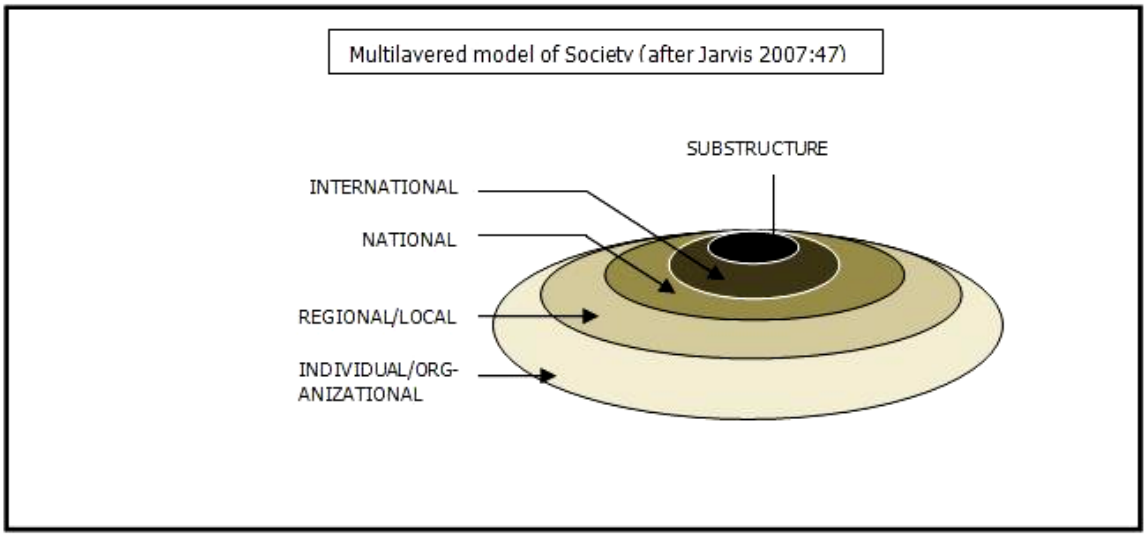


Figure 8: Multilayered model of society (after Jarvis, 2007)

Here, it would be helpful to mention four important points before entering into the main discussion (after Jarvis 2007:48-49).

- Firstly, in the two diagrams presented earlier, the substructure is united and runs through different entities (Jarvis 2007:48) criss-crossing the national boundaries (Beck, 2000 in Jarvis 2007:48). That's why in the core, the competition is global, or international.

- Secondly, these companies and this technological-economic core are protected by the political and military might of some international organizations and

countries (specifically USA, according to Jarvis). Among the major factors, the core controls on the information technology, as well as technology for production among others.

- Thirdly, the core has the power to advertise its products globally, and create a huge global market and maintain a global standard.

- Fourthly, social change does not spread evenly across the globe. It might be due to the political decision to open their national market for the outside world or could be the inability to cope up with this fully competitive system. It could also be due to some internal problems of the country like war or bad government.

Here it is important to mention that the countries are less able to change as fast as the global core and there are countries, poorer in many ways, which are unable to cope up with the changes happening in the core and therefore changing according to the need of the core. The obvious consequences are the increasing differences in socio-economic terms. However, the core, which runs through the countries are not always in a dominating situation. International economic crisis and poor market conditions make the layers (international, national, regional systems) to gain partial control over the core. It therefore works like a chain reaction where each of the layers or discs is affected in case the core confronts some major changes, ups-and downs etc. In addition, there is resistance from different layers of the society and sometimes (rarely) the countries could withdraw any links with the substructure. Therefore, the relation between the core and the periphery is not smooth and power does not flow smoothly form the core to the periphery. It always creates a space for tension that seek to resist globalization. This tension, however, works as a mechanism of movement in this complex globalized system.

This complex mechanism of substructure and super-structure is highly interrelated with the education system, particularly with education policy since the international, transnational or national educational policy-making entities are an integrated part of the development of their spaces in this globalized world. In the words of Bourdieu (1973:84), the educational system fulfils a function of '*legitimation*' which is more and more necessary to the perpetuation of the social order' (in Jarvis 2007:50). This relation is explicitly discussed in Jarvis's next theory where the globalization process is linked with the changing dimensions of LLL.

As per the theory, the core is partly comprised of transnational corporation and other companies trying to sell their product in a global market. There is also the presence of the interests of some countries, or group of countries. However, which factors influence the investment in different countries, especially in developing countries? According to Jarvis (2007:51), there are certain major factors. These include-

- Opportunity to acquire land/plant cheaply;
- An efficient infrastructure; such as good transport system

- A stable government;
- The proximity of raw materials;
- Low taxation and wages;
- Cheap and efficient means of production;
- Educated workforce, flexible workforce which can easily be retrained;
- Opportunities for continuing education for workers;
- A market to sell products.

These investments by the developed world in the developing countries are often welcome as these investments bring foreign capital; provide jobs and more money in the hands of the labors. This money eventually goes into the economy as people spend in the market or deposit their money in banks. This investment enables governments of the poorer countries to deliberately withdraw themselves from some responsibilities like education and health and individuals become responsible for their education and development. This means-

- Government does not need to have to perform in welfare mechanism, and does not need to provide fund to education and learning which was almost obligatory in a welfare state.
- The market creates jobs and needs an educated workforce which must keep them up to date on initial effort and must invest on education.
- The workforce needs to be flexible and can be easily retrained; which
- Provides opportunities for continuing education

However, on the other hand, this pro-market orientation can lead to an increased inequality in the society and can generate increased unemployment. The local protest against these FDIs therefore starts and government faces a dilemma whether or not to fully support the market principles. Now, if the government makes strict regulations for the market to operate freely then it is not difficult for the actors of the market to offshore since they are more flexible, mobile and does not have social responsibilities as a government has. However, government has to listen to the common people as well, since in a democratic system the people have the voting power, which can create tension for the existing government in terms of staying in power. This constant tension influence to make and modify policies, including education policies. Here, one important fact is that, the societies, which are unable to meet the demands of the core, are often lost out (Jarvis 2007:53). Due to the capitalistic nature the investment, it goes away as soon as the profit ends, or remarkably reduced. It also makes the poor poorer and the rich richer. This tension can be seen between the substructure and the national governments.

This model works as a theoretical base for the main analysis related to globalization. This model can also help to analyze the effect of globalization on LLL, when it is linked with the next model (of Jarvis, 2008). The analysis tries to see the socio-economic factors and situations through this model. It is important to mention that while analyzing the effect of globalization; it relates the analysis with the factors,

which are affecting the renewing perspectives of LLL in India. To understand the relation between globalization and LLL, the following section, discusses the second theory in detail. This section is followed by a section, where it shows the synergy between these two consecutive theories by Jarvis (2007and 2008).

General model of social pressures to produce lifelong learning policies (Jarvis 2008)

Based on the previous model (Jarvis, 2007), the new model (Jarvis 2008) shows the dynamic process of lifelong learning in a globalized world. According to Jarvis (2008: 30–33), it can be seen that;

> Lifelong learning opportunities are emanating from different parts of the global social structures and this will result in different forms of lifelong learning. The social forces generate different aims and objectives and these reflect the direction of these forces and will, of necessity be both moral and political. Since each government is the recipient of the forces, the policies and practices it introduces must relate to its exposure to all of these social forces. (Jarvis, 2008: 30–33).

To explain the whole issue, he proposes another model, which explains the dynamic process of forces at different levels (e.g. international, national, regional and local) shaping the perspective of lifelong learning in different contexts. He analyses the complex 'non-neutral' nature of lifelong learning in a globalised world. Jarvis discusses the international, national and regional settings in the context of a particular country. Nevertheless, the model acknowledges that different levels (international, national, regional and local) can influence the perspective of lifelong learning differently in different contexts. According to Jarvis's model, LLL is never neutral and it always occurs within socio-economic and political context. There is certain supporting as well as opposing forces in shaping the perspective of LLL in a certain context. The diagram below (Figure 9) helps to understand this.

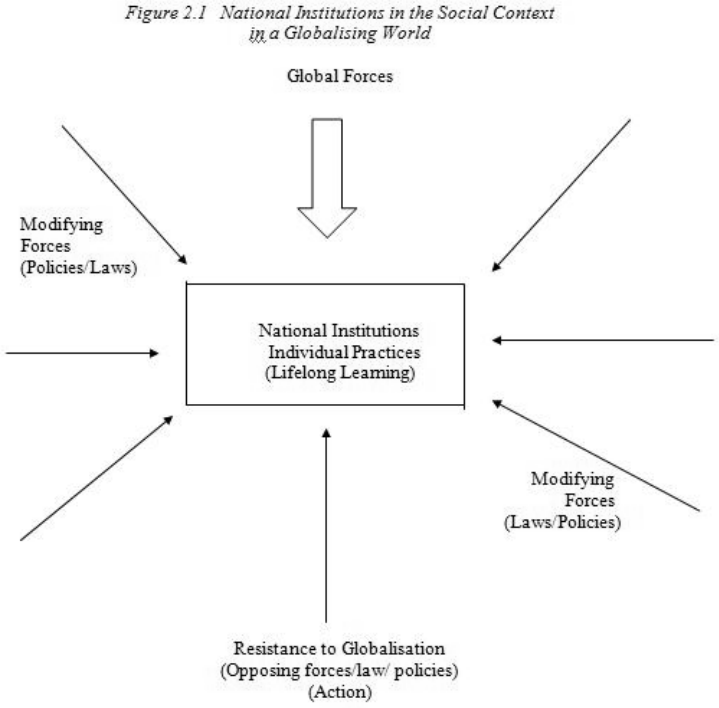


Figure 9: National institutions in the social context in a globalising world (after Jarvis, 2008)

The downward arrows in the diagram stand for the supporting forces (including the big arrow) to globalization and market capitalism. These forces however, vary in degree in different contexts (e.g. in different countries). "Since the change is not universally welcomed and there is resistance to it, the upward arrows depict that forces that in varying degrees oppose the global forces even to the extent of direct action – even terrorist action – as the ultimate form of resistance to the global forces" (Jarvis 2008:31). The resistance to the global capitalism, when demonstrated in a legal way (i.e. staying within the legislation of the society / country etc.), often allows gaps for national systems to percolate deep down to promote the same global capitalism through its policies and laws.

Jarvis (2008) shows that global forces, specifically those, which run through the global core support the global perspective of LLL and try to make it closer to market capitalism and neoliberal ideologies. On the other end, certain factors are there which are hindering the spreading of market capitalism and the global perspective of LLL. The trend towards making policies in support of the market mechanism and at the same time resistance from different layers of the society to the market orientation of the policies could create a situation of tension. There are transnational organizations supporting either sides and sometimes their position changes over time. These transnational policies have immense effect on the national education policies, which helps to change the dimensions of LLL in a country. Habermas (cited in Jarvis 2008: 30) noted that there are two possible responses to globalization at national level- cushioned and catch up. The growth of this substructure can also be influenced as the political and civil society try to 'catch up' with the global economic sub-structure and hope

that the politics will eventually catch up with the runway markets and be able to regulate it. Habermas (2006:1) and Jarvis (2008: 52) call this as 'vague hope'. Nevertheless, it is an effort by the countries and/or different entities to get closer to the substructure also to get the possible benefits. On the other hand, the government realizes that the forces of the global capitalism have been unlashed and cannot be tamed, so they introduce or retain policies that can cushion the effects (Jarvis, 2008: 31-53).

It can be seen that, the supporting as well as the resisting forces to the global substructure and hence, the global dimension of LLL could come from the international, national, regional levels and through policy, society, unions, legislation, organisations, civil societies and in different other forms and ways. In response to these supports, influences and protests, the national government also has to react and these could create an accelerated or slowed down or even delayed output in spreading of the substructure within individual societies. This in turn influences the rate and direction of the changing dimension of LLL in a specific layer of the society, here India (as a country). "It is therefore perhaps over-simple to regard lifelong learning as a single entity within the educational context: the social forces generate different aims and objectives and these reflect the direction of these forces and will, of necessity be both moral and political. Since each government is the recipient of the forces from above and below, the policies and practices it introduces must relate to its exposure to all of these social forces'' (Jarvis 2008: 32). In addition, Rizvi and Lingard (2010) and Jarvis (2007, 2008) point out that lifelong learning or education policy as a whole is a result of a complex set of interactions. Therefore, lifelong learning is 'never neutral and it always occurs within socio-economic and political contexts'.

Jarvis (2008: 58) shows that there are different forces, which are shaping the perspective of lifelong learning. There is also a boundary between the forces, supporting the global or the traditional perspectives of lifelong learning. He also mentions that the boundaries between the forces can be identified clearly. However, it seems that, since society is complex with its very many factors, the 'boundaries between the forces' (Jarvis 2008) may not always be clear in demarking their areas or orientations and there are sub-boundaries inside one society, which Jarvis puts as a single entity. Therefore, they can be with overlapping perspectives and change their nature from time to time. Nonetheless, these types of entities have the capability to influence the policies or its outcomes and how they influence the changing dimensions of LLL in the Indian context, is analyzed later in the thesis.

The next section explores and discusses the methodologies for interviewing, which helps the research to gain better understanding of its area of interests.

Methodology for Interview

The nature of this research is predominantly theoretical and qualitative, with some secondary quantitative data to support the arguments and discussions. It analyzes policies and tries to find out the changing dimensions of lifelong learning in India and its

influence on the recent national policies. The analysis is intended to be based on the analysis of other scholarly works and authors own analysis of policy documents. However, it seems also important to seek for some more empirical data in the form of interviews, as they can provide important contemporary insights, which could help to validate the arguments and help answering the research questions critically. Therefore, the research takes the help of interviews and the following section explains the necessary methodologies and related concerned attributes into account.

Objectives of Interviews

The objectives of interviews here are indeed based on the main research objectives. It intends to find out;

- The reasons for the change in dimensions of LLL in India
- The process of change in dimensions
- The consequences of such change in dimensions
- The influence of the changing dimensions of lifelong learning on the higher educational area, particularly in the higher educational policy domain
- The possible consequences of such changes in the Indian higher educational arena

Here, it seems important to mention that the research intends to find out the opinion of the interviewees, and critically analyzes it further. The main intention is to strengthen its quality through the tool of interviewing. **Therefore, the interviews are used in some specific chapters, as per the demand of the thesis and not in every chapter**.

The methodology of the interviews is divided into two major sections; data gathering and data analysis. The first section discusses the data gathering methodologies and related methods and the following section explains the data analysis methodologies.

Data gathering [interview types]

A major question before the data gathering through interviews is; what type of interview is perfect for policy analysis? This, in turn, opens the discussion to find the rationale for the appropriate type of interviews for this research.

Apparently, there are two kinds of interviews, based on its nature: qualitative and quantitative. Based on their structural context, there are three distinctive divisions, namely, structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews. There are other divisions as well; such as individual interviews, group interviews, focus group discussions, in depth-interviews, life-story interviews and so on. The interview techniques vary from the nature of interviewing samples; such as interviewing children or men, women, older people, people of different race, ethnicity, culture, economic background (e.g. elites) and people from different backgrounds (e.g. medical settings, journalist). The interview methods vary as the mode of data collection varies; such as face-to-face interview, household survey interview, computer assisted interview, postal interview, internet interview and so on. Moreover, all of the above evolve and change with time and are based on the needs and approach of the research (Gubrium and

Holstein, 2002; Fontana and Frey, 2000). Hence, to find out the appropriate method for interview for this study, it needs to consider several criterions.

The quantitative interview is, by its very nature, aims to gather quantitative data/ information or data, which can be quantified. The method used for quantitative data is mostly through structured interviews. In structural interviewing, all respondent are asked the same question in the same order. "There is generally little room for variation in responses except where open-ended questions (which are infrequent) may be used (Fontana and Frey, 2000: 649). In fact, there is very little flexibility in the way questions are asked or answered. Hence, the aim of this research is to find out different opinions and insights, which are mostly quantitative in nature. This rigid and quantitative method is perhaps not perfectly suitable for this purpose. This research rather demands a more flexible approach. However, on the opposite end of the structured interviews, there are unstructured interviewing methods. These can provide a greater breadth of data the other types, given its qualitative nature (Fontana and Frey, 2000: 652). However, it can get overburdened with unnecessary information and can lost track, as the questions are not structured. The 'semi structured' interviews is, on the other hand, an overarching term used to describe a range of different forms of interviewing commonly associated with qualitative research (Mason J. , 2004: 1020). This type of qualitative interviewing and fieldwork are often classified together along with document analysis, as qualitative or interpretive methods (Kvale, 1996:9). These type of qualitative interview is a kind of guided conversation and 'a construction site of knowledge' according to Kvale (1996: 2), where the researcher carefully listens to gain the actual meaning (Rubin & Rubin, 1995:7). The structure of the semi-structured interview, unlike the rigid structured interviewing, is organized around an interview guide. This means, it contains topics, themes and areas to be covered during the interview, rather than a sequenced script of standardized questions. Hence, it allows to discuss/ interview the topic without following the questionnaire rigidly, providing the chance to follow up one or several aspect of the research to different interviewees based on the expertise and/or researchers and interviewees choice. This approach also occasionally help to highlight unexpected themes, as it is related with people's knowledge, understanding, interpretations, experience and interactions (Hollway and Jefferson, 2000; Mason, 2002; Plummer, 2001, Kvale, 1996). Thus, it encourages to ask open-ended analytical questions rather than just the description of any incident. The study of Silverman (2000) shows that for the qualitative research, the open-ended interview apparently offers an optimum opportunity for an authentic gaze into the souls of another and the rhetoric of 'in-depth' interview hints in such collection cases. These aims of the semi-structured qualitative interviewing techniques seem fulfills the demands of this research and initially seems capable of fulfilling the objectives of the interviews as well. Hence, this method is selected for this research. However, there are other things to consider in this regard as well.

The semi-structured qualitative interview intends to execute the interview in a one-to-one or personal setting. This has several reasons. First, this might provide the opportunity to go deeper into the discussion and help emerging new dimensions and/or aspects, which are helpful for the research. Secondly, as Rubin and Rubin (1995) show

that researcher often choose this method as it provides the opportunity to obtain common patterns and themes between particular types of respondents. It is also because of another practical concern. It is often very difficult to organize group interviews as this aims interviewing people from different selected professions, who are extremely busy with their work and often unable to provide time (jointly) for an individual researcher. Keeping these concerns in mind, this research pursues the personal-semi structured-qualitative method for this study.

Here it seems also important to mention that this research does the interviews in a face-to-face way, i.e. by interviewing physically/ (in-person interviewing). To keep a track of the conversation, for better transcription and for the future empirical use of the raw data, it recorded (audio-video) all the interview sessions and are stored them digitally[4].

Data analysis [Interviews]

This subsection discusses few relevant methods for the analysis of the interviews and selects one of them, which seems appropriate for this research.

Similar to what we have seen before, in the incident of data analysis, there are apparently several popular methods available. Some of them are the grounded theory, schema analysis, classical content analysis, displaying concepts and models, analytic induction and Boolean tests, ethnographic decision models etc[5] (Ryan & Bernard, 2000). However, this research selects the 'grounded theory' as the main guideline for analyzing data, for various reasons. Firstly, compared to other type of analytical methods, which are either too structured or casual (e.g. Ethnographic Decision Models, according to Ryan and Bernard, 2000: 787), the grounded theory helps to identify categories and concepts that emerge from text and links these concepts with the formal theories. As the research tries to find traces of the dimensions of changes and its influence on national higher education policies, this method seems quite appropriate. However, as Charmaz (2000, 2002) shows that there are variation in grounded theory. Hence, this study demands a further discussion of the theory itself to explain the appropriate grounded theory for the analysis.

The founder of Grounded Theory Barney G. Galser and Anslem L. Strauss (1967) aimed to develop theories from qualitative data, which can not only conceptualize qualitative data but also demonstrate its relation between conceptual categories. It also involves interviewing techniques, which aims at open up the areas of interests in steps starting from general set of questions to the more specific one. "These methods give researchers tools for analyzing data as well as for obtaining additional focused data that inform, extend and refine emerging analytical themes" (Charmaz 2002: 676). This method of analyzing also fits well with the 'in-depth' qualitative interview method mentioned earlier. Grounded theory method depends on the flexible approach, which is the key for an open ended-semi structured interview. The theory allows to analyze both existing and obtained data to fill the conceptual gaps. The study of Charmaz (2000, 2002) shows

[4] . Will be available upon the requirements and demands of the research evaluation board.

[5] See Ryan and Bernard (2000)) for better insight of all the analysis methods.

that, the grounded theory includes the following strategies: (a) simultaneous data collection and analysis, (b) pursuit of emergent themes through early data analysis, (c) discovery of basic social process within the data, (d) inductive construction of abstract categories that explain and synthesize these processes, (e) sampling to refine the categories through comparative processes, and (f) integration of categories into the theoretical framework that specifies causes, conditions, and consequences of the studied process (Charmaz, 1990, 2000, 2002; Galser and Strauss, 1967 in Charmaz 2002: 677).

Frey (2004) furthur shortened down this strategies into three basic workable categories: coding, memo writing and theoritical sampling. Coding referes to the initial line by line coding of data, which keeps bringing fresh ideas as the analysis pregresses. While coding, it also initates the initial analysis of data and provides the opportunities to view the data form different angles. These initial coding provides the basis of the second set of coding, which are more focused and provide analytical tool to the researcher. It catagorizes the initial coding into smaller groups. The next step is memo writing. Here, the researcher develop his/her analysis in narative from and helps to compare them side-by-side. This prompts researcher to explain which are th most important findings and how and why they are. In a way "writing memos becomes a way of studying data" (Frey, 2004: 443). Memos also help the research to develop comparison between memos and categories and help developing the ideas of how they fit together. The last step is theoretical sampling, where the researcher designes gaps in the codes and categories that needs furthur attension. According to the study, this subsequently leands to theoritical sampling, i.e. gathering more and specific data to make it more precise. Through the combination of coding, memo writing and theoretical sampling, the researcher is able to analyze the data more effectively that establishes the study more grounded in the data (Frey, 2004: 441-444; Lewis-Beck et. al., 2004).

This research aims to achieve its results in a very similar fashion. It aims at gathering existing knowledge and then enhances it with the results from the interviews. It codes the data and then makes smaller but more focused groups by creating important categories. It aims to find prominent themes and social processes of policy formulation and the reasons behind it. By doing it, it creates several abstract categories, which helps the analysis in the LLL and higher education sections to explore the influence of the selected factors which are working at various social levels (according to Jarvis's theory, 2007, 2008). However, it is worth mentioning that not all the steps and strategies are precisely maintained in this research. For instance, the research does recognizes some of the areas which perhaps require more data gathering. However, instead of going to India for a second interview session (which seems difficult in organizing and due to constraines of monetary position, it takes the help of scholarly works, reports and other modes of conversations which are closely related with the interview topics. This helps the research to analyze the situation critically while overcoming some of its limitations.

Charmaz (1990, 2000, 2002) shows that there are two distinctive forms of the 'grounded theory': constructivist and objectivist. The later emphasizes the viewing of data as real or in other words, considers data represent objective facts. However, as this study discusses with a changing concepts, dimensions and their influences, this 'presumed objective'

nature is perhaps not suitable as there are more than one opinion, dimension and concept related to the theme of this research. However, the first form of grounded theory, the constructivist approach, places priority on the phenomena of study and sees both data and analysis as created and shared experience of researcher and participants and researcher's relationship with the participants (Charmaz, 1990, 2000, 2002; Charmaz and Mitchell, 1996). This theory, relates partly with the aims of the study, where it seeks the interview to get better insights of the discussed situation. However, it does not fit entirely, as the fact that the relation between the researcher and the interviewee does not effectively influence in the data collection and analysis. At this point, Charmaz (1990, 2000) introduces another form of the theory, which is leaned towards the constructivist methods. It makes the following assumptions; (a) multiple realities exist, (b) data reflect the researcher's and the interviewees' mutual construction and (c) the researcher, however incompletely, enters, and is affected by participants' worlds.

The research here aims to learn participants' implicit meanings as well to build a conceptual analysis. Therefore, this third approach seems the most relevant among the three, and it is compatible with the aims and objectives of the research closely. Therefore, this study aims to follow this method of grounded theory (by Charmaz, 1990, 2000) selectively, to analyze the interviews as well as use the overall guidelines and principles of this approach for the overall analysis.

Interview Processes - Sample

Because of the special nature of the research, the samples are carefully selected. The selection criterion is related with the main topic and themes of the research. As said earlier, that the topic is LLL and policy analysis and the main themes are LLL and higher education. Hence, it seems important to select the interviewees who are related with policymaking or analyzing and experts in LLL and/or higher education in India as well as aware about the international educational changes. Because of the special nature of the study, it does not consider gender, race, community or age as criterion of sample selection. Rather it is focused on the expertise of the interviewees. For this particular research, it focuses on four distinctive types of samples:

(a) People related with policy making
(b) People related with policy analysis
(c) People related with lifelong learning
(d) People related with higher education

Here, one notable thing is that among the above mentioned selection criterion, some are overlapping, as some of the interviewees are related with policy making as well as analyzing, or some are related with LLL and higher education as well. However, this flexible, interdisciplinary approach could provide the research a unique advantage of acquiring interesting insights.

The selection criterion, however, also considers another aspect. As the research is based on the national level analysis and does not consider analyzing regional or institutional levels, the interviewees are selected based on their contribution and/or working areas,

which is directly related or leaned towards the center. This could be beneficial in gathering a data focused towards the central level changes. However, this does not mean that the interviewees have to be physically settled in the capital of India.

Sample Size and representativeness –

Based on the selection criterion the study interviews thirteen samples or interviewees in total. However, the study initially attempted to interview about twenty samples. Due to various reasons such as unavailability at the final moments, other urgent engagements, disagreement before the interview or due to some unavoidable situations (as per some of the interviewees) eight interviews could not be conducted. The study recognizes that these eight interviews could perhaps add some more insights. However, the rest of the interviews still fulfill the selection criterion and thus complete the basic requirements of the study.

There are three samples, which are related with policy making and analyzing. One of them, the Joint Advisor of the Planning Commission of India, is directly involved with policy making, whereas the other two samples (academics), who are involved in national and international policy advocacy and analysis. There are nine interviewees, who are linked with the field of lifelong learning. Some of them are working/ previously worked at administrative levels, whereas others are experts of different aspects of LLL. Interestingly, one of them is working in the higher education field of lifelong learning and another sample is an administrative head of a civil society. Finally, there are two samples, who are experts in higher education of India and could relate it with the changing discourses of LLL. As said earlier, that some samples overlap their peripheries of expertise and therefore, it could apparently seem that there are more than thirteen samples. To make it clear, below is a list of interviewed samples and area of expertise (in alphabetical order).

Sl. No.	Name	Are of Expertise
1.	Ambasht, N.K	Policy making, policy advocacy
2.	Chand, P	Policy analyst
3.	Farooq, N	Adult learning, non-formal education, literacy
4.	Laxmi Reddy, M.V	Adult education, higher education
5.	Mishra, L	Literacy, Education for All (EFA)
6.	Mohankumar, M.V	Lifelong Learning
7.	Rajesh	Lifelong Learning, higher education
8.	Seth, M	Adult education, innovative learning, lifelong learning

9.	Shah, P	Civil society, lifelong learning, higher education
10.	Shah, S.Y	Lifelong Learning, Policy advocacy
11.	Shamsu, S	Policy Making and advocacy, higher education
12.	Singh, H	Adult education, non-formal learning
13.	Tilak, J.B.G	Higher education

≈ ***Note-*** *all the opinions of the interviewees are personal and they do not necessarily represent the view of their respective organization/institutions. Hence, the institution affiliations are not provided here.*

Interviewing process:

The sampling process is divided in the following steps, based on the above mentioned criterions and methodologies:

1. Preparation of questionnaire
2. Preparation of the letters of invitations
3. Preparation of the agreement of consent
4. Preparation of a brief text explaining the research and interview processes
5. Contacting interviewees and sending the above (1,2,3,4) documents to them
6. Organizing interviews
7. Gathering data and storing of data
8. Follow up- notes, reflections about expectations, strengths, weaknesses and difficulties faced during the whole process
9. Documentation of collected data

Below the above-mentioned processes are explained briefly.

Preparation of Questionnaire- Research questions

Keeping the aims and objectives, the questionnaire is designed in a way, which can represent the opportunities to express analytical opinions. There are two sets of questionnaire prepared, one focused at LLL and the other on higher education. Both these questionnaires are designed keeping in mind the approximate equivalent time allowed in both cases. The questions are mostly open ended along with some initial multiple choice questions to begin the discussion. The main research questions are very much related with the main research questions and objectives of this research.

In the questionnaire of LLL the main aim is to find out what, according to the opinion of the interviewee, is LLL and how is it changing in recent time. It also tries to find out how the interviewee perceives these changes and how it is taking place in their respective sectors. In this regard, it is asked to clarify the major stakeholders/actors behind the changes and the influence of them. To get a deeper understanding, the research asks about how economy/demography/ICT/language influence in changing the dimensions

of LLL and what, could be the major consequences (short and long term) of these changes and why these are so. Finally, the questionnaire asks the interviewees opinion about how practically oriented these changes are for India and opens the floor for the interviewee if he/she wants to add something to the overall discussion. The same line of thought follows while preparing the questionnaire focused towards higher education. The basic idea is however, to know the influence of the changing dimension of LLL on the recent higher education policies. The related intension is to find out how LLL is related with the higher education in contemporary policy scenario. Hence, questions are designed from the beginning to explore what, according to the interviewee, is the understanding of LLL in higher education and in what forms they persist there. To go deeper, the questionnaire introduces the changing global concept of LLL and the influence of globalization in educational changes and asks interviewee's opinion about the same for India. This allows the discussion to more analytical questions where the study would have the possibilities to ask for the actors, reasons and process, which are working behind these changes. In addition, it reflects on some of the unique factors of India, which perhaps not common internationally and invokes the researcher to reflect on these issues critically to find out the dilemmas, contradictions and coping up/ balancing strategies, which might be useful to analyze the influence of the changing dimension of LLL on the recent higher educational policies. It ends with similar open ended question, which offers the researcher to add more on this discussion, which could provide the opportunity to find new insights or chances of more allied questions.

- ***Note-*** *the sample questionnaire is provided in the Annexure (both of LLL and Higher Education). However, it is to note that the actual questions and their order vary relatively as per the actual situation of the interview.*

Preparation of the letter of invitation and agreement of consent; contacting interviewees and sending the documents to them-

This step involves some preparatory work. To finalize who can be potential interviewee, a list has been prepared and initially they are contacted via email or telephone. After their initial confirmation, a second list has been prepared and based on which, letters of invitations and agreement of consents are prepared in both soft and hard copies, with the help of the thesis supervisor. The soft copies are then sent to the potential interviewees as a part of officially inviting them for the interviews.

The invitation letter explains the theme and title of the study and requests the interviewees to cooperate for the event. The agreement of consent is mainly for official records, with signature of both interviewer and interviewee, of which both keeps a copy. The document is also designed to provide both the interviewer and the interviewees the legal safeguards and copyright protection.

- ***Note****- the copy of the letter of invitation and the agreement of consent are provided in annexure.*

Preparation of a brief text explaining the research and interview processes-

In the introduction chapter, it is mentioned that the idea of LLL varies across organizations and individuals and historically (explained in the background study/ state of the art) it is mostly being considered as adult-continuing education practices in a non-formal way. Hence, there is a possibility of the interview to lose its focus to find out the changing dimensions of LLL and its influence on the national level higher education policies and muddle in the discussion of the traditional understandings of LLL only. Therefore, a brief text is prepared to inform the interviewees about the focus, research questions, and what the research expects form the interviews. It is done with the hope that interviewees will provide focused answers and opinions, which could actually be used in the research.

≈ ***Note****- copy of the brief-text is provided in the Annexure section.*

Organizing interviews, gathering data and Storing

The interviews are organized in an in-person and one-to-one basis. The whole interview is audio-video recorded for better storage, better transcript preparation and for future empirical use. The time for each interview is approximately 30 minutes. However, it depends on the length of the discussion, which varies as per interviewees' responses. The questionnaire follows the methods previously mentioned; i.e. the questions are open-ended, asks analytical questions and flexible to include new questions and discussions. It seems important to note that the research intentionally use the word 'discussion' as it perceives the semi-structured interview process in this particular scenario could get better if the interviewer actively takes part and probes new and allied questions to explore the issue/s. However, it seems important to note that throughout the interview session, interviewees are offered to concentrate on explaining and focusing on selected aspects, rather than asking for a general overall opinion. It helps keep the focus while discussing. The questions begin with initial general questions and involves the interviewee in the discussion, then goes deeper into it by asking more specific, focused analytical questions.

However, due to various reasons (mentioned earlier) some of the interviewees refused to provide interview. It is difficult to know the exact reason, why they refused, except to agree on the reasons they provided to the interviewer. Some of the contacted potential nterviewees are the advisors of the Planning Commission and some lead important NGOs in the field of LLL, which work closely with the national government. Some of them are retired experts and academics, who are related with the works of the Planning Commission, National Knowledge Commission or UGC directly or indirectly as advisors or former heads etc. The range of unwilling interviewees does not follow a certain pattern and hence it is difficult to come to even a speculative conclusion about the actual reasons for which they might have refused to provide interview finally.

≈ ***Note-*** *The actual transcripts of the interviews are preserved and will be provided as and when requested.*

Follow up and documentation-

After all the interviews are done, a follow up report is sent to the university (supervisor), mentioning the initial responses, findings etc. The audio-video recorded interviews are transcribed properly and stored electronically for future use.

The responses vary individually and this perhaps provides the research a unique edge to investigate the issue form different stand points. However, some of them focus their discussion almost entirely to the traditional understanding of LLL without going into much details of the changing discourse. This can be consider a drawback or a potential future area of improvement in the interview process, where in addition to the brief-draft explaining the thesis, some more backup documents or further explanation are perhaps needed. Nevertheless, overall, the responses are satisfactory and the interviewees provided important insights for analysis.

Here, it is important to note that the study uses the analysis of the interviews throughout the thesis and thus, there is no additional chapter dedicated to the analysis of the interviews. The findings from the interviews may or may not relate to the policy analysis methodologies stated by the 3P model (by Bhola, 2006) depending on the specific responses. However, it is the hopped that the analysis of the data collected through the interviews would add value to this research while providing insights for further analysis. It is also the hoped that the systematic collection, advanced storing and methodological analysis of data help in future studies and contribute to the world of knowledge and research.

Summary

This chapter lays the methodological foundation of the whole thesis. Based on these methods, the thesis unfolds itself while keeping a focused approach to clearly answer the main research questions. The chapter helps in understanding the overall nature of the thesis and dives deeper into exploring its smaller yet very useful features and patterns, which demands proper methodological approaches for further analysis. The development of each section and subsection are done while keeping summary, synthesis, analysis and authorizing in order. However, sometimes they do overlap partially and this seems normal as the boundaries between literatures are not always distinctly demarcated. Nevertheless, this chapter tries to state every section and sub-section as clearly as possible to provide a clear idea about the different methodologies.

For instance, the 3P or the 'Triple Perspective' model asks key questions to the policy, and the principles of the questions are related to the overall foundation of discourse analysis. This overall foundation is then narrowed down to the Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) model which helps to not only analyze the policy text, but also analyse it through the 3P model. In both 3P and CDA model and in the discussion of policy, the emphasis on power, struggle and tension is noticeable. Along with these, there are certain multi-dimensional, multi-layered and dynamic characteristics of policies. These are consequences of an interconnected and complex society, where many stakeholders and factors are involved in a complex way and influence the policies. The models of

Jarvis (2007, 2008) highlight this complexity while focusing on the changing dimension of LLL, which is the prime focus of the research. The models (2007, 2008) are related and based on the principles of one-another. In This sense, they are complimentary. In addition, they are based upon some of the previously mentioned approaches to globalization. One of them is certainly the exercise of power in making and modifying national policies and direction. The second is perhaps the realization that globalization is from above and below (as defined by corporations, multilateral agencies, policy experts and national governments, civil societies, NGOs and so on), it could contribute to new forms of pedagogy (in the sense of Freire, mentioned in Appadurai, 2001: 19). Jarvis's models relate them together to help projecting the complex picture, yet let it open, like that of the 3P and CDA methods, to analyze the contexts of different angle, without directing it to a certain form(s) of globalization dominated LLL. Finally, the methodologies for the interviews follow a similar pattern of analysis, where it narrows down the responses to main codes, which help the analysis to be done within the context, while letting it open for critical analysis. Overall, these theories, models and analytical methods represent a coherent methodology for the study. It is the hoped that the following chapters are able to represent to follow the methodology and analyze the various aspects of the issue with appropriate methods.

The research therefore follows a strategic and methodological path, which leads the discussion to finally answer its research questions and fulfil the objectives of the research. The next section starts explaining the development so far in the concept of LLL in India. This helps to understand the evolution of the concept and help to analyze it further in present Indian socio-economic condition, which is increasingly being influenced by globalization.

[This page is intentionally left blank]

chapter

3

Lifelong Learning and Allied Concepts

Chapter 3

LLL and Allied Concepts

Introduction

This chapter can be considered as a background study. It discusses the concept of LLL (LLL) and some of the allied concepts and their relations, such as knowledge economy (KE), knowledge society (KS) and globalization. The discussion is mainly theoretical, which helps to provide an initial understanding of the key terms and the possible controversies associated with them. It is therefore an integral part of this research as it seems important to make it clear what this study understands by these terms. It is also important as the study uses these terms often throughout the study.

It is important to note that before the conclusion section of this chapter, some relevant findings from the analysis of the interviews are presented. It may help to understnad the issue discussed in this chapter and follow the main arguments of the study.

The objective of this chapter is to show how these terms are interlinked with each other theoretically and hence capable of influencing each other in policy and/or policy. This understanding may help to understand and critically analyze the issues. However, before dealing with the detailed discussion of the concepts relate with LLL, it seems important to mentions that in India, LLL has largely been considered as 'adult and continuing education' in its common practice. However, there is a theoretical distinction between these two concepts, which seems important to discuss for clarifying the standpoint of this study about LLL. It may also help to initiate the discussion of LLL with a clear theoretical conceptualization. The following section explores it in brief.

From Adult and Continuing Education to LLL

There are two reasons why it seems important to reconsider the existing concept of 'adult and continuing education' and its relation with LLL. The first reason is that, there is an increased importance on LLL in the India in recent years. The second reason is that, although there are several overlapping sections between the concept of 'adult and continuing education' and LLL, there are some basic conceptual and applicable differences between these two. Therefore, this section introduces the discussion of the issue of adult and continuing education and LLL in general, mainly on theoretical level. The evolution of the concept in India, is discussed in detail in chapter four. This section, however, starts with the basic theoretical differences between these terms.

Both 'adult and continuing education' and LLL recognize learning beyond the formal educational system but whereas the first one starts from 'adulthood', LLL carries the rhetoric of a 'lifespan' and incorporates all the dimensions of learning (formal, non-formal, informal etc.). Apart from this literally differences, there are some other differences as well. Leicester and Parker(2001:109-118) show that there are further differences between 'education', 'education for adults,' 'adult education', 'adult learning', 'learning', 'LLL', 'lifelong education' and 'adult and continuing education'. Whereas education opts for a formal and structured system, learning goes beyond these normative meanings and involves all kinds of learning activities taken by the learner. Thus in learning, the focus is on the learner, or in other words it is more personal, consists more of their inner self, it is learner-oriented and mainly depends on their needs and demands. On the contrary, in education, it is largely a top-down process or in other words, comes from outside sources and teaching gets more priority. Adult education, at the same time differs from 'education for adults' as adult education is a distinctive form of education on adulthood which differs from any general education or learning. It also occurs outside the traditional educational institutes through life and life experiences. According to Merizow's transformative learning (Merizow, 1997, 2000) adult learning can be seen as an ongoing process where adults learn throughout their lives and become critically aware of their own tacit assumption and expectations and reflect on life process. In addition, we can probably find a distinct difference between lifelong education and LLL, although they seem quite similar. Lifelong education focuses towards a structural (or semi-structural) setup and connects itself with provision of education and related facilities. LLL, on the other hand, also focuses on individual and on informal processes (and others) of learning and relates more with acquisition of knowledge, skills etc. Moreover, LLL carries notable differences from learning itself. Because it refers to a comprehensive and meaningful learning, includes all ages, systems and includes the liberal, vocational and social aspects, it could be inferred that LLL carries a more practical and desirable connotation than that of learning as learning alone could also mean learning negative and undesirable things (such as learning how to still).

These differences mentioned above could rather be considered as literally differences irrespective of the specific context or temporal scale. It is also plausible to use the same term in a broader sense. We can probably argue that 'education has always stretched beyond the limits of formal schooling and university education' (Jarvis 2007:64) and evolved in new forms while keeping the same name. In this way, the idea of inferring LLL and adult and continuing education in India as more or less similar thing, could be justified. However, it could also be asked that; in this case, is LLL a paradigm shift or new cloths for adult and continuing education, especially in India? There are specific discussion about this in later chapters in relation to the specific context of this study. However, it seems important to explore more about the concept of LLL, as it seems more than just its literal meaning.

Introduction of the term – LLL

LLL is a much-used word today in a wide variety of contexts and the meaning is somewhat unclear in a changing world (Field, 2006). Some of the concepts related with LLL are being introduced in the very first chapter of this thesis. However, it seems worth repeating that LLL is also a highly used term in national and international policy world. It is often been related with democracy, socio-economic development and as a tool for promoting 'Knowledge society' and knowledge economy[6]. As a result, there are several definitions and explanations of LLL at the moment and each one seems appropriate in its own environment (Longworth and Davies 1996:21). Some define it as a beautiful and simple idea, where people learn throughout their lives (Field 2006:1). Some others define it as a means of getting the economic benefit in present era. In natural science, research shows that kids start to learn even before they are born. This learning continues until one dies; and we learn through informal, formal and non-formal ways. This discourse of learning 'from cradle to grave' is deeply rooted in the concept of LLL and has been modified and re-modified to describe from specific philosophical issues to very specific economic needs[7]. There are also differences of application and meaning of the term LLL by different political entities and within 'north-south'[8] geographical divisions of the World[9] (Anonuevo 2002).

LLL, by its concept, is also broader than the traditional definition of 'education' as education is being considered as an integral part of LLL. In fact, LLL includes a whole range of learning activity from formal to non-formal and informal learning, training, on-job training and so on. It is perhaps, could therefore be understood that the term LLL can carry different notions and it is very dynamic in nature. Therefore, it would be overambitious to present a single and standard definition of LLL. Rather this chapter tries to see the differences of concepts and changes and tries to establish a much clearer standpoint for the present perspective of LLL, which in turn would help to understand the contemporary Indian perspective of LLL better.

Definitions and ideas of LLL

In spite of the complex and dynamic nature of LLL, Peter Jarvis (2007), in his book *Globalization, Lifelong Learning and the Learning Society: Sociological Perspectives* defined LLL. He defines it as a 'process'. In his words;

> Lifelong learning is the combination of processes throughout a lifetime whereby the whole person –body (generic, physical and biological)- experiences social situations, the perceived content, which is then transformed cognitively, emotively or practically (or through any combination) and integrated into the individual persons biography

[6] See following sections for more discussion on 'knowledge society'.
[7] *See Jarvis (2007) Globalisation, LLL and the Learning Society: sociological perspective for more examples.*
[8] Concept championed by UNESCO
[9] *See chapter 7 for more discussion on difference concepts of LLL by different political entities.*

> resulting in a continually changing (or more experienced) person (Jarvis 2007:1).

This approach is focusing more to an individual's process of learning. However, different perspectives would have produced different definitions of LLL and would see the functions of LLL in different ways (Jarvis 2007:16). . Richard Bagnall defines four major functions of LLL:

- The preparation of individuals for the management of their adult lives(White 1982: 132)
- The distribution of education throughout an individual's lifespan (Kulich 1982)
- The educative function of the whole of one's life experience (Pena-Borrero 1984)
- The identification of education with the whole of life (Begnall 1990 in Aspin2007:19-20)

The learning of human being is often defined differently and creates an obvious debate among different philosophical schools and ideologies. However, this chapter does not focus on the philosophical understandings of 'learning' or the different processes of learning by different schools of thoughts or methods, since the discussion of philosophical definitions is not the main aim here[10].

However, there are also different social and cultural dimensions of LLL. According to John Field, "LLL is also a way of thinking about structuring our societies approach to education'' (Field 2006:1). When LLL is defined from a social point of view, it becomes more related to the present changes, challenges and works as a key factor for socio-economic development. LLL is then being seen more as a tool to achieve certain social goals considering the present situation, which directs that learning could be used for achieving certain goals. In the following paragraphs and chapters, this issue has been discussed further.

The definition of LLL, proposed by Norman Longworth and W Keith Davies (1996:22), works as a kind of working definition, where each word is chosen for its meaning and impact. This definition also highlights the socio-economic aspects of LLL. According to this definition LLL is;

> The development of human potential through a continuously supportive process which stimulates and empowers individuals to acquire all the knowledge, values, skills and understanding they will require throughout their lifetime and apply them with confidence, creativity and enjoyment in all roles, circumstances and environments (Longworth & Davies, 1996:22)

[10] See Jarvis, P (2006, 2007, 2008); Gustavsson, B (2002); Ryan, J and Louie, K (2007); Aspin, D (2007) ; Aspin, D and Chapman, J (2000), Aspin, D, Chapman, J, Hatton, M and Sawano, Y (2001) for more discussion on the philosophical issue of LLL.

- The word '*process*' here implies to the idea that learning is a personal activity, which takes place within or without a supportive group environment.
- '*Stimulates*' here actively and positively promotes learning as a pleasurable and rewarding experience and gives the message that everyone is both eligible and welcome.
- '*Empower*' puts the power in the hands of the individual to develop his or her own potential through learning.
- '*Individuals*' *acknowledge* that this is the individual who makes the decision, make efforts and benefit from the learning process.
- '*Knowledge*' is the interpretation of information which gives it a greater meaning by placing it in a learning continuum leading to wisdom.
- '*Values*' refers to a positive approach to the continuing development of individual potential through learning, and encourages people to recognize that potential.
- '*Skills*' enable learning to be turned into action, equally applicable to the workplace and to social activities.
- '*Understanding*' refers to the breakthrough in personal comprehension which often, but not always, results from the application of knowledge and skills.
- '*Throughout the lifetime*' literally refers to learning from cradle to grave or in other words, learning as long as one wishes.
- '*Confidence, creativity and enjoyment*' will make learning a worthwhile and continuous activity.
- '*All roles, circumstances and environments*' emphasize both the educational and social aspects of LLL *(after* Longworth and Davies, 1996:22,23).

There are, in fact, several other important definitions of LLL as well. However, it can be said that these definitions of LLL are focused towards its applicability and importance in the present world. For instance, the cultural aspect is considered important in the present discourse of LLL. In spite of the obvious diversities, we can call the contemporary culture characterized by technologically induced globalization of power, wealth and information (Begnall in Aspin et al 2001:40). In this rather 'fluid' concept of culture (Jarvis: 2007), societies are much more prone to interact with each other and share ideas, economic relations and so on. Individual, in general, are more cosmopolitan and hence more mobile and poses a rather diluting individual identity (Giddens 1991). Power, at the same time does not lie exclusively in the hands of the Sate. In contrary, it spreads across a variety of layers and actors of the society. Market, transnational organization and autonomous bodies are just to name a few of them. In this complex and dynamic cultural context, LLL focuses more on human development, rather than its traditions and histories. 'There is, therefore a discounting of history, and of disciplinary knowledge and learning, together with a general de-differentiation of cultural institutions and distinctions of all sorts' (Castells 1997). Several analysts have mentioned that due to this changing nature of culture and cultural aspects, individual interests come to define good society and as a whole, the aim of LLL becomes more individualized (Taylor 1997, Boshier, Wilson & Qayyum 1999 in Aspin,D et al 2001: 41).

It is therefore seen that by definition, LLL is more encompassing than its literal meaning. Even considered theoretically, it expands more than the concept of 'adult and continuing education'. However, LLL and adult and continuing education have been considered almost synonymous in India for long[11], but it seems started to change only recently. This issue is discussed in the following chapter in detail.

Importance of LLL

Worldwide, much of the policies are highlighting LLL as a way to build its desired society, nations, continent etc. Chapman and Aspin (1997) explained the nature of LLL and showed LLL is important for:

- Economic progress and development,
- Personal development and fulfillment,
- Social inclusiveness and democratic understanding and activity.

One of the milestones document in this regard is the Delors Report (Delors, 1996) : *Learning the Treasure Within* by UNESCO[12]. It mentions four major pillars of LLL. These four pillars lie in the heart of this document and visualize a strong importance of LLL throughout the world. These are-

- Learning to know- from broad general knowledge to subject specific knowledge,
- Learning to do - to acquire skill and competence to live, work and development,
- Learning to be – to develop one's own personality and autonomous identity, and
- Learning to live together – to work and live interdependently (Delors 1996: 86-97).

There are possibly other important areas and sub-areas of LLL defined by several authors looking at it from different angle. Some relates it with the process of '*bildung*'[13] (in German) and other anti-elitist movement promoting integration of national and local culture (Rasmussen 2006:172). Some see it as a key mechanism for social-cohesion and active citizenship (e.g. in European Union (EC) documents) and some see it as a potential power to control the global market (Jarvis 2007, 2008). However, in spite of its varied connotations, why has LLL become so important in the present context? Answering to that question Longworth and Davies (1996) mention eight major global changes. These are:

- Influence of science and technology
- Restructuring of industry
- Global demographics
- Influence of television and other media

[11] See later section for more discussion on the difference of understandings.
[12] See chapter 5 for more discussion on the UNESCO's perspective of LLL.
[13] Meaning – education and formation refers to the tradition of self-cultivation.

- Changes in the nature of work
- Focus on the individual
- Environmental imperatives
- New global power and structures

According to them, there are four global trends for enabling LLL. These are:

- Increased use of education technology, tools and techniques
- Greater use of national and international networks
- Development of cooperative and two way partnerships
- Development of Learning Organizations and individual empowerment

(Longworth and Davies, 1996: 24 -32).

It shows that LLL is relevant to many stakeholders ranging from international to local levels. Moreover, the emphasis on 'learning' seems highly significant, because it reduces the traditional preoccupation with structures and institutions and instead focuses on individual. As individuals are responsible for their own learning and up-gradation, the state or the government becomes less responsible for providing education for its citizens. However, it is government's responsibility to provide more options for learning in different ways. From the individual point of view, it equips people to make their choices and to salvage the conditions that make choice available and within our power (Bauman 2005: 128). It also puts importance on the demand based learning, where government is less responsible to safeguard its' citizens as citizens are choosing their learning fields on their own. This realization of LLL, thus, depends on a large degree on the capacity and motivation of individuals to take care of their own learning (Tuijnman & Brostrom, 2002:102 in Rubenson, 2006:162).

This radical idea of self-directed learning through one's whole life becomes highly significant because it depends upon the input and commitment of actors from all walks of social and economic life. Some of the most important points are:

- Linking LLL to the needs of the knowledge based economy and society;
- Emphasizing the necessity of new basic skills to live and work;
- Securing access to learning throughout the life course;
- Recognition of adult's non-formal learning and qualifications;
- Emphasizing on the use of ICT in LLL

(Rasmussen, 2006:176).

The emphasis on learning rather than on education is another highly significant issue because, as mentioned earlier that, learning reduces the traditional preoccupation with structures and institutions, and instead focuses on individual. It is more outcome oriented and place the learner at the heart of learning process[14]. The learner is supposed to learn and improve him constantly with the changing world. Here, the

[14] See chapter 5, for more discussion on the importance of learning over education in international context.

concept of LLL is almost clearly linked with the notion of knowledge economy, knowledge society, learning society and globalization[15]. However, it is worth mentioning, at least theoretically, that promoting economy is not the sole motto of LLL. The values such as 'equality' and 'equivalence' is also deep rooted in the concept of LLL. Democracy is another intertwined issue with LLL and economy, since the assumption is that a stable democracy is needed for a stable economy. In this regard it could be said that there is a trend of over-simplify LLL into just a tool to achieve economic success which relates it with the notion of market-capitalism. Theoretically, it rather depends on different levels of importance in different sectors of the society based on its socio-economic, political and educational status. There is more discussion on this issue in letter chapters.

Form the above discussion, it can be seen that, for an individual, LLL can work as a tool for personal fulfillment. It creates opportunity for individual to learn and up-grade themselves to stay competitive and make them flexible and more adaptive learners in different situations. For the government, LLL could bring socio-economic development, social inclusion and make them less responsible for the education of its citizens. For the economy, it introduce a platform where people can or need to learn new things constantly and update their knowledge which in return would generate more benefit as these learning are skill and competency oriented. For the civil society it promotes learning organizations and a progressive society. In other words, theoretically, LLL can fulfill the mandate of the individual, the state, the society and the market (Jarvis, 2007, 2008; Rubenson, 2004, 2006). However, things are inevitably more complex in practice and it can be argued that LLL is 'never neutral' and always occurs within a socio economic and political context' (Jarvis 2008:58). It has many dimensions, e.g. religious, political, but it is also economic and social etc. It does not only focus on one dimension at one time, rather it is a multidimensional, multi-focal and multitasking concept, which has evolved over time and revamped recently. Therefore, the section below discusses one of the major dimensions of LLL, which helps to understand the multidimensional aspect better.

Life Long and Life-Wide Dimensions of LLL

Do we learn only in one direction; or our learning activity spreads across different areas, subjects and borders; consisting of various methods and institutions, in formal, non-formal and other ways? Answering to this question means further questioning the term LLL, however, perhaps not to its theoretical understanding, rather to its expansion. It can therefore, be asked: why it is only life-long when we learn not only as long as we live, but also different things at different stages of life and learn it rather differently? This could be the starting point to introduce another very important and integrated issue of LLL, which is the life-wide learning. Whereas LLL literally represents an individual's learning throughout life and upgrading himself\herself in a continuous process of learning; life-wide learning represents another dimension, which indicates that learning is not unidirectional. It happens in various environments and in various ways. The

[15] See later section for more discussion on the key concepts related to LLL.

simple diagram by the National Agency of Education, Sweden (2000:19) could be useful to understand the concept better[16].

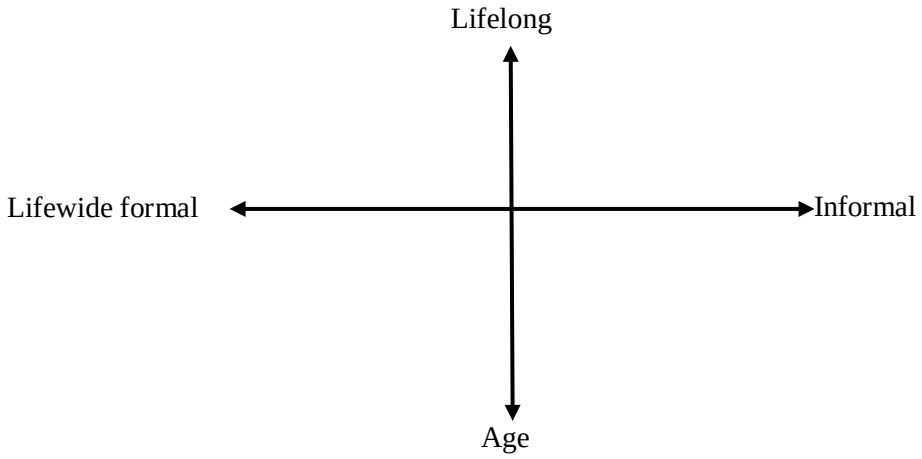


Figure 10: a conceptual framework for LLL. Source- National Agency of Education, Sweden (2000:19)

This simple model (Figure 10) shows the dimension of life-long in vertical(Y) axis, which is related with the level of learning, skill, competence etc. On the other hand, the horizontal (X) axis shows the life-wide dimension where varieties of learning setups are given priority. It also signifies different ways of learning (formal, non-formal and informal) and learning in different environments (formal education, labor market, civil society and so on. The concept of LLL coupled with life-wide learning can add more value to the entire concept. 'The life-wide dimension brings the complementarity of formal, non-formal and informal learning into sharper focus' (European Commission (EC), 2000:9). It also signifies that the formal, informal and non-formal sectors should work together effectively to build bridges; horizontally between different sectors and vertically between different levels of a sector. To make more collaboration between universities and industries would be a valid example in this regard and recently this issue is being highlighted in Indian policies[17]. Life-wide learning also promotes the notion of active learners, who learns different things and within a permeable learning system and across boundaries. This also implies involving a new dimension of effective teaching. However, it is perhaps notable that the actual concept of life-wide learning is although an integral part of LLL, but it is more complex in the real world, indeed. Nevertheless, the key concepts related with LLL could partly help to understand how complexly related they are.

[16] See National Agency of Education, Sweden (2000) LLL and Lifewide Learning; for more detailed description of this issue.
[17] See chapter 7,8, 11 and 12 for more discussion.

Key Concepts Related to the Present Discourse of LLL

As a part of the complexity LLL carries, it can be interlinked with several other key concepts. In the previous section, we have seen that human capital, social-cohesion, learning society, knowledge society, knowledge economy and globalization are intertwined with the term LLL. LLL is also related with terms like basic education, literacy, post literacy, continuing education, adult education, vocational education and training and so on. This section, however, discusses only the newly emerged terms in relation to LLL as there are several well researched and standardized definitions of the traditional terms available. Here, it is important to mention that there are ongoing changes in meaning and value within these traditional concepts. Some of these issues are discussed in later chapters as well.

The idea of relating learning and knowledge with LLL is quite explicable. It could emerge from an assumption that Knowledge can only be produced and developed thorough learning (formal, non-formal and informal). In the contemporary discourses of LLL, there are however, two terms, which probably gain maximum importance. These are 'Knowledge Economy' and 'Knowledge Society'. This section explores these along with the aspect of globalization and focuses specifically on economic globalization, as it is mentioned throughout the study. It also seems important as the present idea of LLL is almost always been linked with globalization in a rather straightforward way. The section below, therefore, starts with the brief description of 'Knowledge Economy' and 'Knowledge Society'. This discussion is followed by a short discussion of the concept of globalization. It ends up showing the importance of LLL in the present phase of globalization, and shows the relationship between globalization, KE and LLL in contemporary time.

Knowledge Economy, Knowledge Society and Learning Society

'Knowledge economy' or 'Knowledge based economy' is broadly defined as a new kind of post-industrial economy where knowledge is considered as a raw material for production of services as well as a product. In simple terms, knowledge economy refers to "economies, which are directly based on the production, distribution and use of knowledge and information'' (OECD 2002). The idea of the knowledge economy originally appeared as a result of new trends and new types of data in the economy (Machlup 1962). In the mid 1990s, the concept evolved to refer to two supposed characteristics of the new economy:

- Firstly, knowledge is more quantitatively and qualitatively important than ever before, and,
- Secondly, applications of information and communication technologies are the drivers of the new economy. (Godin, 2003).

There are different opinions and knowledge economy is still a highly contested term. However it can be said that this 'knowledge' is mainly related with the new generation of hi-tech innovation and growth of business due to efficient Information Communication Technology (ICT). It is related with globalization, since knowledge is

not only needed to invent some cutting-edge technical products or services; it is also needed to use those services and products. Therefore, theoretically, knowledge is important for all the sectors of the present society.

Knowledge economy, therefore seems carries a great significance for LLL. Nowadays, knowledge is considered as the central, indeed intrinsic component of economic production and activity […]. Knowledge can be produced not only by creating human capitals, but also by including dispositions of individuals important economically. […] Within this knowledge economic goals; education is thus given priority over its other purposes (Rizvi & Lingard 2006: 252). Describing KE, the World Bank mentioned;

> Knowledge, and the ability to create, access and use it effectively, has long been a tool of innovation, competition and economic success, and a key driver of economic and social development more broadly. Yet several dramatic changes in recent years have fundamentally increased the importance of knowledge, and the competitive edge that it gives to those who harness it quickly and effectively.
>
> (Final Report of the Knowledge Economy Forum, World Bank & EC, Paris, 2002)

This increasing importance on Knowledge as a means of economic benefit was identified mostly in developed countries as their service sector creates a massive demand for educated and trained brains. In this post-modern and post-industrial society, Knowledge is playing a major role. That is why, Knowledge is increasingly considered as a commodity (EC 2002). Daniel Bell (1973) mentioned that Knowledge is fundamental resource of post-industrial society and the post-industrial society, it is clear, is a knowledge society (Bell, 1973). For the emergence of this new kind of economic era, modes of economic activity has been changed from industrial mode of development to a new kind of Post industrial and Informational or Knowledge intensive economic development (Castells, 2000). According to new growth economics, a country's capacity to take advantage of the knowledge economy depends on how quickly it can learn new and relevant things and use efficiently in the market. According to the European Commission (EC); the major driving forces are:

- Extraordinary progress of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT),
- Increased speed of scientific and technological advance,
- Increased global competition, facilitated in part by reduced communication costs, changing demand associated with rising incomes, and the changes in
- The changes in tastes and attitudes to leisure that come with greater prosperity.

The concept of KE shows that it is a key term in the modern era related with the technological innovation, changing nature of work and organization and more with learning new and effective things pointing towards economic development. Here we can introduce the concept of knowledge society or knowledge based society. It is a theoretical concept, which starts with the assumption that "society as a whole is shifting to knowledge-intensive activities" (David and Foray, 2001:2) and eventually creates a society, which is based on knowledge. India, at the same time wants to be a knowledge society (NKC, 2007) and eventually become a knowledge producing society from a knowledge consuming society (Singh, 2005). The whole idea of knowledge society stands on another concept, which is often termed as 'learning society'. Edgar Faure (1972) in his report to UNESCO, mentions the goals of education as 'scientific humanism, social commitment towards being completely human in a Learning Society. This calls for a values dimension in education and society, science with a conscience and technology with a human heart at the service of humanity. It points to the holistic and integrated education of the human in a learning society' (UNESCO, 2002: 155). This rather utopian aspiration (Aspin 2007:6) is mainly based on philosophical notion of building a model society. Later, it was modified by the European Commission to make it concrete and achievable. By doing that, Commission in its white paper (EC, 1995), narrowed down the aims of 'learning society' and emphasised more on economy. The commission argues for 'providing access to everyone to a broad base of knowledge and to build up their abilities for employment and economic life' (EC 1995). However, the Delors Report (1996) emphasises again on the concept of learning society by saying that 'It (learning society), is based on a code of knowledge-sharing and on learning experiences created by the unrestricted interpersonal relations that globalization makes possible, seems bound to encourage the emergence of post- materialistic values' (Delors, 1996:44).

Holford and Jarvis (2000: 644-649) emphasised on four models of learning society[18]. One of them is oriented towards a futuristic society and promotes liberal education and government provided system. The second and third models, which view learning society as a reflexive society and as a consumable commodity, rather express it as an uncontrolled mechanism and responsive to the changes in the society and to the market. The planned learning society, which is the fourth model, tries to make a balance and accepts that learning is not automatic and it has to be encouraged and supported. Holford and Jarvis mentioned it as the ''third way'' to the learning society (Holford and Jarvis, 2000:649). These models are being practices in policy and planning, adult and continuing education, teaching, learning, and other different sectors in various ways. Apparently, the idea of a learning society is welcome to build a better society, but as many (Beck, 1992; Giddens, 1990; Jarvis, 1999, 2007; Holford and Jarvis, 2000) have expressed their thoughts that there are downsides in each model and more specifically in every solution they provides. Probably, one of main reason is that, since LLL is repeatedly being related with globalization, technological progress, market and similar

[18] See Holford, J and Jarvis, P (2000) The Learning Society in Wilson, A.L and Hayes, E.R (2000) Handbook of Adult and Continuing Education for the four models of learning society.

'heavy-weight' and dynamic issues, it carries along fragile and sensitive character which it.

From the above discussion, we can recognize that the interpretation and possible consequences, of LLL and its allied concepts are in many cases, depend on the way something is being interpreted, analyzed, modified or re-interpreted. These differences in vantage points are visible in the concepts of knowledge economy and knowledge society as well. The next section continues with the discussion of globalization as an important concept, often interlinked with LLL.

Globalization

Globalization is probably the most used word along with LLL. In the present circumstances, globalization can be termed as a 'multi-domain, multilevel phenomenon' (Stromquist 2002:1). Many studies emphasize at the technological features, which play a great role in reshaping the traditional conceptualization of time and space and configures social relations (Castells 1996, 1997; Stromquist 2002:2). Some intend to focus on the way of processing of ideas and flow of people, which is creating new and hybrid forms of culture that articulates the local with the global (Apadurai 1990, 1996; Castells 1996, King 1991). Some used to focus on the political aspect of globalization whereas other focuses on the forces, which shape the globalization (Arrighi and Silver 2000 in Stromquist 2000). There are confusions related to the type of globalization as well. Is it economic globalization or is it technological? Even there are confusion related to the term; whether it should be called globalization or internationalization. The debate also centres on the point whether the globalization is old or new (Bhola 2006). Therefore, different definitions and explanations have come up depending on each distinct position. This different definitions often tries to ask what globalization is and what forces produce it, depending on their disciplinary lenses (Stromquist 2002:2).

It can however, be recognized that the intense and constant movement of goods, jobs and capital that constitute globalization creates political, socio-economical, cultural and environmental consequences. In a rather simple way, it can be said that it is difficult to give an all-encompassing definition of globalization, since it has multiple perspectives--- economic, technological, political and so on. However, in the present phase of globalization, certain features can be identified, which are worth discussing in detail. Those are:

- New technologies, which allow for new forms of communication and organization
- New ways of organizing production and capital accumulation
- Social and Political changes including the shift of focus from the social to the individual
- Changes in employment market; and
- New meaning and role for learning.

The discussion of the above mentioned factors are discussed further, which could reveal the connection between the present phase of globalization and LLL. It could

also help to get an overview of some of the key terms, which are used with high importance.

New technologies, which allow for new forms of communication and organization

In the last few decades, the technological revolution has achieved a new height. The hi-tech and cutting-edge technological revolutions have uplifted the communication system not just at a new level, but also at a new generation. The enormous progress in science and technology bring new ways of communication like satellite telephones, internet, e-mail, and all sorts of virtual services, which are now changing the existing analogue system of communication with a whole new generation of digital set of communication systems based on nanotechnology. This tech-revolution also allows many ICT based services to offshore as they become more fluid and easily transportable. There are however, three major features of this modern technological revolution:

a) *It is faster* – a lot faster than the traditional communication system;
b) *It is cheaper* – compare to the previous system, it is a lot cheaper;
c) *It is easier* – it is easier to install, operate, maintain and replace

Due to these remarkable technological developments, new kinds of organizations emerge. Software companies, web based companies, consultation companies and a variety of service based companies are emerging due to the technological improvement. Existing organizations are also changing. They are adopting the new technologies quickly. There are changes in primary economic sector as well. It is largely tertiary technology oriented and information based. In a society, these changes create a new type of demands. It is a demand of knowledge, which demands to understand, operate and upgrade the existing system etc. at a constant manner and upgrade them with the changing technological scenario.

New ways of organizing production and capital accumulation

Due to the technological development, and the emergence of new kinds of organizations; it is now possible to see different modes, ways, and techniques to organize production all over the world. The impacts are profound in the material goods production as well. The global assembly line is literally changing the way of production system being perceived within a national system. It is also related with capital accumulation in more efficient and professional ways. Products and services are produced from any place in the world depending on its maximum cost benefit. For both supplier and consumer countries, it is apparently a win-win situation, however more complex in real scenario. Nevertheless, at least theoretically, it generates employment, boost the national economies of the goods or service exporting countries and give them a control over a share of the global production line. This concept is related with the concept of market capitalism since global business can be easily operated in an open market based on pure competition.

Social and Political change including the shift from the focus from the social to the individual

Andy Green (2006:196) shows the example of modern global societies, where it is becoming more pluralistic. In terms of their lifestyle and values, there is a greater individual diversity since individuals are free to make their own choice. It is so, because along with this globalized production line and the demand for the skilled labours the traditional work culture is diminishing. The new kind of work demands individualized brainpower rather than a community of organized labour. These demands help individuals to move away from the traditional class structure (Jarvis et al 2003) and form a new kind of structure, which is based on individual skills and competences.

In fact, the increased mobility of the individuals is capable of making societies truly cosmopolitan in nature. 'The sharp divides between communities based on region, class, religion and language have arguably decreased leading to greater social uniformity' (Green 2006:197). This 'indvidualization' (Jarvis et al, 2003) has a number of consequences for the nation, for societies and for individuals. First, it changes the traditional way of working of the labour organizations. Secondly, it puts huge importance on the necessary skills needed for increasing employability; and more importantly, it helps changing nature of employment market by putting a completely new set of requirements[19]. In short, he learning starts to demand its importance outside the traditional form of education and shifting within the present trend of individualization (Green, 2006:196).

Changes in employment market

In spite of the technological progress, people have to work within a setting of time and space, which is already there. However, it is changing. For example, Indian call centres, which provide services to the US citizens has to literally perform in Indian time and space setting but also need to change it virtually to a US time frame. Thus, globalization brings the notion of the work culture which is popularly termed as ''work 24X7''[20]. It indicates the possibility to utilize every moment as working hours. This notion of working 24X7 is different from that of the traditional daily routine job format.

Moreover, nowadays employment demands multitasking ability as a basic skill. This 'multitasking ability' demands more flexibility as well as a multi-dimensional attitude since one has to perform many roles in a certain or different working environment at the same time. As the work culture has been changing from mechanical works to a more knowledge-based work, the level of performing various roles at the same time is at high demand.

[19] See Jarvis et al (2003) for more discussion on individualization.
[20] Working round the clock.

New meaning and role for learning

All the above features and their sub-sections have profound impact on changing the role of learning. The technological advancement, ICT, better and cheaper communication brings the opportunity to experience new kinds of organizations, which are, by nature, global or international. These changes in the way of operating economy come into play not only because of the technological revolution; it is also because of the new and complex nature of capital accumulation, which invents different techniques. For the traditional education sectors, it brings the following major changes:

- Education, although still and will be mentioned, is gradually being replaced by the notion of learning. Modern technology helps learning by promoting access to flexible education, which is changing the concept of classroom teachers and books.
- Educational institutions are marketing their course.
- Emphasis is placed on acquiring modern skills and competencies to stay competitive.
- Individualization is increasing.
- Learning is being related with economic success, since the economy is becoming more knowledge based.
- Policies at national and international levels are supporting these changes related to education domain in order to promote personal, local, national, or international economic and other development.

In the most technologically advanced states, the education system is losing its monopoly on information transmission, as the media, commercial software and the internet, all offer access to information (Lauder et al, 2006:57). The technological revolution provides the option of online education, which has potential to replace the role of the teacher in the classroom with a virtual platform where students can learn on their own with the help of software and in some cases, with facilitators. At higher education level, this technological revolution may introduce a substantial decoupling of learning from institutional space (Green 2006:194). Universities are having online degrees and diplomas and even some universities are performing totally at a virtual level. These changes help to inject a new perspective in the education arena; i.e. learners are responsible for their own learning since it is happening in the absence of the state interference.

With the changing dynamics of globalization, learning is playing a major role in today's society. The demand for flexibility and multi-dimensionality drives the issue of learning where learning those skills and competencies are almost up-to the individuals' responsibility. The reason is, it is very difficult for any institution to change its system as fast as the changing technology. However, what these institutions can do is to help the students to 'learn how to learn'. This is considered as a core competency in today's developed world (TUNING 2008). Globalization also brings changes in today's conceptualization of education and learning. Along with the demands for skills and competencies, it acknowledges the importance of human

brain as it is the main motor in today's economy. For economy, globalization brings a completely new perspective based on modern age technology and new-ways of capital accumulation. For the society, it brings the individualization in contrast to the existing class system. For education, it brings several demands and challenges, which help the learning paradigm to be more important and prominent than the traditional concept of state owned education system.

Relevant discussion based on the analysis of the interviews

The first intention of the interview was to find out how the interviewees perceive LLL in general terms. By analyzing the responses, it can be seen that all have agreed that the meaning of LLL is all encompassing and consists of learning processes form cradle to grave. However, there are exceptions. Prof. S.Y. Shah, mentioned that the concept is somewhat unclear in this changing circumstances and people define LLL differently in different circumstances. This is an interesting finding, as the changing the research also seems indicating towards a similar concept that LLL in India is somewhat not standard. Mohankumar adds to this argument by saying that Indian and the Western understanding of LLL are somewhat different, although, with the changing circumstance and globalization, they are similar in certain aspects. However, he also reminds that there are always confusions with the term LLL and different terminologies associated with it. Reddy, Farooq, Amharst, Rajesh, Singh and others have confronted with this idea, and finds that the concept LLL needs further clarifications.

The second prime interest of the interview was to find out what are the major differences between the traditionally perceived concept of adult education and the new term of LLL. The responses from the interviewees are divided into three major codes (after initial coding) - a) there is no difference, b) they are different and c) they are mixed. Based on these rather crude divisions, it was possible for the research to identify the major differences between these somewhat overlapping concepts considering the fact that LLL is traditionally considered as adult and continuing education in India (see background discussion for more). It is found that most of the interviewees responded in support of the third code (c), just one has said there is no difference and only a few think that LLL and adult education are different. The reason of such varied responses could be many. It could depend on their respective backgrounds, practical knowledge about the terms and their effectiveness in practice etc. However, analyzing the other responses, it could possibly be found that those who mentions that these two concepts are mixed, they actually tried further to analyze the mixed nature of the concept in present circumstances. Hence, some has mentioned that although at policy level, it is changing, but at practice level, there is not much change visible. Some have also mentioned that, in spite of the changing conceptualizations at higher level (e.g. policy, central administration) it is not able to percolate in all

over the country and at all levels. This research confronts to this view as well as it could be seen from the discussion until now, that adult education and LLL are not same, but they seems share a fare bit of common attributes. It also confronts that there might be strong possibilities of a gap between the understanding of LLL between policy/ administrative levels and ground level. However, the focus of this research is to find out the change in the dimensions of LLL, at national policy level. Hence, although interesting, the research delimits of focusing on the gap in policy and practice and concentrates on the focused analysis.

Overall, from the discussion of the analysis of the interviews, it could perhaps be realized that the understanding of LLL among the interviewees is still not standard. Nevertheless, the analysis of the interviews also help to confirm that the changes in the conceptualization of LLL have started to penetrate in India along with globalization. this and shows the presence of a complex dynamics of LLL, which need to be studied.

Conclusion

It could be argued that there is nothing new in LLL since it has the same component like adult education, popular education, vocational education, training and so on. However, it could also be said that any new idea, concepts etc. are initially based on the existing institutions, traditions and tools available. What LLL gives is that, it recognizes the importance of non-formal and informal learning environments as equivalent to formal one. Moreover, it gives more value to skills and competences in practical world and recognizes the influences of technology, globalization and market and most of its components. By doing so, LLL overlaps the boundary of the education. It enters and directly links the economic, educational, human resource and other sectors together. Theoretically, it perhaps demolishes the monopoly of education and replaces it with a more flexible and diverse learning environment where more actors and stakeholders are involved (National Agency of Education, Sweden, 2000). More actors could also imply that they could be situated in different sections and layers of the society. Hence, it is most likely complex and dynamic.

Hence, LLL here takes a rather broad leap and considers people who are also educated and skilled. This incorporation makes the learning an inevitable necessity for all, irrespective of all their social and educational status. In this way, it also shifts their responsibility on the individuals, who can upgrade themselves based on their needs and demands. In short, LLL, by its concept, along with the dimension of life-wide learning, is more pragmatic, encompassing, interdisciplinary and interactive with the changing society in many aspects. It is therefore important to find out what LLL means for India and only then, it could be possible to explore the consequences of the changing dimensions of LLL on the national higher education policies. However, to explore it systematically, it is necessary to have a deeper idea about the evolution of the concept of 'learning' and LLL in Indian context. Therefore, the next chapter discusses this issue in detail.

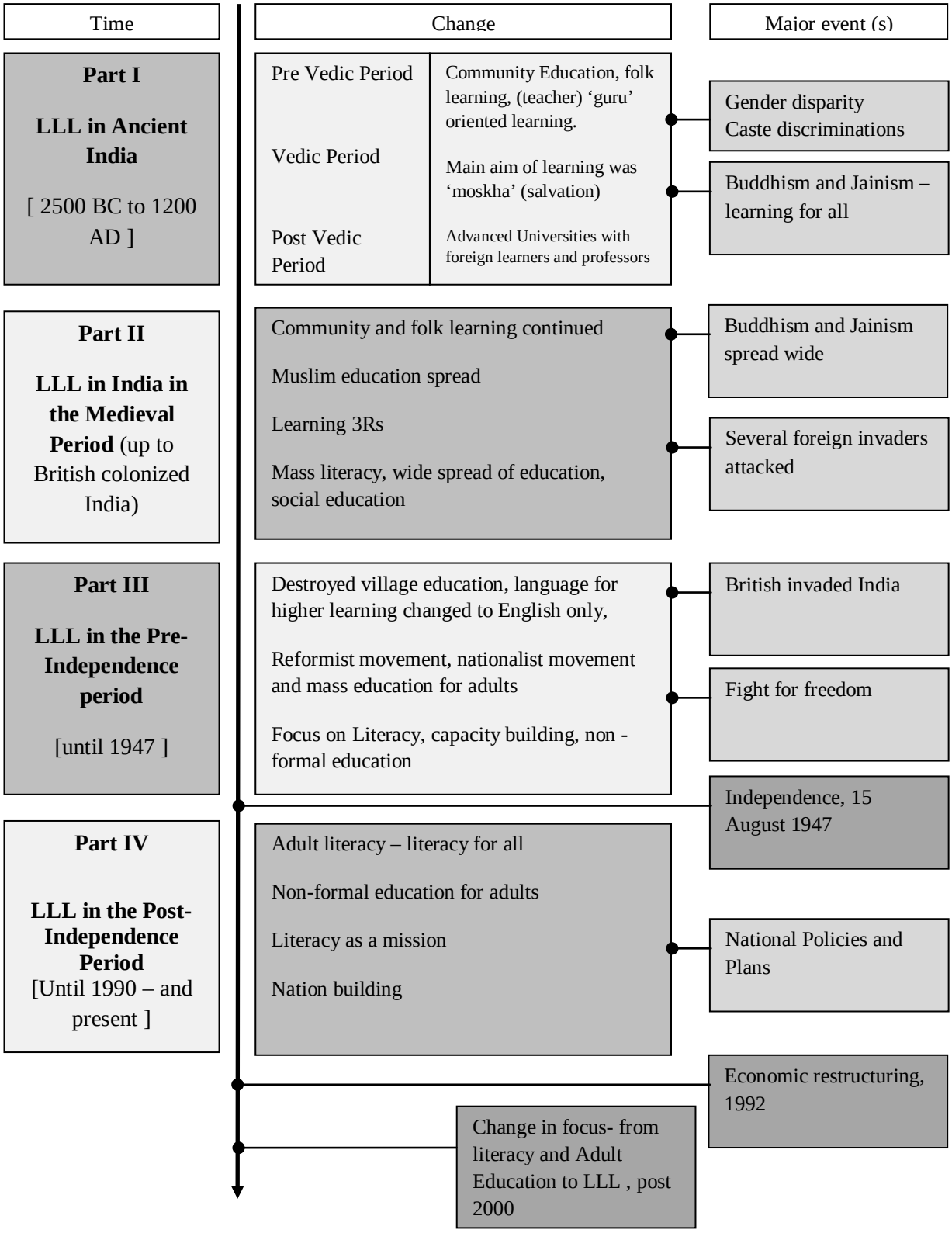
[This page is intentionally left blank]

chapter

4

History and Development of Lifelong Learning in India

Chapter Organization



Chapter 4

History and Development of Lifelong Learning in India

Introduction

The history of learning is as old as the history of humankind. India, one of the oldest civilizations in the world, is renowned for its culture and scholarship. In this chapter, an attempt is made to present the initial concept of lifelong learning (LLL) and its transformation from the ancient Indian society (2500 BC) to the present period (post 2000) in segments. However, due to the vastness of the country and the growing complexities and diverse nature of the social system, it is difficult to fully analyze the dynamics of learning of the entire period in this limited sphere. However, stress is given on identifying the important features of LLL in different phases of that period.

Based on the studies of Dutta (1996) and Shah (1999) on the history of Indian education, this chapter is divided into four major parts. The first part is about LLL in Ancient India, where the practice of learning is discussed based on the historic evidences. In the second part, it extends up to the time of British colonized India (LLL in medieval period). The next part, i.e. LLL in pre-independence period, shows that the meaning of LLL was practically narrowed down to adult learning. Hence, the importance is given on initiatives of adult education and learning along with other associated issues. The fourth part (LLL in post-independence period) discusses the development of LLL after India's independence in 1947 till recent times. It ends by showing that the concept of LLL has started to change once again in India.

This chapter helps to understand the chronological development of the concept of LLL in India and the very recent changes initiates the urge to investigate more, as it is shows than in recent times, there is another major shift in the conceptualization of LLL in India. To explore the issue, it starts with the development of LLL in ancient times.

Part I- LLL in Ancient India

LLL in Ancient India

The civilization of India, particularly that of Indus, is one of the oldest civilizations of the world, comparable with the civilizations of Mesopotamia, Egypt, China, Greece etc. The Pre-Aryan civilization in the Indus Valley area was highly organized, though we can guess little from the excavation in this area, as it is not yet been able to decipher the scripts of that period, available from the area. Nevertheless, from various studies, it can

be said that the ancient period in India is extended from 2500 BC to 1200 AD, (Dutta, 1986), thus covering nearly 4000 years (Shah, 1993).

LLL in Pre Vedic Period (2500 B.C – 2000 B.C)

Here, in this section, it seems important to mention in the beginning, that the study is based on the ancient scripts and limited available resources. It is very difficult to trace the beginning of organized learning in ancient India. As the scripts and many seals of Indus Valley Civilization have not yet born deciphered, there is hardly any information about the status of mass learning of that period. However, from sacred literatures of the ancient Indian society like *Vedas, the Upanishads, Puran e*tc., we get glimpses of the status and importance of knowledge of the previous period. Based on these and other relevant sources, here is an attempt to present the brief history of LLL of the Pre-Vedic period, which roughly extends up to 2000 BC. Therefore, the study of LLL, here is often blurred, limited to some extent to explore the complexities of the concept fully in this era. Nevertheless, this is an important section, as it helps to establish that the concept of LLL itself is not new in India, rather it dates back to several thousand years. As written scripts are not available, a vivid picture cannot be drawn of that period. Instead, an outline is being presented in this chapter.

The renowned anthropologist S.C. Dube (1996) has mentioned that the existence of primitive man in India date back to the second inter-glacial period and at least six races of humankind named Negrito, Mongoloid, Mediterranean, Proto-astraloid Nordic and Western Brakiseftas inhabited, in this vast country. There was an existence of Indus Civilization (2500 BC-1700 BC), which was highly organized. The Aryans, who came to India in different times, invaded North India and settled there. They were mainly nomads and later on, they adopted cultivation.

In the earlier stages, the society was simple. In course of expansion of the Aryan domination many non-Aryan customs, beliefs, traditions and cultures were also incorporated into it. Sometimes the inner change was slow and implicit; sometimes the transition was abrupt and explicit (Mandal, 1993).

LLL in the Vedic Period (2000 B.C – 200 B.C)

The learning of ancient Indian society originated from the socio-economic conditions prevalent in that period. There was a strong community feeling and deep-rooted human relations. As the ancient world was an oral world, the oral method of transmission of knowledge was widely used by the saints and sages, storytellers and folk artists (Maitra, 1982). Knowledge was technically called '*sruti*' i.e. what was to be heard and not to be seen in writing. The unbroken chain, by which the learning continued to be transmitted from teacher (Guru) to pupil, was called '*guruparampara*'. Discussion at public meeting was also a regular feature. There were also wondering scholars in the rural areas, called *Charkas*. At the initial stage, there was no gender inequality in the field of learning.

The primary objective, which was held in high esteem at that period, was '*moksha*' (salvation). There was a strong tenacity, on the part of the Gurus (teacher) to educate people, for making them conscious of their moral and social obligations. The

development of the individual was in the centre of all educational exercises. One of the major aims of learning was '*chitta-vritti-nirodha*' or detaching of the mind from the world of matter or objects.

In the ancient India, folk learning in different forms long preceded the systematic learning for the children. This learning used to start with the '*upanayana*', (thread ceremony), generally at the age of 7 years and continued until the age of 16 years and sometimes up to 24 years. That Period was called *brahmacharya*, indicating mode of life, earnestly striving with whole body and soul for true knowledge. During that period, the learner had to live in the teacher's house known as *gurukul* or *ashram*, where pupils used to live together with simplicity, hard work and strict discipline and get education from the *guru*. It was a hermitage amid natural surroundings, beyond the distractions of urban life. Here learning was fully dependent on the personal touch, on the living relationship between the pupil and the teacher (Dutta, 1986, Shah, 1993).

The Guru used to teach the pupil everything they knew. Those were comprised of both theoretical and practical aspects, including meditation, martial art, vocational and technical skills. There was an urge for making the learners conscious and able to perform moral and social obligations, to illuminate their lives with the spirituality of unlimited universe, as stated in the Sanskrit literature as- '*tamaso ma jotirgamaya*'.

The ashrams were run by the liberal contributions from the people, as well as from the Kings. There were instances of liberal donations for the ashrams from wealthy families. During the early stage of Vedic period the society was simple. Caste system was not rigid; men and women had equal rights. However, as the complexities in the agriculture-based society developed, more and more divisions and discriminations started to emerge. In this stage, while learning was more or less compulsory for every boy of 'upper' three varnas (caste) – the Brahmins, Kshtriyas and Vaishyas, the children of the 'lowest' caste – the Sudras were denied of that opportunity. Informal education continued to be the main form of education during that time (Dutta, 1986). From the educational components coupled with entertainment gave rise to different folk forms like songs, story-telling, folk art, discussion at public meetings, visual graphic arts etc. A number of temples, in the later period, served as effective channels of learning through architecture, sculpture, painting etc (Sarkar, 1992). There were also wandering scholars, who had important roles in spreading mass education.

LLL in the Post-Vedic Period (200 B.C- 1200 A.D)

In the earlier stage of Post-Vedic period, complexities and discriminations in the society developed further. Pursuit of knowledge was given prime importance in the scared scriptures of *Gita*, *Mahabharata* and in the code of conduct or the 'Laws of Manu'[21]. There was a good deal of development in art, literature, drama, mathematics and occupational skills. Sanskrit became the classical language but *Parakrit* was the language of popular communication. Written texts in different forms continued to develop in a

[21] Also known as 'Manusmriti' is one metrical work of the textual tradition of ancient religious practices explaining how to lead life. This is considered as one of the main test of 'Hinduism'. Manusnhita explained the classes and casts in the society, which even today, are followed by the religious Hindus.

slow pace. However, the sudras, the largest section of people, were kept away from any education. Manu categorically stated that molted lead ought to be poured into the ears of the *sudras,* who dare to listen to the Vedas. He further stated '*soodram akshra samyuktam dooratah parivarjayet*' (if a *sudra* is literate, leave him as bad soul). The number of women scholars also dwindled through the post-Vedic period. Manu branded *sudras* and women as 'drums incapable of learning'. The written texts were kept secret. The access to reading and writing remained to be the monopoly of small elites in the name of religion. Teaching for earning was also strictly prohibited by religious decree. Thus, systematic education began to be confined mostly among the Brahmins and the vast majority of population came to be denied of any access to it (Shah, 1993, Daswani, 1999).

During the *Dharmasashtric* and *Puranic* periods, the caste-system became more and more rigid and the Hindu religion was confined with complicated rules, performed only by the Brahmin priests, in a language hardly intelligible to the common people. These complexities and excessiveness of the 'brahministic' system gave birth to a great revolt, which further led to the inception of two new religions – Buddhism and Jainism.

With the upsurge of Buddhism and Jainism during 500 BC, the elitist character of education began to change. One fundamental difference between the Aryan and Buddhist education was that in the later, the door to learning was made open to all, irrespective of varnas, castes, creeds and sex. Furthermore, the teachers were not selected from only the priestly class, but from all classes. Learning was no longer based on Vedic study, but was based on the demands of the day-to-day life, including the occupational, intellectual, physical and moral aspects (Daswani, 1999). The language of learning had become 'Pali', the language of the common people, instead of Sanskrit (Acahrya, 1989).

A large network of elementary educational centers developed throughout the country, centering round the monasteries. There were also 'vihars', centers of higher education, unparallel in the history of the world in that period. This institutional education, in a great way, for the first time in India, in the form of universities, developed at Nalanda, Vikramshilla, Takashila, Odantapuri etc., where large numbers of students from foreign countries were also incorporated. The teaching of Buddha, inscribed in iron pillars, stones and rocks, served as non-formal channels of education for the common people, especially during the regime of 'Ashoka'. A few scholars from the said universities, even reached China, Cylon and the surrounding countries, overcoming all hurdles to preach the philosophy and education of Buddhism. On the other hand, scholars and pilgrims from those countries also came to the said universities for enrichment of their knowledge. However, there was a period of revival of Hinduism and set back of Buddhist system of learning. During the dynasty of Gupta (320-647AD), Hindu culture reached its zenith, when hand-written books came into common use for the first time. Drama, lyric, poetry and prose were assiduously cultivated and they served as channels of adult education. The same tradition continued during the whole of medieval period with political patronage.

During this stage, the 'craft literacy' i.e. visual graphic aids and art forms for communication of messages to the common people, without taking help from script

literacy, were widespread. Temple-architecture, sculptures, paintings etc. served this purpose in a very effective way. Besides, in many South Indian temples and Buddhist monasteries, there were regular arrangement of reading the epics, the Purans and other religious core books from the days of the Pallava dynasty. Moreover, in every important temple the 'Kathakars', the 'Haridasas' or the 'Puraniks' were attached, who acted as teacher musicians to the adults. There were frequents arrangement of 'Keertan', 'bhajan', 'jagaran', 'Ramlila', 'Krishnalila' (folk modes of non-formal education and part of folk culture) etc. which were powerful source of learning in informal manner since ancient period.

Part – II – LLL in India in the Medieval Period up to British colonized India (1200 A.D – 1757 A.D)

We have seen that objective of learning in the ancient period was not to be literate, but to be educated and fully conscious of one's moral and social obligations. The 'Gurus'. the 'Kathakars', the 'Ramlilas' and 'Rashlilas', the rural fairs and rituals helped them to keep alive their sense of responsibilities and maintenance of the moral tone of that period. During the Buddhist and Jain period universities of international reputation were established. With the beginning of the medieval period, Muslim system of education paved its way. Large numbers of 'maktab's and 'madrasas (Islamic schools) were established. Side by side, 'pathsalas' (schools) for primary education of the children continued in almost every village (Acharya, 1989). This continued for long.

We have seen in the earlier section that during the Post-Vedic period there was great revolt of Buddhism and Jainism against the complexities and excessiveness of Hindu systems, which paved the way for mass education. During the later period, India has experienced a series of foreign invasions. The invaders, excepting the British rulers, have settled here, and in course of time incorporated into the diversified Indian society. Before the inroads of Muslim rulers, education in this country was elaborate and rich in content (Sarkar, 1992). The next section briefly discusses learning until the British colonized India.

Side by side the tradition of oral transmission of knowledge, values and culture continued. Most of the rulers extended considerable patronage to the scholars, different forms of art and culture. The temples were the places of imparting 3R's meeting places and centers of village ceremonies of all ages. However, a large section of the society remained outside the preview of any organized education (Mandal, 1993). During the 'Tughlak' dynasty, considerable progress in the field of education was made. A new language, called 'Urdu', written in Persian origin developed, as a product of mixture of Hindu and Muslim culture. During the period of Mughal emperor Akbar, residential colleges for higher studies were established. There was remarkable spread of popular system of education at that time. He encouraged both Hindu and Muslim streams of education, and encouraged the study of intellectual and aesthetic subjects like mathematics, grammar, astronomy, politics etc. However, no machinery of educational administration developed at that time and the rulers never claimed any authority over the educational institutions. Aurangazeb was the first Mughal emperor to introduce on

experimental basis, free and compulsory education for the masses among the Bohara community of Gujrat. It paved the way for a long-term impact and a high rate of literacy in that community.

During the last part of medieval period, the international trade with Arabia, Greek and China flourished especially in the coastal regions. The Muslim and Christian missionaries became instrumental in spreading mass literacy in the coastal region of South India at that time. It was, in many ways, one of the brightest era of learning in India.

Part – III – LLL in the Pre-Independence period (1757 A.D – 1947 A.D)

The bright era, however, did not last for long. The British rule brought about a total change in the social and administrative order of the country. The traditional village life was heavily disturbed and new social classes came into being in villages and towns. During 1757-1813, the new rulers took no interest in the education of the people (Singh, 1957). After that, they intervened in the system and introduced new type of education for the upper classes. Social leaders like Raja Rammohan Roy, Vidyasagar etc. started dreaming of regenerating the nation with education and social reforms. The nationalist movement paved the way for mass education movement. Adult learning became a major part of it.

As analyzed by Singh (1957), the British Policy in India was to turn the country into a producer of raw material for British industries, a producer of food for the growing British population and market for the British goods. The result was the growing pressure on land. The population subsisting on land in 1891 was only 61.1%, while in 1935 it became 75%. The new properly system created a new class of property owners and deprived the peasants from their age-old rights. The villagers were thrown to the mercy of the commercial currents and 'middlemen'. They sank deeper and deeper into the poverty and indebtedness. In the process, there was a rapid increase in the number of landless laborers, unfamiliar in the past. In the urban areas, also new classes emerged viz, capitalists working class, petty traders, shopkeepers, and professionals (Singh 1957). Those social-political changes had their impact on the state of education of that period. Dutta (1986), following the British historian Howell, has summed up that education in India under the British Government was first ignored, then violently and successfully opposed, then conducted on a system now universally admitted to be erroneous.

It is admitted by all, that during 1767 to 1813, the British were totally indifferent towards the education of the people. However, the Charter act of 1698 recognized the role of missionaries in expansion of education. Indeed, the missionaries were the first to learn the vernacular languages and establish direct communication with the local people. They were the first to introduce printing press, translating Bible and other important religious books into local languages. They were also the pioneers in establishing primary schools and adult education centers (Chatterjee, 1998, 2002).

In 1813, the British parliament inserted a clause to invest a sum of rupees one hundred thousand out of the surplus of revenue, for the development of education of the colonial people. However, the clause was not translated into action for a long time. The same Charter of 1813 granted the missionaries to set up educational institutions. Meanwhile the educational survey conducted by Thomas Munro in 1822, in Madras presidency and by William Adam in Bengal revealed an irreparable decay in learning. As per report of Adam, the literacy percentage of above five years of age in the areas, where survey was conducted, was only 5.8% at that period (Chatterjee, 2002, Singh 1957). However, the government policy was not in favor of peoples' education. In 1823, the General Committee of Public Instructions was formed. It decided to spend the funds for the education of the influential classes, rather than on the elementary education of the masses. During 1830s, the government adopted 'downward infiltration theory', which concentrated on the education of the upper classes, which would than filter down it to the masses.

In 1835, the government representative of education, Lord Macaulay, clearly outlined the British Policy- we want a class of persons Indian in blood and color, but English in taste, in opinion, in morals and in intellect (in Dutta, 1986). Lord Williams Bentinck proclaimed that, "the great object of the British Government would henceforth be the promotion of European literature and science through the medium of English and the government funds appropriated for the purpose of education would be best employed on English education alone" (in Dutta, 1986). In 1844, Lord Harding announced that the services in public school would be given to those, who had education in English-medium schools. In 1854, Sir Charles Wood, president of the Board of Control, in his report, known as Wood's Dispatch, also stressed on the same thing. Indian social leaders like Raja Rammohan Roy also thought of curbing the feudal customs and superstitions by introducing English education in India (Dutta, 1986). This led to the total neglect of mother tongue as a medium of learning and the course of study became unrelated to life, which had far-reaching effect on the educational, social and cultural life of the people.

Nonetheless, this dispatch criticized the downward infiltration theory and suggested for grant-in-aid for spreading mass education and indigenous education to a certain extent. The task of working for adult learning and curbing illiteracy remained so far in the hands of missionaries, enlightened Indians and socially committed British officials. The traditional system of education was gradually crumbling down. However, the expansion of new system was extremely slow. The British models like the mechanics Institute, working men's college etc were also not of much relevance, as the educational needs of adults in colonial India were quite different (Shah, 1993).

Reformist movement, nationalist movement and mass-education for adults

It is evident from the course of history that during the first half of British rule, there was gradual deterioration of the country and rapid transformation of old systems. However, from the ashes of the old ones new India began to rise in the next century. The 'Sepoy mutiny', which is regarded by most of the historians as first freedom struggle, took place in 1857-58. Indian National Congress was established in 1885. There was great upsurge in 1905 following the anti-partition movement of Bengal. The establishment of printings

press, influx of modern literature, transport and communication, libraries and museums played a positive role in this direction. The Hunter commission (1882) recommended for extension of adult education and use of mother tongue. In 1910 Gokhale moved a resolution in the Imperial Legislative council for establishing the principle of free and compulsory education. The concept of basic literacy was reinforced in the background of freedom movement in India. Night schools for adults began to be established. The standard of literacy test was the ability to read simple sentences, forming a story or a letter and to write answers to simple questions and to sign one's name and know numbers up to 100 (Singh, 1957).

Since 1921 those schools began to receive grants in aid from the government. The core curriculum included rudiments of reading, writing and deciphering, with regional variations. The pioneers of reformist movement like Vidyasagar, Dadavai Naoragi, Gopal Krishna Gokhale, Veerasalingam, Vivekananda, Sayyid Ahmed Khan, keshab Chandra Sen etc. dedicated themselves for modernization and expansion of mass education movement in different ways. A number of NGOs and social reform societies played significant role in promotion of adult education during the first quarter of twentieth century. During 1920's there were four important channels of adult education in India.

- night schools,
- awareness programs through films, public lectures and discussions organized by social, cultural and political organizations,
- libraries and
- community development projects including instructive programs.

The overall study also reveals that by the middle of 1860's in almost every province, there were night schools for the adults. Some of the princely states like Mysore, Baroda, Cochin and Travancore had taken programs for promotion of literacy for the masses. In 1912, Sir M. Visvesvaraya, the Dewan of Mysore established 7000 literacy centers with a network of circulating libraries. 'Vigyana' (meaning science), a magazine with a view to popularize scientific knowledge, was regularly published and circulated. In Baroda, the policy of creating rural libraries was taken up as far back as 1894. A few years later mobile libraries were also established. In some provinces a few vernacular libraries were attached with the rural schools. Among all the provinces, Punjab was in the forefront of adult learning institutes. As early as in 1921 a literacy campaign was launched in that province. About one lakh adult learners enrolled in the night schools by 1926-27.

In 1915, Dr. D.N. Maitra, with the help of Rabindranath Tagore, Shibnath Sastri, Jagadish Chandra Bose, Profulla Chandra Roy etc. founded the 'Bengal Social Service League' for the promotion of People's education. In 1922 Tagore established Rural Development Centre at Sriniketan for education and development of the neglected people. Swami Vivekananda inspired his followers for being engaged in adult education and awareness building activities.

The growing nationalist movement and the introduction of constitutional reform in 1919 paved the way for tremendous boost for adult learning in India. Nationalist leader like

Lala Lajpat Ray, B.G. Tilak etc. organized night schools for illiterate masses and summer schools for literate adults. The Congress Socialist Party of Andhra Pradesh established peasant schools in Guntur and West Godavari. Many literacy volunteers came forward considering adult literacy activities as synonymous to freedom movement. Political activities after the World War-I coupled with nationalist movement enthused people in a great way to take part in adult education. During 1930's several attempts were made by the pioneer adult educations to evolve effective literacy materials and methods in various Indian languages (Singh, 2007). It was Dr. Frank C. Laubach, an American missionary, who provided the technical guidelines to develop innovative literacy primers (based on key words and pictures) in numbers of Indian languages, viz Hindi, Marathi, Gujrati, Bengali, Assamese, Telgu, Kannad, Tamil etc., through a series of literacy workshops. During that, time post literacy programs, though not in a systemic way, followed literacy programs.

The period 1927-37 may be marked as a period of decline in adult learning, due to global economic crisis, political disturbances and communal riots. During this period there was a very slow progress of literacy rate (Table 1), as well as gradual increase in the total number of illiterates (Shah, 1993). The progress of literacy between 1932–1941 is shown in the table below. This would provide an idea about the slow progress of the literacy scenario of India. Nevertheless, with the formation of popular ministries in the provinces in 1937, there was tremendous enthusiasm in this aspect. During 1938-39 a series of mass literacy campaigns were organized in different provinces, viz Bihar, Punjab, Madras, United Provinces, Bengal, Bombay and Assam. It was for the first time in India that the provincial governments accepted adult education as a responsibility of the government as a part of normal education system. The national leaders like Gandhiji, Syed Mehmood, Gobind Ballabh Pant, C, Rajagopalchari etc. took active part in this movement. As a consequence, the central government had also to consider the importance of adult education.

The Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE), in its 4th meeting, held in December 1938, appointed a committee to consider the question of education. The highlights of the recommendations of the committee to the 5th meetings of the Board held in May 1940 were as follows:

- Literacy is a movement of further education and must not be regarded as an end in itself. There must be stress on retention and use of literacy.
- The subjects introduced in the curriculum should be related to the occupation, social and economic conditions and personal interests of the learners. The form in which instruction is given must be intelligible and interesting.
- Separate classes should be organized for boys between the age of 12-26 years.
- Every effort should be made to enlist the help of voluntary agencies. Safeguard should be provided against any risk of the movement being used for religious or political propaganda.

Province or State	In 1931				From 1932-1940				In 1941
	Total Population	No. Of Literate	% of Literacy	No. Of Illiterates	No. of Illiterates added (Increase in Population)	No. of Illiterates reduced (Increase in Literates)	Percent-age of Literacy	Net increase in Literacy	No. of Illiterates
Bombay	17,992	1,774	9.5	16,218	2,866	2,294	19.5	572	16,790
Madras	46,740	4,320	9.3	42,420	2,602	2,101	13.0	501	42,921
Bengal	50,114	4,694	9.4	45,420	10,200	5,026	16.1	5,174	50,594
Bihar	32,371	1,344	4.2	31,027	3,969	1,996	9.2	1,973	33,000
Orissa	5,306	539	10.2	4,767	3,423	409	10.9	3,014	7,781
U.P	48,409	2,260	4.8	46,149	6,312	2,393	8.5	3,919	50,068
C.P.	14,667	868	5.9	13,799	2,155	1,042	11.3	1,113	14,912
N.W.F.	2,425	100	4.1	2,325	613	134	7.7	479	2,804
Punjab	23,518	1,248	5.3	22,333	4,838	2,418	12.9	2,420	24,753
Sind Assam	3,887	230	5.9	3,657	650	244	10.5	406	4,063
Travancore	8,622	666	7.7	7,956	1,583	508	11.5	1,075	9,031
Cochin	5,096	1,218	23.9	3,878	974	1,176	47.7	202	3,676
Baroda	1,205	339	28.1	866	218	165	35.4	53	919
Gwalior	2,443	435	17.7	2,008	412	222	23.0	190	2,198
Hyderabad	3,523	141	4.4	3,382	469	156	7.4	313	3,695
Kashmir	14,436	596	4.1	13,840	1,748	515	6.9	1,233	15,073
Mysore	3,646	124	3.4	3,422	375	140	6.5	235	3,757
All India	6,557	594	9.1	5,963	772	320	12.2	470	6,433
	3,38,170	**23,493**	**7.0**	**3,14,677**	**50,630**	**23,830**	**12.2**	**26,800**	**341,477**

Table 1 - Progress of illiteracy in India (1932-41) (The figures are in thousands)

[Source: The figures are taken from the provincial reports, etc. submitted to the Central Advisory Board of Education]

The target group was illiterates belonging to 10-50 years of age and the duration of the campaigns varied from 4-6 months. The gigantic increase in the adult learning in India during 1937-42 is being presented in the Table, though the picture is incomplete and based on various data sources.

- An adequate supply of trained and competent teachers is the fundamental need in adult education.
- A library is an essential adjunct to every adult education centre. Liberal grants should be given for this and there should be stress on production of suitable literature for them.
- The importance of a wide expansion of facilities for adult education is even more important in the case of women, than that of men.
- It is essential to secure the co-operation of employers and associations of workers for the literacy of urban workers. The question of levying a tax on those employers of labor, who do not make adequate provision for the education of their employees, is worthy of consideration.
- The Central Government should afford financial assistance to those provincial governments, which are prepared to carry out approved schemes within next 5 years.

In that time, those were bold ideas. However, after the resignation of the popular ministries in 1939, there was lack of initiative and commitment on the part of the government to implement the recommendations. One remarkable feature during the period was experiment of adult education programs in Agra and a number of other jails (Singh, 1957, Shah, 1993). However, many of them were not done in a serious way and no follow up activities were designed.

Another feature was adult education among army, particularly during the Second World War (1939-45). The overall literacy rate and the male female gap in this aspect may help us in getting an idea about the progress of learning from 1901-1941.

Census Year	Rate of Literacy (%)			Male- Female Gap in Literacy Rate
	Persons	Male	Female	
1901	5.35	9.83	0.60	9.23
1911	5.92	10.56	1.05	9.51
1921	7.16	12.21	1.81	10.40
1931	9.50	15.59	2.93	12.66.

Table 2: Literacy rate in India (1901-1941) and male-female gap in literacy (%)

A marked increase in the number of libraries was seen during the period. Many existing public libraries also began to extend their services to the neo-literate adults. Radio was used to a certain extent for them. Another notable event was the formation of 'Indian Adult Education Association' at Bhagalpur in the year 1939, though a few professional societies in different provinces were formed before it (West Bengal Adult Education Association, 1957). The Association became a forum for exchanging of views and co-ordination among the different agencies of adult education. Through up and down adult learning programs continued in different parts of India until its independence in 1947.

In the following sections (part III), these issues are discussed in detail. The development of adult learning in post-British period thus can enlighten us further to understand the changing dimensions of LLL in India. These two consecutive chapters could contribute in the process of understanding of the changing concept of LLL in India in contemporary time.

Part – IV- LLL in the Post-Independence Period (post 1947 A.D)

Through a long drawn national movement in different ways, India owns its freedom on August 15th, 1947. As an independent and democratic State, it had to bring about certain basic changes in the policy and program of education. The prevalent colonial policy was reviewed and new programs were developed to cater the changing needs of a democratic nation. The new policy, in this context, was necessitated due to variety of socio-political factors. The newly formed government adopted the welfare approach to development and attempted for structural reforms in various fields, including education. In this chapter, it tries to analyze, in short, the major programs related to learning, since independence (up to 2011) and their visible impacts on the changing dimensions of LLL in India.

Major programs of LLL initiated by the government after 1947

The independent India inherited a system of education, which was characterized by a large scale and intra-regional imbalances. There was a wide gap between a few educated and large-scale illiterates. The rate of literacy in 1947 was as low as 14% and female literacy was abysmally low at any 8% only. One child out of three had the opportunity to be enrolled in primary schools. This educational in equality was aggravated by the economic inequality, gender disparity and rigid social stratification. As such, the new government under the leadership of the first Prime Minister, Mr. Jawaharlal Nehru initiated for establishing a huge infrastructure for formal education and at the same time making scope for non-formal education for the adults, who have crossed the age limit for entering into the formal system (Directorate of Adult Education or DAE, MHRD, 2005). Among the number of non-formal education programs, most important programs are mentioned below:

Social education:

It was the first major program of 'peoples' education' since independence. It was in fact a program of adult learning with greater emphasis on social aspects, with a view to enable every Indian to participate effectively in the new social order of Independent India. The terminology of 'Social Education' was first introduced in 1948. The scheme was officially conceived in 1949 and was modified by 1952, when it was made an integrated component of Community Development Program. The scheme received increasing financial support from the Government of India during first two five years plans. The M.S. Mehta committee (1961) further elaborated the objectives of social education in the following way;

> The objectives of social education are to bring about a desirable social change by acquainting people with ever-changing currents in social, economic and political

> life. [...] Education for healthy life, to keep homes and surrounding clean and to make life useful and enjoyable is an essential part of social education. The need to train people to organize the economic and social life on a co-operative basis and to develop in them in a practical way a sense of their responsibilities for social and national security is also included in the broader concept of social education (in Dutta, 1986; Shah, 1993).

The curricula of this program were divided into two phases. The first phase included 3Rs[22], health and hygiene, principles and methods of co-operation, local arts and handicrafts, entertainment and general knowledge. The learning period was of five months on an average two hours per day. The second phase of five months were designed as a follow up program, with an intention to help learners retain and upgrade the basic literacy and skills acquired by them during the first phase.

The major credit for popularizing the concept and translating it into action definitely goes to Moulana Abul Kalam Azad, who took keen interest in the program. The program picked up with the counting of the First Five Year Plan and creation of a full-fledged Ministry of Community Department and Co-operation in 1952. Initially the program was started with only selected blocks. By the end of the Second Five Year Plan, it reached up to four hundred thousand villages (Dutta, 1986).

However, in course of time several weaknesses of the program were visible (Dutta, 1986; Mandal, 1993) and new thinking, as a result of international and national developments, emerged.

Gram Sikshan Mahim (movement of literacy in rural India)

It was a movement for literacy and people's awareness in the rural areas, initially in 'Satara' district of the state of Marashtra in 1959 and later on extended to other parts. It must be earmarked as first significant mass movement for adult learning in the post-independent India, which won the UNESCO- award (Pahalvi Prize) in 1963. During 1961-71 the literacy rate of the state increased by 10%, as against 5% increase in national level.

Masterminded by an energetic officer of the State Education Department (SED) B.R. Patil, the campaign was able to be a movement of the common people with active involvement of the so far neglected sections of the society. The campaign integrated all the ongoing social education programs throughout the state. Popular committees were formed at various levels. Adult Education Centers were set up, with token incentives to the volunteer-teachers. The neo-literates were made to demonstrate their newly acquired ability of reading in front of the villagers. The successful volunteer Teachers and learners were given public honor. This was called 'Gram Gaurav Samarambha'. The government of Maharashtra introduced added several impetus to the program, by organizing different competitions, introducing shields, medals, cash awards etc. NGOs, local clubs and community organizations played important roles in enhancing the program. Several libraries were established and numbers of publications for the neo-

[22] 3R- reading, writing and basic arithmetic

literates were made during that time. The program was evaluated both by the state government and by the Planning Commission. While appreciating the mass mobilization and several other aspects, they pointed out that the standard of literacy was low and the follow up program was either late or inadequate and weak. A large number of neo-literates relapsed into illiteracy. Notwithstanding these drawbacks, the 'mahim' remains as a source of inspiration to all functionaries of LLL.

Farmers' Functional Literacy Project (FFLP)

It was started in 1967-68 as an inter-ministerial project for farmers' training and functional literacy. As a pilot project, it covered three districts in the first year, which ware expanded during the next ten years and covered 144 districts out of 397 by 1977. The evaluation conducted by the Directorate of Adult Education (DAE) revealed the utility of the program in contribution to agricultural production. However, the program was implemented exclusively through official channels and touched only very small sections of the neglected marginal farmers and landless agricultural workers.

The Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) at its meeting held in November 1974 recommended that the exclusive emphasis on formal system of education should be given up and large element of non-formal education should be introduced within the system. It could be considered as a major point of departure of LLL in policies. Plethora of programs were designed to promote literacy and basic learning, from this time onwards.

Non-Formal Education (NFE)

It was launched in the beginning of Fifth Five year Plan 1975-76. This program incorporated the following components:

- Centre-based literacy for the age group 15-20years.
- Centre-based education for school dropouts in the age group 6-14years.
- Education through mass media for the people who could not get formal education.
- Television programs through satellite, specially designed for primary school children and adult learners.

Functional Literacy for Adult Women (FLAW)

It was started in 1975-76 in the experimental Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS) Project areas. The objective of the project was to enable the literate adult women to acquire functional skills along with functional literacy and to make them better aware about health, hygiene, and child care practices.

National Adult education Programme (NAEP)

It was the largest ever, adult education program and the first program in India taken up at micro-level through project approach (Directorate of Adult Education, Govt. of India, 1979; Shah 1993). It was launched on October 2, 1978, the birth anniversary of Mahatma

Gandhi. Rural Functional Literacy Project (RFLP) was an important component of it. It was a massive program with a target of educating 100 million illiterate adults in the 15-35 years age group within a period of five years. State Resource Centers (SRC) for Adult Education were formed for providing pedagogic and technical assistance in this regard (Loomba & Mathew, 2007). NAEP created good impact in favor of LLL among disadvantaged people, particularly among the women (Govt. of India, 1984). A number of primers, booklets for the neo literates and guidelines for the instruct, supervisors and Project officers were published by the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, Government of India.

National Literacy Mission (NLM)

After NAEP, National Literacy Mission (NLM) was the biggest adult education program in India, which was launched in May 5, 1988, with the mission of imparting functional literacy to the illiterates in the age group 15-35 years, in a time-bound manner. The National Education Policy-1986 (modified in 1992) recognized NLM, UEE (Universalisation of Elementary Education) and NFE (Non-Formal Education) as three instruments of mass education in the country.

The Ernakulam (in Kerala state) Literacy Campaign in 1990 was a breakthrough in the history of adult learning movement in India, in the post – Gram Shikshan Mahim period. The campaign mode was adopted as dominant strategy of the Mission, and the functional literacy consisted of three components- literacy, awareness and functionality. The Mission also had taken into its fold the children in the age group 9-14years, in the areas not covered by NFE. There were three stages of the movement: (i) Total Literacy Campaign (TLC), followed by (ii) Post-Literacy Programme (PLP) and (iii) Continuing Education Programme (CEP). The contributions of TLC,PLP and CEP are mentioned in brief.

The NLM, that commenced in 1988, had covered 597 out of 600 districts in TLC, 485 districts in PLP by the end of Tenth Five Year plan (March 31,2007). Besides these 1,97,612 CECs and 20,939 Nodal Continuing Education Centers (NCEC) had been set up in 328 district under CEP. As per government report, since the inception of NLM, altogether 127.45 million persons have been made literates, of which 60% learners were females, while 23% learners belonged to scheduled castes (SC) and 12% to scheduled tribes (ST). One striking feature was that for the first time since independence, there has been a decline in the absolute number of illiterates during the decade 1991-2001. Another important feature has been the involvement of women in the literacy campaign – around 63% of the learners and considerable numbers of volunteers of TLC were women. The gender-gap in literacy was slowly but surely closing, as is evident from the table below (

Table 3).

From the following table we can get an idea regarding the progress of literacy among the seven years and above age-group persons from 1951-2011. The male-female gap in the literacy rate is also given in the table.

Table 3- Literacy rate in India (1951-2001) and male-female gap in literacy (%)

Census Year	Rate of Literacy (%)			Male-Female gap in literacy rate
	Persons	Male	Female	
1951	18.33	27.16	8.86	18.30
1961	28.30	40.40	15.35	25.05
1971	34.45	45.96	21.97	23.98
1981	43.57	56.38	29.76	26.62
1991	52.21	64.13	39.29	24.84
2001	64.84	75.76	53.67	21.59

[Source: Census of India 1951-2011]

Table 4- Literacy rate and decadal growth of literacy in India - state wise

Sl. No.	State/ Union Territories	Literacy rate (%)			Decadal growth in literacy rate (%) 2001-2011
		Total	Male	Female	
1.	Kerala	93.9	96.0	92.0	3.0
2.	Lakshadweep	92.3	96.1	88.2	5.6
3.	Mizoram	91.6	93.7	89.4	2.8
4.	Tripura	87.8	92.2	83.1	14.6
5.	Goa	87.4	92.8	81.8	5.4
6.	Daman & Diu	87.1	91.5	79.6	5.4
7	Puducheri	86.5	92.1	81.2	5.3
8.	Chandigarh	86.4	90.5	81.4	4.5
9.	Andaman & Nicobor Islands	86.3	90.1	81.8	5.0
10.	Delhi	86.3	91.0	80.9	4.6
11.	Himachal Pradesh	83.8	90.8	76.6	7.3
12.	Maharashtra	82.9	89.8	75.5	6.0
13.	Sikkim	82.2	87.3	76.4	13.4
14.	Tamilnadu	80.3	86.8	73.9	6.8
15.	Nagaland	80.1	83.3	76.7	13.5
16.	Manipur	79.8	86.5	73.2	9.9
17.	Uttarakhand	79.6	87.3	70.7	8.0
18.	Gujarat	79.3	87.2	70.7	10.2
19.	Dadra & Nagar Haveli	77.7	86.5	65.9	20.1
20.	West Bengal	77.1	82.7	71.2	8.5
21.	Punjab	76.7	81.5	71.3	7.0
22.	Haryana	76.6	85.4	66.8	8.7
23.	Karnataka	75.6	82.8	68.1	9.0
24.	Meghalaya	75.5	77.2	73.8	12.9
25.	Orissa	73.5	82.4	64.4	10.4
26.	Assam	73.2	78.8	67.3	9.9
27.	Chhattisgarh	71.0	81.5	60.6	6.3
28.	Madhyapradesh	70.6	80.5	60.0	6.9
29.	Uttar Pradesh	69.7	79.2	59.3	13.4
30.	Jammu & Kashmir	67.7	78.3	57.0	13.2
31.	Andhra Pradesh	67.7	75.6	59.7	7.2
32.	Jharkhand	67.6	78.5	56.2	14.0

33.	Rajasthan	67.1	80.5	52.7	6.7
34.	Arunachal Pradesh	67.0	73.7	59.6	12.7
35.	Bihar	63.8	73.5	53.3	16.8
	India	**74.4**	**82.14**	**65.46**	**9.21**

[Source- Govt. Of India- Provisional Census Figures, 2011]

Though there were number of weaknesses in planning, implementation and evaluation of the campaigns, the positive achievements cannot be ignored. Besides the direct benefits, in terms of literacy, indirect impacts of these campaigns are far-reaching. A few of these are:

- Creation of a conducive environment in favor of education.
- An enhanced demand for primary education of the children.
- Sensitization of bureaucracy.
- Heightened social awareness.
- A move towards gender equity and women's empowerment.
- Improved sense and practice regarding health and hygiene, etc.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA)

As a combined result of internal demand of the country and global pressure, 'Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan' (SSA) meaning Education for All (EFA) was launched in India, in the year 2001. It was stated that SSA was an attempt to provide an opportunity for improving human capabilities to all children, through provision of community-owned quality education in a mission mode. Here eight standard of education is considered as the elementary level. The following were the aims to be achieved by this :

- Universal access of 5+ to 14 years of children in formal or alternative schools;
- Universal enrolment;
- Universal retention up to class VIII;
- Universal quality education; and
- Bridging gender and other social category gaps.

Saakshar Bharat:

This program was formally inaugurated by the Prime Minister of India on 8 September 2009. As stated in the official documents, the revised strategy is a national response to development of quality human resource to meet the demands of fast changing Bharat, as well as challenges of globalization. It was expected that this strategy would create a new framework of LLL, that promotes a literate society through comprehensive adult education and building environments that foster literacy. There are four major components in this program, viz- *basic literacy, basic education and equivalency, skill development and vocational education, and continuing education*.

The focus groups of this program are the illiterate women, scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other religious minorities. This is mainly a volunteer-based program, though there is provision of a small amount of honorarium for the 'preraks' (facilitators) of CEP,

and limited only in the rural areas of the districts having female literacy rate of 50% or below (MHRD, Govt. Of India, 2012).

Extension Education in the Universities

There is a thin line of social welfare and extension activities under National Service scheme (NSS), National Cadet Corps (NCC) etc. in the universities since independence. The first university to take up LLL activities was the University of Poona, which established a Board of Extra-mural Studies, in 1948. The function of the Board was to organize popular lectures, AECs, summer schools, publishing books and pamphlets in Marathi etc. It had also organized residential training centers for primary school teachers.

However, the first systematic attempt to establish a full-fledged department of Adult Education was made by the University of Delhi, in the year 1950. The Academic Council of the University also developed a draft syllabus for introducing the Diploma in Adult Education. After the completion of prolonged procedural nitty-gritty, the university Adult education program was stated in 1957. An extension lecture board was established in the same year. This university also introduced correspondence course scheme for bachelors' courses in 1962 (Dutta, 1986).

The University Grants Commission's (UGC) effort of starting Adult and Continuing Education activities started in 1960. The first university to have a full- fledged Department of Adult Education was the University of Rajasthan. In 1960, the university accepted in principle to establish the Department, which finally materialized in 1964. During this period it received the gift of Colombo Plan Agreement to make available the expertise and equipments from Canada. Initially extension lectures, short courses, symposia, seminars were organized by the department from academic year 1967, it also started one year post-graduate diploma course in Adult Education. Departments of Adult and Continuing Education and Extension (DACEE) in several other universities were established, within a few years with the financial assistance from UGC (Dutta, 1986).

On October 2, 1978, when the biggest ever Adult Education Program, NAEP, was launched in the country; as per guidelines of UGC 68, universities and 705 Colleges were assisted to undertake organization of AECs. The Policy statement of UGC (1977) stated that, "If the university system has to discharge adequately its responsibilities to the entire education system. In 1984, the scheme of Population Education Clubs (PEC) in the universities and colleges was prepared and the responsibility of organizing activities in this sphere was entrusted with DACEE. The objectives of this scheme were to make the students aware of the dynamics of population, the population policies and programs of the government and appreciate the need for 'Small Family Norm'[23]. Meanwhile the Mass Programme for Functional Literacy (MPFL) popularly known as 'each one, teach one' was launched on May 1, 1986, with an intention of involving two hundred thousand NSS-student-volunteers each of whom would teach at least one to five adult illiterates in

[23] As a part of population education

the neighborhoods, during vacations, within approximately 150 hours. During 1987-88, NCC cadets from the senior divisions were also involved in this program (Rajan, 1998).

The UGC formulated area-based approach, i.e. demonstration units in the area adopted by the university or college, keeping in view the National Policy of Education-1986. During this period, the DACEEs contributed a lot in promoting adult learning in the country. In the 9th guideline of UGC, there was stress on different types of career-oriented programs, equivalency Programs, leadership and human resources development program etc. This is emphasized in its latest guideline for LLL, which is the first one of its kind, dedicated to LLL.

Special mention- Guideline for Lifelong Learning and Extension (by UGC): In the XI plan guidelines, the UGC has suggested to change the nomenclature of the erstwhile DACEE's as 'Department of Lifelong Learning (DLL) the reason behind this, as per UGC, was to bring them in tune with fast expanding global knowledge scenario. 'Since Lifelong Learning has become a fundamental goal of recent educational policies often advocated as a way to achieve a socio-economic development and a tool for promoting knowledge based society, the UGC would extend support to this area during the XIth Plan. The detailed analysis of the UGC document can be found in chapter six, which helps to understand how UGC perceives LLL.

National Five Year Plans-

The discussion of various programs in post-independence period perhaps shows the focus of various plans in India. Nevertheless, a separate section would likely to add more insights in this discussion. It can be seen that the National Five Year Plans provides some important insights of the changing notion of LLL in India. Shah's (1999) analysis helps us to distinguish the different policy priorities related to the changing discourse of LLL in India. Studying the earlier plans of post independence period it can be said that the main aim was to build a nation, with literate people. Looking at the low literacy rates of that time, it was obvious for the government to focus on this aspect. It was life oriented and social education was the main program approach. Later (1967-1977), during the nation building process, the focus was on the work oriented learning and functional literacy. Farmers Education, Functional Literacy, Workers' Schools were the major programs. A major change came with the setting of National Literacy Mission (NLM) and the idea of learning society defined the continuing education as a '' broad concept which includes all of the learning opportunities, which all people want or need outside of basic literacy and primary education program'' (UNESCO: 1987). Shah (1999) highlighted this period as the era of social change (1978-1995) where the focus mainly concentrated on literacy and continuing education. However, what could also be found form the later studies that there is a presence of another stage after 1995.

A major shift in the policy direction can be perceived, especially in post 2000 period, where the focus started to shift form literacy to revised adult educational programs, university oriented LLL programs, professional and vocational education programs and so on. Along with these, entered the modern conceptualization of LLL. Studying

the national plans of post 2000 period, it can be said that they are focusing not just making India a literate society, but also a knowledge based society, which, inevitably demands more than just literacy or basic education. In this regard, the policy orientation of the latest Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-2017) can be mentioned, which clearly states that in the present circumstances, literacy is just the entry point of basic education and LLL is essential today for survival and enhancing peoples' lives. It is important in the knowledge based competitive economy and the basic learning abilities are certainly not enough to be able to manage information and knowledge in a critical and reasonable manner and use them wherever they are available (Planning Commission, 2013C: 88). There are detailed discussion on the dimensions of LLL on the latest plans in chapter six. Nevertheless, it can probably be understood that there is a major shift of focus from that of the earlier plans to the latest one. This change is the key area of investigation in this study, which is done analytically, in the following chapters.

Conclusion

Here, in this chapter, an attempt is made to capture the changing notions of LLL by describing different programs according to the timeline. Although this chapter is more descriptive in nature, nonetheless, it can be found that the programs have been defined, redefined and revised the periphery of LLL.

It can be seen that initially learning represented a much wider concept of learning throughout the life. It also represented a view of unrestricted view of learning. However, over time, and with shackling social norms and complexities, LLL became mostly synonymous with non-formal adult literacy initiatives and hence became quite limited in its scope. This has helped reshaping the dimension of LLL up to a great extent. Since then, it has mostly evolved, without much revolutionary changes. Furthermore, the initiatives taken during that time to promote learning were also very fragmented and failed to represent any clear direction of organized national educational development. Even during the British period, with some exceptions, the overall scenario of learning was fairly limited in its scope. It is perhaps, not an overstatement that during that time, the goal of learning was unclear and it was going through a long tunnel of problems. However, during the last phase of the British era in India, a blurred direction in this regard can be observed. It became solely non-formal and neglected as a whole. The same tradition continued for some time after independence due to poor planning, implementation and various other reasons. Later, a major part of this chapter discusses the movement of adult and continuing education and other related initiatives to express the dimensions of LLL It shows that LLL was narrowed down to literacy and related activities in post-independence era.

From the very first program after independence, to the twenty-first century initiatives, the dimensions of LLL, however have been modified quite a lot. Initially the aim was to literate adults. Then it changed to literate all and now, it includes all kinds of educations; ranging from formal, non-formal to informal and considers the global dimensions of LLL into account, which represents through the latest plans and policies. However, the question remains, why is it changing recently? What are the major factors and how are

they initiating the changes? These questions lead the discussion and the analysis in all the following chapters.

To do the analysis systematically and methodically, it is important to follow the guideline provided by the selected theoretical model by Peter Jarvis (2007, 2008), where the model insists to look into the matter by initially dividing into different social layers (e.g. international, national, regional, etc.). Therefore, after the discussion of the chronological development of the concept of LLL in India, the study intends to start its analytical process by discussing the dimensions of LLL form international levels. The idea is to critically analyze it in the international policy level, followed by the same in the national one. These two consecutive chapters would help to get a fuller picture of the issue of the changing dimensions of LLL, which leads to a better core analysis section.

[This page is intentionally left blank]

chapter

5

Elements of Lifelong Learning in Major Transnational Organizations

Chapter 5

Elements of Lifelong Learning in Major Transnational Organizations

Introduction

This chapter, following the theoretical model by Jarvis (2007, 2008), analyzes the dimensions of lifelong learning (LLL) in the transnational level. It focuses mostly on the transnational policy aspects and tries to find out different perceptions and dimensions of LLL present in the transnational organizations. This chapter could unveil different standpoints of the transnational organizations regarding LLL. These standpoints are often related to broader ideologies and goals, which influence them to promote policies in such a way, which could benefit their interests. Policies at different levels do the job with their own agendas and often backed-up by their existing administrative set ups. Apart from the national and regional policies, there are transnational organizations, which also form policies and it is seen that in many cases, they are quite powerful in terms of influencing individual states or their policies; which in turn influence the nation. In contemporary time, transnational organizations play an important role in the development of policies for LLL, which in turn, is influencing the education policies at different levels.

Among the transnational agencies whose policies and practice influence LLL, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the European Union (EU), Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the World Bank (WB) are leading. Here, in this chapter, we briefly discuss four of them to see how LLL has been promoted by these organizations. All of these transnational organizations' policies have a profound influence on the contemporary renewing dimension of LLL in India and the rest of the world. This discussion could provide us a guideline to see the changes in perspectives among these organizations and help us to see the gradual modification of policies inside each organization. It can also raise questions and helps to reveal the implicit ideas and concepts of the policy of the political agencies. It can be said that policy is not just restricted exclusively in actions. 'It begins with questions, continues through processes (decision- making procedures) and ends with the impact of the actions that provoke new policy questions' (Papadakis and Gravaris 2002:2). However, the purpose of this chapter is not to criticize further any specific aspect (e.g. economic) of lifelong learning in policy arena, but to historically

explore the changes inside each organization regarding the concept of lifelong learning and also analyze it in the context of globalization in contemporary time.

This chapter is, therefore, significant for several reasons. First, it could help to explore some of the multidimensionality and complexity of lifelong learning among different organizations and analyze its importance in the global policy arena. It may contribute to the understanding of the increasing link between globalization and LLL, which is possibly gaining an ever increasing importance. Finally this chapter could encourage further studies at national levels for better understanding of the complexities and the changing situations related to the changing dimensions of LLL.

However, before the beginning of the discussion, it is important to mentions that there are confusions among academics regarding when and how LLL started getting importance in the policy arena. John Field says during 1990s, it started to emerge onto the policy scene 'with the suddenness of a new fashion' (Field, 2006:11). Peter Jarvis contradicts his view, and argues that the foundations underlying the 'policy shift were carefully laid for many years but they went unrecognized by many of us' (Jarvis 2007:69). He refers back to 1910s and 20s to find the evidences of LLL in the policy area. He (and others) finds that only in 1960s, the elements of LLL started being mentioned in transnational level policies. In 1960s and 70s, the idea was adopted by UNESCO (Jarvis, 2007; Rubenson, 2006). UNESCO was, in fact, the first wide spread transnational organization who championed lifelong education and latter LLL internationally. We therefore start with UNESCO's policies as an important and pioneering organization and agent of change in this arena.

UNESCO on LLL:

UNESCO was established in 1945 as a United Nation's agency responsible for promoting educational, cultural and scientific matters among its member states. In 1972, the 'Faure Commission' (by Edgar Faure) first benchmarked the lifelong education in the policy arena. Books were written from UNESCO publication on closely related matters [such as Foundations of LLL by Dave (ed.)] before or during 70s. The important thing is that, the Faure Report stressed on two ideas, lifelong education and the learning society. It states that-

> Every individual must be in a position to keep learning throughout his life. The idea of lifelong education is the keystone of the learning society. The lifelong concept covers all aspects of education, embracing everything in it, with the whole being more than the sum of its parts (Faure et. al., 1972: 181-82).

The report laid the path of continuing education, where an individual can come back to learn after his/her initial education. This approach therefore asks for an open and flexible system. It recognizes formal, non-formal and informal education and stresses on the expansion of basic education, pre-school education, and teacher-education. However, the general and idealistic nature of the report and its optimism created a period of 'romanticism' (Jarvis 2008:68). Throughout 70s and 80s, UNESCO championed their ideologies and it became the basis of many national education policies around the world,

mainly developed world. In developing world, it could not influence much as UNESCO's approach towards LLL was, to many, a luxury of the developed world. Many publications had been done during this time but the concept of lifelong education could not get out of its vague ideas. Nonetheless, it coined two topics: the foundations of lifelong education and pedagogical and curriculum aspects of it (Rubenson 2006:159). It also prepared the base for 'life wide' dimension of the LLL.

By the end of 80s, other policies by OECD, EU and the World Bank suppressed the UNESCO's idealistic view on lifelong education (Mundy 1999, Jarvis 2007). UNESCO then formed the Delors committee, to reflect on education and learning of present time. Moreover, the policies of this time was flooded with the economic notions of lifelong education and to UNESCO, it was a great concern. In 1996, UNESCO published Delors Report or the report "Learning the Treasure Within" and came back to the transnational policy arena of LLL once again. Twenty-eight years after the Faure's report, it finally replaced 'lifelong education' with 'lifelong learning'. Like the previous one, this report is also based on humanistic approach but it also focuses on the link between learning and world of work. It acknowledges the need to 'rethink and update the concept of lifelong education so as to reconcile three forces: competition, which provides incentives; co-operation, which gives strength; and solidarity, which unites' (Delors 1996:18 in Añonuevo et al 2001:3). It stresses on the issue of making a whole human being, which could be taken as a criticism to other major policies focusing mainly at work and economy as a means of LLL.

> There is a need to rethink and broaden the notion of lifelong education, not only must it adapt the changes in the world of work, but it must also constitute a continuous process of forming whole human being- their knowledge and aptitude, as well as the critical faculty and the ability to act (Delors, 1996:21).

The most significant contribution of the Delors Report is the introduction of four pillars of learning. These four pillars are 'learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together and learning to be'. Learning to know focuses towards the changes in the society, the economic and social activities and mentions the importance of a foundation for learning throughout life. The second pillar is learning to do. It emphasizes on the competencies and need of practical knowledge to strive in this changing world. The importance is given on the world of work and constant up-gradation. Learning to be, is another important among the four, highlights the importance of a stronger sense of a personal responsibility for the attainment of common goal. It also signifies the importance of human talents, which are needed to be untapped. The last pillar is the 'learning to live together,' which stands for peace and promotes the concept of a global village, mutual harmony and anti-discrimination. 'At the same time, there is a recognition that developing countries need to embrace the world of science and technology and challenge this poses. In the document, UNESCO mentions a varied situation of tensions, which are taken into consideration by the educational planners. These are;

- Tension between the global ad local
- Tension between the universal and the individual
- Tension between traditional and modern
- Tension between long-termed and short-term considerations
- Tension between on the competition and equality of opportunity
- Tension between extraordinary expansion of knowledge and human being's capacity to assimilate it, and
- Tension between the spiritual and the material' (Rubenson, 2006:166).

This report provides us another way to look at LLL, which is different from UNESCO's own views of 1970s and different from other transnational organizations of that time. This report has become influential among adult educators but, unfortunately, filed to influence the education policies as a whole. It could not, constructively, provide a guideline on how the four pillars can be implemented and achieved in all sections of a society. The lack of operational elements forced it to remain another utopian report, apart from making some significant theoretical contributions.

Only recently, UNESCO has started to come up with some important changes in its activity and policies. UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Education in Hamburg, Germany has been converted to UNESCO Institute for LLL (UIL). This symbolic change of name seems carrying a much specific change in direction in the way they look at LLL. Significantly, UIL reports now mention about accreditation of prior learning, collaboration with the world of work and knowledge economy without neglecting the issue of literacy and basic education. In the recent (December 2009 in Belem, Brazil) global campaign for education and conglomeration of national leaders, the CONFINTEA VI, several issues have come up. The CONFINTEA VI[24] recognizes that;

> We face structural shifts in production and labor markets, growing insecurities and anxieties in everyday life, difficulties in achieving mutual understanding, and now a deepening world economic and financial crisis. At the same time, globalization and the knowledge economy force us to update and adapt our skills and competences to new work environments, forms of social organization and channels of communication. These issues, and our urgent collective and individual learning demands, question our tenets and assumptions in this area and some aspects of the foundations of our established educational systems and philosophies (UNESCO, 2010:11).

Globalization, more specifically the economic globalization seems forcing UNESCO to modify its policies and that argument can be further strengthened by their latest important report 'Towards Knowledge Societies' (UNESCO 2005). LLL, according to this report, can provide a response to the growing job volatility that most forecasters predict. As people will be changing jobs several times in a lifetime, and education can no longer

[24] CONFINTEA VI- The Sixth Transnational Conference on Adult Education hosted by the Government of Brazil in Belém from 1 to 4 December 2009 (UNESCO, CONFINTEA VI).

be limited to offering a single specialization, LLL must develop each person's ability to change course during his or her lifetime, and to cope with economic and social change (UNESCO 2005:77). In their paper on 'Learning to Do: Values for Learning and Working Together in a Globalized World' UNESCO clearly emphasizes on the pragmatic, applicable side of LLL and redefines 'learning to do'.

> Learning to do can no longer have the simple meaning of preparing someone for a clearly defined task [and] can no longer be regarded as the simple transmission of a more or less routine practice. The ascendancy of knowledge and information is bringing personal competence to the fore [...]. Employers are seeking competence, a mix, specific to each individual, of skill, social behavior, of an aptitude for teamwork, and of initiative and a readiness to take risks (UNESCO, 2005:4).

UNESCO also modifies the other three pillars of LLL, first mentioned in the Delors report. The new definition includes some important aspects. It suggests that;

- **Learning to Know**: The knowledge and information needed to work in a globalized, information society and knowledge economy, and the tools for learning how to learn and to independently acquire knowledge;
- **Learning to Be:** The all-round development of the whole person, to fulfill his/her highest potential, and be able to think, decides and acts independently—the source of creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship;
- **Learning to Live Together**: Developing an awareness and understanding of oneself and others, managing conflict and working together in a spirit of mutual respect and interdependence (UNESCO, 2005).

The revised explanations of the four pillars suggest that UNESCO's concern about the changing world and a rather clearer guideline on where to put importance among many. In spite of a rather revised oracle in a particular report, UNESCO reports in post 2000 period are mystifying and ambiguous in focus. However, it is very important to note that UNESCO, by emphasizing the work, more than that of its previous reports, does not neglect the idea development of a whole person. LLL therefore, 'must contribute to the all-round development of each individual—mind and body, intelligence, sensitivity, aesthetic sense, personal responsibility and spiritual values' (UNESCO: 2010).

UNESCO's position in the world of policy is mostly considered a 'referee' (Bhola 2008). In many cases, it is driven by the ideological position and therefore imagines of a utopian world. It could be justified from an ideologist's point of view, but from a rational and factual point of view, UNESCO's view is rather unclear and superficial in focus. The change of terms or names is another issue noteworthy in this regard. The preference of names have shifted from 'adult education', 'fundamental education', 'social education' in 1950s to 'adult learning', 'lifelong education' 'adult education and learning' and finally to 'LLL'. Although almost all the terms are still in use but the degree and relevance suggests a shift in preferences in the course of time.

This changing nature and meaning of LLL within policy arena can also be seen in other transnational organizations. The European Union is one of them. Although EU policies are mainly designed for its member states, nonetheless, EU is a considered by many, as a major contributor in championing, renewing and re-modifying the dimensions of LLL. For the present Indian dimensions of LLL, the following discussion could be useful as EU policies on LLL do influence other national policies and India is not an exception in this case.

The European Union on LLL:

The European Union (EU) as a major supra-national organization (first of its kind) made a significant change in its policy domain through their championing of LLL in the 1990s. The 1992 Treaty of the European Union, or Maastricht Treaty, provided the legal basis for the European Commission (EC) to develop its *European year of LLL* in 1996 (Papadakis & Gravaris 2002). Since then the EU tries to promote the learning concept, in both theory and practice (Murphy, 2005). In the year 2000, Commission published a memorandum (Memorandum on LLL, EC, 2000), which argues that LLL is no longer 'just one aspect of education and training; it must become the guiding principle for provision and participation across the full continuum of learning contexts' (EC, 2000: 3). To understand EU's view on LLL it is important to go through the evolution of the concept of LLL within the policy domain of the Commission. The following section is therefore divided into two section based on timeline. This helps to analyze its present discourse of LLL critically.

Pre 1992: LLL and the EU

Prior to the 1970s, little interest was generated by individual member states regarding a common education policy in the community. It was only in the 1970s that any effort was made to co-ordinate education policies among different member states. The 1970s marked a watershed for European political economy – a period in which individual European states were forced to combine and co-ordinate their economic agendas. This force was due to renewed pressure from the interpenetration of capital (Murphy, 2005). Since the end of the 1980's, the European, education systems have been going through a flow of criticism and reforms: decentralization, deregulation of the programs, more attention to skills than that of knowledge, diverse partnerships between education and industry, massive introduction of Information and Communication Technology (ICT), fast development of private initiatives, for profit education.

Prior to 1992, the treaty of Rome outlined only the role of the community in implementing Vocational Training initiatives. The Education policy at that time was legally under each member state. The two different articles introduced clearly the Quality Education and Vocational Training (Article 128EEC and 126). It included the Vocational Training because of its direct link with the economic development. However, the issue of education and its role in European integration was less decisive (Murphy, 2005). According to Khan (1994 in Murphy, 2005), "laws of education and matters relating to it as such do not presently fall within the powers of the EU, but remain […]

matters of national competence". Eventually, EU expanded its remit from purely vocational training to the general field of education, by removing discrimination in national education laws. It includes education under the banner of vocational training (Gould, 1989; Shaw, 1992; in Murphy, 2005).It is significant that positive integration efforts such as ERASMUS[25] and ESPRIT[26] in relation to education were agreed to by member states more or less simultaneously with the achievement of a consensus regarding the viability of the 1992 single market project. At this stage, education, along with training, was deemed an important factor in European integration. The role of education in the single market became necessary and probably inevitable in the EU policy domain (Murphy, 2005).

1992 and Beyond: LLL and the European Union

The introduction of the Maastricht Treaty (7 February 1992) brought a huge transformation to the role of education in the EU. It introduced a distinction between education and training. By that time, the EC started to look at the completion of internal market to greater adoptability and mobility of the workforce in the industrial era and tried to safeguard the competitive position of European industry on world markets (EC 1994:15). In 1993, the Commission published a White Paper entitled *Growth, Competitiveness, and Employment: The Challenges and Ways Forward into the 21st Century* (EC, 1993). Later on In 1995, another White Paper was published, on education and training, entitled '*Teaching and Learning: towards the Learning Society*'. These documents acted as the 'launching pad' (Papadakis et. al., 2002) for the European Year of LLL as well as the clear trend towards Learning. Since the launch of the year, the EU has clearly pushed the agenda of LLL within both its own area of competence and in the jurisdiction of each member states. In a projecting manner, the 1995 White Paper spelt out:

> Everyone must be able to seize their opportunities for improvement in society and for personal fulfillment, irrespective of their social origin and educational background (EC, 1995:3).

Within one year and through the introduction of the European Year of LLL in 1996, EC pushed LLL to the forefront with top priority within Europe. The main interest to promote LLL was to manage the continued work of the workers (Rubenson 2004). This view was criticized heavily. In 2000 and afterwards, policies brought major change in direction. A Memorandum on LLL (EC 2000) seems to indicate the beginning of a paradigm shift where social and economic changes are interrelated. Three major institutional arrangements are given equal importance, namely the state, market and civil society. Since then, this combined dimension has dominated the EU policy strategy (Rubenson, 2002). Therefore, the expansion of the ideologies of LLL within EU should not be viewed as of economic means only as it is related to a major social and political

[25] ERASMUS is the EU's flagship education and training program, enabling 200 000 students to study and work abroad each year. In addition, it funds co-operation between higher education institutions across Europe. The program not only supports students, but also professors and business staff who want to teach abroad, as well as helping university staff to receive training (European Commission).

[26] ESPRIT- European Strategic Program on Research in Information Technology (ESPRIT).

project. The aim was also to reunite Europe after the world war and focusing on a cohesive economic up-gradation plan, which could serve the purposes well.

The major interest in LLL can be found on the documents of European Round Table of Industries (ERT), where they identify the main problem of the industry and its main point of view on different kinds of education policies (basic education, higher education, vocational training, and management training along with a LLL chapter). Through that paper and other relevant documents, ERT identified the importance of LLL and the better coordination among member states. Since then EU tries to concentrate on more coordination among its member states as a more powerful supra national organization (Papadakis & Gravaris, 2002). The idea of economic development and social-harmony are given high importance and the Commission espoused employability, active citizenship, social inclusion and personal fulfillment as four aims of LLL (EC, 2001a). The Commission also suggests six key areas of development for the development of LLL. These are:

1. New Basic Skills for all - Objective: Guarantee universal and continuing access to learning for gaining and renewing the skills needed for sustained participation in the knowledge society. This is also the essential foundation for active citizenship and employability.
2. More investment in Human Resources - Objective: Visibly raise levels of investment in human resources in order to place priority on people
3. Innovation in teaching and learning - Objective: Develop effective teaching and learning methods and contexts for the continuum of lifelong and life-wide learning
4. Valuing Learning - Objective: Significantly improve the ways in which learning participation and outcomes are understood and appreciated, particularly non-formal and informal learning.
5. Rethinking Guidance and Counseling - Objective: Ensure that everyone can easily access good quality information and advice about learning opportunities throughout Europe and throughout their lives.
6. Bringing Learning closer to home - Objective: Provide LLL opportunities as close to learners as possible, in their own communities and supported through ICT-based facilities wherever appropriate.

(EC, 2000: 10-18)

This heightened emphasis on the economy and individual's responsibility is closely embedded in a changing understanding and articulation of the very concept of LLL and a move away from a preoccupation with education to a focus on learning (Rubenson & Griffin, 1999 in Rubenson, 2004). Rubenson (2004) has divided this time-period (From early70s until date) into three parts (First generation: the humanistic era, the 1970s; Second generation: the strong economistic era, 1985-2000; Third Generation: The soft version of the 'economistic paradigm' 2000—till date) to get the whole idea of progression of the 'learning' concept within EU. Nonetheless, this compound idea of LLL bought many major changes and within policy domain, the notion of paradigm has been changed from education towards learning. This paradigm shift brings many other

changes within the EU policy and administrative domain. Although individual member states' policies are still dominated by their 'national education policies' and individual member states act upon most of their educational and economic decision, but EU, as a supranational organization is highly influential on its member states with its political stand on LLL. As a result, this paradigm is acknowledged by its member states, which help changing their internal policies of economy (making it more open), and transnational relations (more outreaching). These relations (at bilateral and multilateral levels) influence other national entities who shares political, economic and other relations with these states.

The multidimensional aspect (state-civil society and market etc.) of LLL is also incorporated to make Europe a homogenized place in terms of its economic and educational means. It is seen that economic inequality leads to unequal educational attainments. Therefore LLL is used here to make the ground as level as possible. In addition, the increased migration to developed states of Europe and outside Europe is of a great concern as this could relate to internal anxiety and broadly with the concept of brain drain. At a national level, LLL therefore, could bring a plethora of educational options, service providers and learners, who are willing to learn and invest for it. The emphasis on learning rather than education in European Commission's policy is thus, highly significant because it reduces the traditional preoccupation with structures and institutions, and instead focuses on individual, civil society and market at the same time (Tuijnman and Brostrom, 2002:102). The basis of the white paper is the concern of every European citizen, young or adult .This learner-centric approach is related with changing economic scenario of the postmodern economy. This changing discipline is in focus; replaced by more reflexive, pragmatic and experiential approach, which places the learner at the heart of learning process. At the same time, knowledge has become a commodity based on marker principles. Among all these active features, learning plays a central role for both workers and employers. It also plays a positive role for the civil society, as they can be more flexible in terms of their liabilities to the citizens. From a national level, it brings educational and economic benefits and marketing their services seamlessly in a transnational market. For the EU, at a supranational level, LLL brings an opportunity to make Europe a better place for economic activity as this economy is largely considered as knowledge economy. LLL, here, can fulfill a number of mandates at ones,-those of the state, the Union, market and society (Chapman, 2000:17) and foster the economic growth to achieve the Lisbon objectives.

It is to note that, the EU, as a supranational organization has made several changes to its dimensions on LLL over time. However, a major part of it is consisting of economic success in the age of globalization. The Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) is another important transnational organization, which is persistent with its economic outlook of LLL. However, as explained in case of UNESCO and EU that the policies related to LLL are not solely unidirectional. There are other sub directions, notions, connotations and all of these create a combined picture of the dimension of LLL of a particular entity. Therefore, it seems worth finding out the dimension of LLL in OECD, which could help to reveal its relation with the EU and

other policies and overall contribute in the discussion of the changing understanding of LLL.

OECD on LLL

The Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) was officially formed in 1961 from its predecessor, The Organization for European Economic Cooperation (OEEC) for the optimum economic development, prosperity and standard of living in its member countries and increase business and trade among both its member and non-member countries. Today, OECD has 34 member countries and it maintains close relation with India, China and other emerging superpowers (OECD[27]). Although it had started before the economic globalization of the 90s, OECD maintained neo-liberal outlook throughout and in initial stages, it did not include education as a concern for the organization (Papadopoulos 1994).

After the World Wars, enrolment in education had increased rapidly and several studies came up regarding the positive relation between investment in education and economic growth. Importance were given on the development of human capital, which can benefit from the technological improvements of post-war period. OECD, meanwhile appeared as a 'prophet' (Rubenson, 2006:153) with its increased interest in education and organized the first conference on education named, Economic Growth and Investment in Education (1961). In consequence, they published an array of policy papers, which inspired its member states and other countries around the world to expand education in the name of economic prosperity (Rubenson, 2006:153). However, the focus was mainly on formal education and this limitation made their policies less productive in real world. Therefore, OECD came up with another solution by introducing the term 'recurrent education', which, at a glance, was similar to UNESCO's term 'continuing education' but was actually different in many aspects. The aim of this was to provide governments with practical ways of realizing lifelong education (OECD 1973). It mentioned;

> The concept of 'recurrent education' intends to propose a concrete framework within which a great part of the individual's LLL can take place. It differs from the concept of 'permanent education' by making the principles of alternation between education and other activities central to the definition (OECD, 1973:12).

The basic objectives were:

- to reduce educational disparities between the older and younger generations;
- to strengthen the efficiency of the labor market and the economy,
- to increase better coordination between different education administrations (primary, secondary, higher education and adult education) and to better coordinate between different government departments (education, labor and economic) (OECD 1976).

[27] From the OECD Website – link http://www.oecd.org/pages/0,3417,en_36734052_36761863_1_1_1_1_1,00.html (accessed, 1 January 2011)

Although, apparently the rhetoric of recurrent education seems so noble, but deep down, it is pragmatic and related with the educational crisis of that time. Moreover, it was primarily promoted as a response to the question of how to constantly maintain a good fit between student profiles, the competencies of the labor force and the needs of the labor market (Lindensjo, 1981 in Rubenson, 2006:155). However, there were limitations. It did not properly address the issue of quality and the operational guideline was somehow unclear. Almost no country followed this guideline and before the end of 1970s, the term 'recurrent education' had disappeared.

In early 1980s the overall policy context changed due to the second oil crisis of 1978-79 and OECD recommended a stricter public expenditure policy to governments (Bengtsson, 2009:1). Recurrent education and LLL took a back sit during this time. At the end of 1980s, OECD came back with its policies on LLL; and this time it directly proposed education as a generator of economic growth. It is important to note that by this time, the economic globalization started spreading its wings all over. It was also the booming period of global capitalism and technological revolution. Therefore, the demand for up-graded skills and competition gained utmost importance at the enterprise level and OECD's policy soon became popular. As a response to the economic development, the OECD published its report in consecutive years (OECD, 1989). In its 1989 report *Education and the Economy in a Changing Context, OECD* stressed on LLL as a means to increase human capital. It has been labeled as the second generation of human capital thinking in educational policy where continuous up-gradation of skill and competencies for the workforce was a must (Rubenson, 1992, 2004; Bengtsson, 2009). The impact was profound:

> The 1989 report quickly became a Bible not only for ministers but also for their colleagues holding labor portfolios. In fact, it is difficult to find any policy document where educational policy is not discussed in the context of the challenges and threats of global competition and new technologies. In the OECD's search if an overarching strategy to address the new challenges, the principles of LLL made its comeback (Rubenson, 2006:162).

OECD clearly started embracing a more flexible path in education. It mentioned that "education is less clearly distinct from what that which is 'the economy'" (OECD 1989:19). This report was criticized due to its unidirectional and less humanistic approach between the economy and learning.

During 1990s, the globalization became more rapid, profound and wide spread and hence more significant. OECD continued focusing on the human resource development aspect, but with a renewed focus on the knowledge economy. LLL constantly became a theme in the conferences and discussions and OECD policies became the dominant economic policies of the developed world. In fact, the major European Union policies followed almost identical path to OECD's. According to Tuijnman and Brostrom (2002) and Rubenson (2006), OECD did not try to revive the 'recurrent education' through its latest policies. Rather it was replaced by LLL, which is wider, less specific, and less

structured. Jarvis, however, mentioned five clear arguments for the dimension of LLL championed by OECD. These are:

- Learning economy
- Speed and change due to technology
- Education throughout the life-cycle
- Social well being of individuals, and
- Social cohesion (Jarvis 2008:43-44)

The new language of social inclusion could be the consequence of being excluded from the society. Alternatively, the increasing gap between the developed and the deprived and the result of uneven internal development could also be the justification for the efforts related to social cohesion and equality. We can get a sense of this from the report Education and Equity in OECD Countries:

> Education should not be considered exclusively in terms of meeting other ends (better employment prospects, income changes, greater security), but as promoting social and cultural participation, and thereby contributing to the reduction of marginality and exclusion (OECD, 1997:103).

OECD repeated the rhetoric of social inclusion and civil society in a rather continuous manner through its policies (OECD 1997a, 1997b, 1997d, 1998 etc.) However, the basic question is how far OECD can extend itself to prioritize the social needs. OECD itself mentioned the organizational framing for a continuous juggling of economic and social priorities (Henry et al. 2001:82). It promoted 'social investment' over 'social expenditure,' which could counter public resistance to a market economy and technological change (Henry et al 2001:82). At this moment, the motive behind the social inclusion seems ambiguous and it is perhaps clear that the main aim continues to focus on economic development following a neo-liberal ideology over welfare ideologies.

One of the achievements of OECD is to develop indicators to measure LLL and make further recommendations based on the results. Starting from late 90s, OECD is leading this section. One of their most successful measuring systems is Program for Transnational Student Assessment or PISA followed by the new launch of PIAAC[28] (Program for the Transnational Assessment of Adult competences. However, there are considerable amount of discussion going on the methodology, accuracy and the politics of these measurements[29]. According to Henry et al (2001:96), OECD tries to make an extending number of countries into a single competitive field. Nonetheless, these studies, surveys and developed statistical methods provide indicators and a stronger base for LLL policies. For policy makers, it also makes LLL easier to accept and help predict its future in quantitative terms as it appears to be measurable and not a vogue anymore. It gives the epistemological base and imparts the sense of efficiency in achievement of desired standards. This means achieving highest possible result using least resources.

[28] Study the competency of adults in the age brackets from 16 to 65.
[29] See OECD Globalization and Education Policy by Henry et al (2001) chapter 5 for more on this issue

The rhetoric for LLL inside OECD policy domain, thus mostly dominated by a more result oriented, demand driven paradigm where aims are set, standards are created and systems are modified to attain the goals. The analysis of OECD's human capital and adult education also suggests us that one of the main aims is to impart an active labor market policy, also in the welfare states so that the newly unemployed population can go to work quickly which also means removing the burden of the social benefits of the state (OECD, 1994, 1995). The concept of adult learning, therefore, comes in forefront in OECD's agenda. However, OECD also acknowledges that literacy and initial education is the base for economic success (OECD 1989, 1996 etc.). This pragmatic view of OECD's dimension of LLL increased the interests of not only the member countries, but also others who have the knowledge stocks. The shift from 'recurrent education, which has an implicit 'social demand', is replaced by the 'LLL' which focuses on 'individual demand'. In other words, within OECD policy domain, LLL is not perceived 'as a right to be exercised, but as a necessary requirement of participation" in economic life and civil society' (OECD, 1996: 89 in Henry et. al., 2001:121).

Like OECD, World Bank (WB) has also followed an economic way of policy formulation in a utilitarian way. WB is not only limited within national and continental dimension, like the European Union, but it is a player in transnational policy arena, spreading across many countries, both developed and developing. Therefore, the policies and stands on LLL and education as a whole would certainly be capable of making significant influences at national and global scale. The following section tries to explore the conceptualization and dimensions of LLL of World Bank by discussing and analyzing their policies and documents.

World Bank on LLL

The WB was established in 1944 and presently has 187 member countries. According to the World Bank, its main aim is to "fight poverty with passion and professionalism for lasting results and to help people help themselves and their environment by providing resources, sharing knowledge, building capacity and forging partnerships in the public and private sectors" (World Bank Website). The Bank's documents on education in general and LLL in particular suggest strong linkages with the aim mentioned above. However, as it portraits itself as a ´bank´, it carries a more economic notion towards the issues it discusses. In its landmark report ´*LLL in the Global Knowledge Economy-Challenges for Developing Countries*´, ´it encourages countries to look beyond traditional approaches to education and training and to engage in a policy dialogue on the pedagogical and economic consequences of LLL´ (World Bank 2003:xv). The document continues to emphasize on saying that:

> A LLL framework encompasses learning throughout the lifecycle, from early childhood through retirement. It encompasses formal learning (schools, training institutions, universities); non-formal learning (structured on-the job training); and informal learning (skills learned from family members or people in the

community). It allows people to access learning opportunities, as they need them rather than because they have reached a certain age (World Bank, 2003: xvii).

According to Peter Jarvis (2008: 37), the WB has a restricted definition of LLL, which is 'neo-liberal' in many ways. Probably because the World Bank recognizes education and LLL as a solution to almost everything like the new age economic situation, inequality, social cohesion, poverty alleviation and so on. Jarvis contradicts this view saying that finding education as a universal solution is not justified and in real world, the situations are more complex. They are consisting of many other important factors, which are beyond generalization. As these assumptions need much more discussion, we will therefore, focus on its major documents and policies on education and try to reveal the understanding of LLL championed by the WB.

WB mainly influences the education and related developmental issues in developing countries by funding projects and lending money. The Structural Adjustment Policies (SAP) of 1980s, jointly by the World Bank and Transnational Monetary Fund (IMF), set the base for WB to successfully contribute in the arena of global education policy. It was a conditional money-lending project where countries are supposed to make structural changes in their educational systems. The main conditions are there to promote:

- Reduction of public expenditures on education, especially in post-school education;
- Introduction of tuition fees wherever possible and necessary;
- Deregulation;
- More and direct involvement of market in educational sectors.

This pro, free-market strategy influenced by the ´Washington Consensus´[30] was criticized heavily across borrowing nations. To many, it was infringement to national sovereignty. It was criticized also because it was less effective and mostly negative for the borrowing countries and profitable for rich donor countries like United States of America (USA) and United Kingdom (UK) (Stewart, 1995; Chossudovsky, 1998; Carnoy, 1995). However, this policy (not only educational) has had a major impact on the overall policy discourse as SAPs set a new culture of understanding policy process and policy change. ´Rather than helping developing countries to achieve context-based educational goals, it defines in advance, which policy goals are desirable and determines whether a country can receive financial assistance. These policy conditions have located the WB as the main subject of globalization of education´ (Bonal, 2002:4). This ´narrow´ outlook towards education brings out WB´s perception on education (during 1980s) where it promotes a quasi-market strategy throughout and links economic development with national, transnational planning and education in a more materialistic and propagandistic way. During this era of Washington Consensus, the WB´s perception to LLL seems to limit itself to barely a profit-making tool where economic benefit was the main and perhaps

[30] See World Bank (1995, 1999a, 1999b), Chossudovsky, M. (1998) for better understanding of the policy issues, effect and other different aspects of the Washington Consensus and its consequences on national education and economic situation including policies.

the only important aim. There are, however, several other direct and indirect effects on education and national economies relating to this era, which could be found in Bonal's writings (2002) (among others). However, we move on, as this section is to understand WB´s perception on LLL and not the effects on national socio-economic and educational scenarios.

The post Washington Consensus period shows some changes in WB's stand on education and development. In other words, the Bank had to change some elements of its policies because of the negative results and rejection across the developing world. In the new reports (World Bank 1999a, 1999b and World Development Report 2000-2001 etc.) the learning paradigm had been given increased importance. The contextual planning got more importance as compared to the previous one, which argued for a unified approach. This time, the Bank started improvising the role of education with development but put forward its importance in a changing world. It stressed on creating human resources who are dynamic and lifelong learners in many ways. WB emphasizes on the era of increasing globalization, the rapid spread of democracy, technological innovation, the emergence of new market economies, and changing public/private roles, countries with (for these) a need of more highly educated and skilled populations, and individuals with more skills and information to compete and thrive (World Bank, 1999b:vii). In this era of change-

> Tomorrow's workers will need to be able to engage in lifelong education, learn new things quickly, perform more non-routine tasks and more complex problem solving, take more decisions, understand more about what they are working on, require less supervision, assume more responsibility, and […] have better reading, quantitative, reasoning, and expository skills (World Bank, 1999:1).

The documents focuses more on a cohesive approach of LLL, combining all the educational sectors (primary, secondary and tertiary) and patterns (Formal, non-formal, in formal) in such a way, which prove beneficial to the national economic development and poverty mitigation. However, it was not a complete shift from its previous stand, as it continued to support deregulation, open competition and pro-market strategies, even for the poorer developing countries. The issue of economic equality have been emphasized but without mentioning the importance of the redistribution of wealth from the private sector to all sections of the society. It instead focused on increased public-private partnerships, which can be easily related with its ambition to create social capital, skill up-gradation thorough vocational education and training and an opportunity for entering in rather less economically oriented territories such as civil society. Nevertheless, the difference between pre and post Washington Consensus are significant. First, WB modified its aggressive neoliberal model to a softer neo-classical one (Bonal, 2002). Second, the new policy orientation is more socially sensitive, which enables WB to venture into non-economic matters. It also helps to portray the Bank as a more acceptable political agency, much wider than the former economic oriented one.

Recently, after 2000, WB engaged itself more into the learning paradigm through various programs and ambitious projects. *Learning for All: Investing in People's Knowledge and Skills to Promote Development (2011)* as a part of the WB Education Strategy 2020 or the LLL in the Global Knowledge Economy: *Challenges for Developing Countries (2003),* are some of them. In these reports, WB repeatedly mentions about the challenges posed by the present time, the need to change fast and effectively. It also puts high importance on learning and inclusivity and more investment on learning with increased involvement of the civil society to foster it. WB, interestingly, stress more on learning and not on education in its recent documents. The following statement clears this view-

> The new strategy focuses on learning for a simple reason: growth, development, and poverty reduction depend on the knowledge and skills that people acquire, not the number of years that they sit in a classroom (World Bank, 2011:3).

This optimum importance on learning (and not on education´, which to the World Bank refers to a more traditional way of learning) from the post-Washington Consensus to these ´post 2000´ polices has started soon after the new millennium. The 2003 report shows the difference between the traditional learning and the LLL very clearly (see World Bank 2003:29). According to the table provided, educators, who are guides to the source of knowledge, replace teachers, who are considered as source of knowledge. Effective teacher education is also considered as a part of LLL as they are the one to initiate the changes in the formal and non-formal learning systems. The new stress is on the individualized learning, where educators prepare individualized learning plans while being lifelong learners. The learning system joins the initial training and ongoing professional development in a coherent way. Moreover, learning and working together and learning while working are given increased priorities as works today are becoming more interdependent and multidimensional and dynamic in nature. All the way, the WB gives priority to a learner centric approach where learners are supposed to be autonomous, interactive in using tools, able to function in socially heterogeneous groups and able to gain skills and competences throughout his/her lifetime. Skills include technical, interpersonal and methodological skills where technical skills include literacy, foreign language, math, science, problem solving and analytical skills. The Bank thinks ''working on real-life problems or issues that are relevant to participants increases interest and motivation and promotes knowledge transfer'' (Cibulka et. al., 2000; Oxenham et. al., 2002 in World Bank, 2003: 33). Among other, Interpersonal skills consist of teamwork, leadership and ability to communicate effectively. The methodological skills include the ability to be a self-directed pro-active learner, which enables the learner to be a lifelong learner and to face the challenges and risks. Competencies help citizens to better integrate with the changing time and world of work.

WB also prioritizes the need for a better literate society. However, it strongly mentions that the so-called ability to read and write simple texts is not enough in the present society. The Bank (following the OECED 2002 and IALS[31]) mentions the importance of three out of five distinct levels of literacy, which are; ´prose literacy, document literacy

[31] Transnational Adult Literacy Survey (IALS)

and quantitative literacy´ (World Bank 2003:23). These may sound similar to the literacy of 3Rs[32] but demand much more. The reason is rather simple yet convincing. Better skilled people are better performer and easy to be hired and remain employable than the less skilled. Moreover, data shows that even a small increase in literacy can significantly contribute in large social and economic developments.

LLL, in WB documents, is also seen more and more linked with community participation, civil society and extension. The Bank repeatedly highlights the importance of extended learning opportunities among all through various processes (outreach, distance education etc.) and make learning accessible. It recommends the use of modern technologies such as computers and internets and through partnership between the private sector and civil society. Through the access of learning, the Bank coined the possibility of lessening inequalities. This new strategy also comes up with a catchy bottom line. **´Invest early, invest smartly, invest for all´.** This bottom line infers the investment on learning before and beyond schooling, investment, which actually contribute to learning and an investment for all irrespective of their economic or educational superiorities or inferiorities. Four principles underlie investments in LLL:

- All learners should master basic competencies.
- Learners should be responsible for their own learning.
- Governments must be committed to promoting equity.
- A LLL system should promote efficiency in education and labor markets.

(World Bank, 2003)

These principles have been coined before in WB documents ad reports as they represent some of the prime aims of LLL within the Banks policy arena. Based on these standards and through these reforms, the WB aims to build a global knowledge base and focus on three areas - *knowledge generation and exchange, technical and financial support, and strategic partnerships*. The Bank also aims to develop three distinct set of indicators to measure the outcome of learning. These are Performance indicators, outcome indicators and Impact Indicators (World Bank 2011). It seems difficult to predict or judge the policy implications of these reforms on the global arena. Nevertheless, perhaps, it would not be an overstatement, that these new age policies by the Bank are wider in their approach and apparently pose less threats to the developing nations. Probably therefore, the Bank leaps forward and tries to formulate different strategies and recommendations for the developing countries. There are separate policy recommendations for low-income countries, middle-income countries, upper middle-income countries and high-income countries. However, in all sections, the bank tries to inject a sense of increased competition and the need for a radical improvement in the systems of education to a more globally and market oriented one. Depending on the countries' conditions (mainly economic), the Bank recommends such reforms that in one-way or another, lead them towards the competitive knowledge economy and knowledge based society. Thus, this new trend could also possibly mean that the policies are adapted to the development agendas with increased flexibilities and takes selective actions in target countries to implement its strategies. Jarvis (2008: 38) notes that this trend is even more prominent in

[32] Popular in India , 3Rs / Read, Write and basic Arithmetic

the countries, which take loan from the Bank since it is easier for the Bank to place the conditions on these countries.

The overall assessment of WB's policies asserts that the core values have not changed much, although it has widened in scope over time. As argued before, the policies in the post Washington Consensus period have moved to a softer one but still represent key elements in the Bank's orthodoxy (Bonal, 2004: 663). The elements of LLL, within the Bank's domain, therefore mainly confine within economic notion. They are still very much demand driven and market oriented. The focus seems still on creating a better and even ground for the free market economy to perform. However, the initiative of poverty mitigation and equality has been given priority along with the Millennium Development Goals. However, like other WB policies, these initiatives also focus on a top down approach where targets are set to achieve a common accessible ground for the economic success. Bonal (2004) shows that "at present, it is clearly contradictory to observe a Bank that stands for policy processes calling for participation, dialogue and social capital whereas essential aspects of the short education policy menu and lending procedures are unaltered" (Bonal, 2004: 664). Jarvis (2008) recognizes that these duel nature of the policy could actually be beneficial for the developed countries (Jarvis, 2008: 38). Nonetheless, the very recent changes (post 2010) suggest a modification in the Bank's policy, which put more importance on learning for all and consequently on equality. It is, however, early to predict any change in the Bank's core values regarding LLL. We can, however assert that, the long haul criticism from the civil society and academia and the resistance from the poorer countries may have influenced the Bank to modify its policies and its orientations, but overall, it still poses a strong economic nature in a more complex form.

Viewing together – Transnational organizations on LLL

From the above discussion, it can be seen that over time, the concept of LLL has been altered and modified. However, these transnational and supranational organizations carry their signature in individual policies related to LLL. In other worlds, each organization has carried their core stand on LLL, but that too has partly modified over the course of time. It could be noticed that these modifications have happened due to several complex factors ranging from changing economy, globalization to civil society and changing role of individuals. We can see this nature among the UNESCO, the European Union, the OECD and the WB policies. They have different priority areas and focus, although at many points they have similar goals and objectives. Nevertheless, these different stands make their perception of LLL distinct from each other. Starting from UNESCO, we can see that it has changed the name from 'education' to 'learning' but the core values have not changed much (Rubenson, 2006:167). Overall, it still carries a more humanistic tradition, emphasizes on state's role and inclusion of all. Interestingly, UNESCO now acknowledges the power of economic globalization and recently trying to include the economic aspects into the discussion of LLL. The changing nature of work and a need for LLL to achieve a learning society have been linked in recent UNESCO documents along with the existing connections. The European Union and OECD, both emphasize LLL as a part of their employment and labor market policy (Jensen, 2006:207). The discourse of globalization in 'postmodernity' (Kunzel, 2000:209)

have played a major role in curving the facets of LLL within these two organization and in many ways their views are complementary to each other. The European Union is ubiquitous in its perception of LLL, which is spread over all walks of social and economic life. OECD, on the other hand, more persistent in spreading a neo-liberal ideology through is conceptualization of LLL. However, the aims of OECD have widened and now include civil society with increased importance.

Jensen, at this point argues that the market, more specifically the labor market is the dominant element and economy and job creation are put in a high seat (Jensen 2006:208). A similar trend is found in the WB´s perception on LLL. The role of state has given lower priority over a dynamic civil society. A specific set of skills and competencies, needed for the knowledge economy, are given priority among others. Although none of these organizations denies the fact that LLL should be from cradle to grave and it should be life-wide as well, but there seems limitation, and contradictions present with their own conceptualization of LLL. Based on their pro-market or market-indifferent tendencies, it seems plausible to rank these organizations on a continuum, ´with the WB at the hard extreme and UNESCO on the soft extreme. There is a bit of UNESCO trying to move towards the other end. The OECD and EU are towards the World Bank side, but trying to move towards the centre (IN 61: Transnational organizations, 1995 in Henry et. al., 2001:17). Jarvis also expresses this nature in a different way through a model (Jarvis, 2008), which is used in further analysis in later chapters. There, World Bank is on one extreme, but UNESCO is not quite opposing it, It (UNESCO) rather generating fundamentally different forces as a result of its policies. ´OECD and EU exercise considerable force upon member states but states themselves differed not only as a result of the political hue to their governments but initially, as a result to their past response to the neo-liberal pressure of the 1980s (Jarvis, 2008:57).

It is perhaps quite clear, at this point, that LLL is no longer just a concept limited to its theoretical definition of learning from cradle to grave. It is not neutral either. Rather, it is interdependent on a plethora of factors, space and ideologies. The political agenda, the socio-economic goals, moral focus are only some of them to mention. LLL is dynamic and prone to changes depending on the reactions around. Here the word ´around´ could mean the space within which LLL is perceived. It ranges from an individual perspective and space to that of a transnational organization and everything in between. Here, it resembles with the theoretical discussion of LLL in the previous chapter. In fact, after the discussion of the dimensions of LLL of these four organizations, the conceptualization of LLL becomes even more complex. There are several questions emerging out of the discussion above. First, how life-long is LLL in reality? It is seen that most of the limelight is on the economic means and learning, which can support that irrespective of the age and formal qualification. Peter Jarvis, rather prefer this to call it as a ´work life learning´ (Jarvis, 2007, 2008). Therefore, it seems plausible to re-search the life-long and life-wide dimension of LLL in reality. The second question is how LLL has evolved in a specific context? We have seen that the development of LLL is contextual and the evolution of the concept within a certain context might help to get a better grip of its varied understandings before doing further analysis. The third question is, how complex

is LLL in a specific context? As we argue that LLL is more complex than that of the past or than that of its theoretical definitions, we can possibly ask the extent to which LLL becomes complex in a specific context. What are then, the prime factors making the concept of LLL even more complex? Along with this another question emerges, i.e. how LLL is being shaped in a particular context?

These questions seems to demand a systematic analysis of the socio-economic factors focused towards policies. In this regard, it seems important to see how the national policy making bodies are reacting to this issue of LLL. Is there any difference among the major national policies and their approach towards LLL? Studying the transnational policies, it seems to be possible to see more than one dimensions of LLL. However, unlike the transnational once, the national policies are most likely to be interlinked and thus could influence each other significantly. To explore these complex dynamics seems necessary since we are to analyze the complex dynamics of LLL in India. It also seems necessary, following Jarvis's (2007, 2008) theoretical models, where they analyzes the issue in each layer of the society (international, national, regional, etc.). Therefore, following the flow of the arguments in the research and the theoretical models, this study intends to analyze the major national level policies, to explore the dimensions of LLL better, especially for the case of India.

[This page is intentionally left blank]

chapter

6

Elements of LLL in Major Indian Policy Making Bodies

Chapter 6

Elements of LLL in Major Indian Policy Making Bodies

Introduction

In the previous chapter, the dimensions of lifelong learning (LLL) in the major transnational organizations are discussed. It can be seen that there are more than one dimension of LLL internationally, and it is more complex if analyzed critically and from different vantage points. Here, in this chapter, the study tries to take the discussion of LLL form the international policy level to the national policy domains. For this, it considers analyzing the policies of National Knowledge Commission (NKC), Planning Commission of India (PCI) and the University Grants Commission (UGC). These selected Indian national level policies related to LLL or which has elements of LLL, could be useful, to know the changing dimensions of LLL in India. It seems important, since the idea of LLL recently gains much importance in the Indian policy arena, which can be traced from the reports of the NKC in post 2000 period. The chapter shows that, many of the recommendations of NKC are included in the (eleventh) XIth (2007-2012) and (twelfth) XIIth (2012- 2017) National Five Year Plans by the PCI after necessary alterations. Only recently (2008), the first ever, national level document dedicated to LLL has been published by the UGC to implement the resolutions taken in the XIth Five Year Plan. Moreover, in the recent XIIth plan, the discourse of LLL has got increased importance. The interesting thing is that at every stage, from NKC to PCI to UGC, there are some significant changes in the dimensions of LLL to make it more realistic yet globally viable. Hence, a systematic study of these policies, could explain the dimensions of LLL form policy (NKC) to plan (PCI- XIth), to guideline (UGC) and finally carried forward in the latest plan for the next five years (PCI- XIIth).

The discussion of the documents by the commissions (University Grants Commission, Planning Commission and National Knowledge Commission) helps the analysis in this and in the next chapter. It also helps to open up several key issues, dilemmas and contradictions related to LLL in India. The discussion starts with an introduction of the NKC followed by the discussion of the PCI and UGC. However, this chapter does not brief the other specific documents except the one by UGC as the other documents are not dedicated to LLL, but rather have several elements of it. Here, it is important to mention that the chapter does not intent to compare neither of the three commissions (NKC, PCI, UGC) or their policies. Rather, this chapter tries to take an analytical stance towards the

documents and looks at the elements of LLL in selected policies and guideline of these commissions. This chapter can help to get a partial view of the overall changing dimension of LLL in Indian policies in relation to the changing dimension of LLL internationally. It could also help to provide a base for the socio-economic analysis of the whole issue in later chapters.

The chapter starts with the discussion of the dimensions of LLL in NKC policies, as it is considered one of the most important policy recommendation bodies in Indian education, in recent times. This is followed by the discussion of the XIth plan, and UGC guideline on LLL, as many of the recommendations of NKC are transmitted to these policies. The final discussion looks for the elements of LLL in the latest national five year plan (XIIth- 2012-2017). This last section may provide us an overview of the future direction of LLL in India. The chapter ends with a detailed, combined discussion of these policies, divided in two sub-sections.

National Knowledge Commission on LLL

The Prime Minister of India, Dr. Manmohan Singh, who was also the chief architect of the India's new liberal economic policy in 1990s, set up the NKC. This temporary commission (2nd October 2005 to 2nd October 2008) has a profound influence on changing the dimensions of LLL in India through its aim of promoting a knowledge based society. NKC seeks to develop appropriate institutional frameworks to:

- Strengthen the education system, promote domestic research and innovation, and facilitate knowledge application in sectors like health, agriculture, and industry.
- Leverage information and communication technologies to enhance governance and improve connectivity.
- Devise mechanisms for exchange and interaction between knowledge systems in the global arena (NKC)

In the Planning Commission's (PCI) report on, 'India as a Knowledge superpower: Strategy for Transformation' (2001a) and 'India vision 2020' (2002); the former President Dr. A.P.J. Abdul Kalam's 'Strategy India 2020: A vision for New Millennium' (Kalam and Rajan, 2002) and the High-Level Strategic Group's 'India's new opportunity, 2020' (AIMA, 2003), underline ways to transition to the Knowledge economy (in Dahlman & Utz, 2005:XXX). In line with their thoughts, Knowledge Commission recognizes that:

> The 21st Century has been acknowledged worldwide as the 'Knowledge Century'. Every nation now finds itself operating in an increasingly competitive and globalised international environment. […] and we are optimally positioned, in the words of our Prime Minister, to "leapfrog in the race for social and economic development"(NKC, 2006).

Whether or not India is 'optimally positioned' for the competitive global market in all respects, is a matter of debate; however it is clear that India can now, more realistically, vision its future in the global arena. Establishing a knowledge-oriented paradigm of development can therefore accelerate the growth paradigm and make India's performance in a knowledge economy better and stronger. In their major

recommendations (among many) Knowledge Commission (2007) mentions the improvement in the following sectors.

- Focus on both Quality and Quantity both as both are required to build a knowledge economy and knowledge based society,
- Better administration, which also means modern administration
- More collaboration, not only between institutions, but also (and importantly) with industries and world of work,
- Foster innovation
- More flexibility and accountability from educational and research institutes
- More use of modern technologies (mainly ICT)
- Encouraging more students to study science and mathematics
- Mastering in English Language (NKC considers as an essential skill in today's world)
- Increasing quality of research with a global outlook
- Stress on Vocational education and Training and Skill up-gradation
- Promote entrepreneurship
- Taking the benefit of the demographic dividend
- Encourage more students into higher education, especially in science and technology streams.
- Extended effort to upgrade the agricultural sector by productively applying knowledge.

Many of these recommendations seem focusing on India's chances to be on the driver's seat of the emerging global market economy. It also recommends strengthening the internal base. NKC recommends for the development of ICT and ICT enabling in schools, colleges and universities; enhance the quality of secondary schools and welcomes private initiatives to improve these sectors. Keeping in mind about the present economic growth India is enjoying and the potential to increase it, the NKC appreciates the efforts taken in the XIth five year (2007 to 2012) plan, which places the highest priority on education as a central instrument for achieving rapid and inclusive growth. This reflects in the 'fivefold increase in resources allocation. At Rs. 2.70 lakh crore[33] , it constitutes 20% of the Plan, representing a credible progress towards the target of 6% of GDP' (NKC, 2007:22). This sense to improving national economy through education is echoed through the reports of National Knowledge Commission. According to the Commission,

> Rapid changes are taking place in different sectors of the economy, in this scenario education and associated knowledge sectors would need to keep pace with this change to continue to be relevant (NKC, 2007:25).

National Knowledge Commission's recommendations are different from its predecessors; e.g. on 5th May, 1988 'the Technology Mission' was formed where functional literacy (3Rs, awareness and functionality) got maximum importance. However, the question is, why NKC wants to put more emphasis on knowledge society and eventually on knowledge economy rather than addressing the basic educational

[33] 1 lakh- 100 thousand, 1 crore- 100 lakh

requirements of the majority of people? Is NKC reports influenced by the global forces? If yes, then how? How is LLL related with it? These questions lead the discussion further to the notion of globalization and that of global force and LLL, which is continued in the following sections and chapters.

XI Planning Commission on LLL

Looking back at the National Policy on Education 1968, mentioned in chapter four, one of the landmark education policies after independence, it could be found that the word 'learning' is not used there at all. However, later on, in the National Policy on Education 1986 (modified in 1992) it mentions that 'education does not end with schooling but is a lifelong process'. This statement provides a starting point to discuss further into the issue of LLL as the mentioned policy considered the 'lifelong' dimension in education. In the same document, it mentions that 'lifelong education' as the cherished goal of the educational process which presupposes universal literacy, provision of opportunities for youth, housewives, agricultural and industrial workers and professionals to continue the education of their choice at the pace suited to them (National Policy on Education in India - 1986;modified in 1992). It focuses on the lifelong dimension, however, in reality; it was mainly confined within literacy initiatives and continuing education.

The XIth plan is different in many ways from its predecessor policies. It starts with an oath that the "eleventh plan places the highest priority on education as a central instrument for achieving rapid and inclusive growth. It presents a comprehensive strategy for strengthening the education sector covering all segments of the education pyramid" (Planning Commission, 2007:1). Therefore, it is not the world 'LLL', which makes a difference here, rather the inherent presence of LLL throughout the policy. However, everything is not as revolutionary as the recommendations of National Knowledge Commission, nonetheless, it is important in the sense that the XIth plan recognizes the importance of knowledge in each sectors of education. To use knowledge and education for growth is, however not new. It could be seen in many policies; but the difference is, this plan (XIth) seeks ways to pragmatically use education and also channelize it in such a way, which can show a considerable change in the national growth each year. Their plan for short and long term goals reveal that the plan does not only focuses on the basic educational needs like previous policies, but also wants to take it forward to a level where the acquired knowledge could contribute in building a knowledge society in India. In the policy, it starts from the very beginning. According to the Planning Commission;

> In view of the demands of rapidly changing technology and the growth of knowledge economy, a mere eight years of elementary education would be grossly inadequate for our young children to acquire necessary skills to compete in the job market. Therefore, a Mission for Secondary Education is essential to consolidate the gains of SSA and to move forward in establishing a knowledge society (Planning Commission, 2007:1).

Here again, it can be seen that the focus is on the 'perceived labor market needs of the global economy' (Rizvi and Lingard, 2010: 117) and a process of 'developing education policies to take advantage of the knowledge economy' (Rizvi and Lingard 2010:82). Quite expectedly, the plan continues, introduces and modifies programs, which are or will contribute in national development in various ways. Among the major focus areas, a major change can be seen in the urge to reduce the gaps at various levels (gender, caste etc.). A special focus on enhancing female education and their participation in educational activity characterize the long-term view of the commission. In elementary education, it mentions the importance of having a developed education base for the country, which could prove important in this liberalized global economy (Planning Commission, 2007:9). However, there are not much fundamental changes in adult education and literacy initiatives. They carry forward a comparatively similar structure with a few operational changes. Nevertheless, linking elementary education with labor market via retaining access to secondary education, could be considered as a significant step. The Planning Commission recognizes that:

> Rapid changes in technology and the demand for skills also make it necessary that young people acquire more than eight years of elementary education to acquire the necessary skills to compete successfully in the labor market. Moreover, secondary education serves as a bridge between elementary and higher education (Planning Commission, 2007:14).

The success of achieving higher enrolment in primary education has boosted the confidence in this case, but also the alarming dropout rates has injected a threat to the successful *operationalization* of the policy. In long term, this could prove another threat to the nation, as these children could become marginal contributors in the national development in future. UNESCO studies and the studies of Dreze and Sen (2002) (among many) repeatedly mention that; without basic education, and retention of learners, the aim of achieving a knowledge society would be a utopia.

The XIth plan, however, goes much beyond the area of basic and elementary education and beyond the periphery of adult and continuing education to synergies LLL into all facets of the educational system. The importance on the changing technology, global economy especially the knowledge economy and global competition has emerged as issues of great concern repeatedly. Thus, the importance has been given, not only on the higher and technological education sectors, but also on other areas, and rather more innovatively. There are certain characteristics of this policy, which suggests us to believe so. Some of them are given and discussed here. The planning Commission seems to be anxious to take the advantage of the:

- Demographic Dividend
- Technological Progress (software and ICT based)
- Market for knowledge and service worldwide
- Emerging educational market – Public Private Partnership (PPP)
- Importance given on:

- Service sector
- Science, Technology and Professional education
- Improving Higher Education (Quality and Quantity perspectives)
- Vocational Education and Training
- Self- Employment
- Teacher Training – updated, contemporary and continuous
- Periodic curriculum revision
- Better student mobility
- Overall uniform educational system
- Quality and relevant research
- ICT

The last point is very significant and could be considered as one of the most contemporary. Looking at India's progress in the ICT sector, a huge plan has been undertaken to spread, networked the higher education system of the country. National Mission in Education through ICT is planned to venture in this area, which contributes to the aim to make India the 'global knowledge hub'. All of these efforts (among others) make clear contributions in the field of LLL. It is quite understandable that just mentioning the goals could lead nowhere. Therefore, further importance has been given on some, rather core issues that could help to achieve the specific goals in each sectors of education. The main line of thinking followed a specific pro-LLL path, which can be seen from the findings. Those are;

- Generic and subject specific competence development
- Skill development
- Employability
- Invention and innovation
- Versatility in providers and offers of courses
- Partnerships and networking
- Accreditation of Prior Learning
- Accountability and autonomy
- Inclusivity and measures to reduce imbalances
- Harmonization or homogenization of educational system
- Constant restructuring
- Physical infrastructure building for better learning condition
- Pro Market
- Pro Technology

These findings shows a clear trend of following the NKC's recommendations and the NKC has also appreciated such efforts by the government. It is however, no wonder since the NKC is the brainchild of the prime minister of India, Dr. Manmohan Singh, an economist, who is also the chairman of the planning commission. In his words "The time has come to create a second wave of institution building and of excellence in the field of education, research and capability building so that we are better prepared for the 21st century" (Singh 2005).

The preparation therefore starts with the easing access to the elementary education to retention and at the top, with quality higher education for all to make the most use of the countries potential human power. Not only that: in the current knowledge era, the development, according to the commission, depends crucially on the ability to find innovative solutions (Planning Commission 2007:30). It includes fairly everything from introducing private initiatives to reaching out to deprived sections of the society. Greater emphasis is placed on the services sector and, therefore, on soft skills, computer literacy, and flexi-times. It emphasizes on development of generic and multiple skills so that persons may respond to the changing technology and market demands. Generic skills that cut across a number of occupations would enable an individual to transfer from one field to another during his/her working life. This would, according to the commission, help create and expand the relevant knowledge base from the point of view of the expanding individual entitlements and increasing the capacity of the economy to take full advantage of the domestic and global opportunities (Planning Commission 2007:32). The pressure is also to make the benefits accessible to the masses. The policy here, tries to find the ways to utilize especially the youth, in a more productive and opportunistic way so that the country can take the optimum benefit of the situation. Unlike the developed countries, where the young working age population is fast shrinking with higher dependency ratios, India has a demographic advantage with about 70% of the population below the age of 35 years.

> However, this advantage can only be realized if we expand opportunities for our youth on a massive scale and in diverse fields of basic science, engineering and technology, health care, architecture, management, etc. This is possible only if we initiate rapid expansion along with long overdue reforms in the higher, technical, and professional education sectors (Planning Commission, 2007:22).

At this point, some might raise the issue of paradox in Indian education. The doubts could pop up and they can put a rather serious question to the planning commission's approach to make India a knowledge society. If India is striving to be a knowledge society or a knowledge superpower, is it not necessary to eradicate the problems like illiteracy and poverty first and then plunge into the stream of pro-market solutions? How much are these policies socio-economically rooted and create an equal developmental opportunity for all? There could be infinite number of questions like these, which also claim clarification not only from the PCI's ambitious XIth plan, but also from the NKC and UGC. Therefore, the UGC guideline is discussed in the following, which could help to outline the metamorphosis of the renewing dimensions of LLL in India from policy to guideline.

University Grants Commission on LLL:

The UGC came into existence on 28 December 1953 and became a statutory organization established by an act of Parliament in 1956, for the coordination, determination and maintenance of standards of university education (UGC Annual Report, 2005-06:1). Overall, UGC works for the improvement and administration of the higher education in

India, apart from its several other academic and non-academic activities[34]. As the main commission of higher education in India, the policy, role and strategies by the UGC has been under the obvious influence of the National Five Year plans and other reports and recommendations by the Indian Government. UGC, however, has its own policies, recommendations and guidelines for the Universities in India and constantly forming new policies and recommendations for the same. It is however, important to note that apart from the UGC as a national body, there are state academic boards, councils and other governing bodies who share the responsibility of the higher education of their respective state with UGC, under the federal system of India. Nonetheless, UGC's policies are considered most important in Indian higher education arena. In the present context, UGC recognizes the importance of a reform in higher education and as a part of this initiative; it publishes its guideline of LLL for the XIth plan period (2007-2012).

This is the first ever, clear and bold single national level document dedicated to LLL in India, which seems carrying a huge importance in the present changing socio economic context. However, it is to note that UGC started its endeavor of including and promoting adult education and learning in 1970s. It tried to make universities closer to the common mass and society by putting increased importance on 'extension' (Narang, 2000). However, during the last decade, the present focus and meaning of LLL in UGC documents seems changing and incorporating elements from the global discourse of LLL. This chapter, therefore, discusses the role of the University Grants Commission in promoting LLL in contemporary context. It discusses UGC's views on LLL and analyzes the presence of dimensions and perspectives of LLL present there.

Summary: UGC Guideline on LLL and Extension

The document starts, how LLL was viewed in the major Indian education policies. In 1964-66, the broader aspects of education beyond schooling have been given importance. Later on in 1986 (modified in 1992) the Govt. of India considered lifelong education as a cherished goal of the educational process. 'Universal literacy', adult literacy, continuing education were given priority by providing the educational opportunities to youth, housewives, agricultural and industrial workers and professionals to continue their education of their choice and the pace suited to them (UGC 2007:1). In the last five-year plan (2007-2012), the Government of India took the initiative to expand the existing programs and developing it as a Lifelong Education and Awareness Program (LEAP). UGC also recognizes the importance of LLL and relates it with national economic progress and contemporary global challenges. Therefore UGC would accord maximum priority to LLL with a view to meeting the demands of emerging knowledge society and facilitate the process of developing a learning society (UGC 2007:2). It continues to mention why UGC should focus on LLL in the present context. It mentions about:

- The Demographic Dividend India enjoys
- The Lingual diversity in India
- Increasing life expectancy

[34] Please refer UGC website for its role in Indian Higher Education. (www.ugc.ac.in)

- Private initiative in higher education with a special focus on technology related subjects to meet the challenges
- Making universities more concerned about-
    - Student employability skills
    - Open distance learning
    - Integration of formal and non-formal education
    - Making universities more adult learner friendly
    - Making departments more pro-active
    - Human resource development by providing professional man power
    - Opening dedicated departments for LLL

UGC advocates to bring the LLL programs 'in tune' with the global knowledge scenario as LLL has become a fundamental goal of recent educational policies and it is often advocated as a way to achieve socio-economic development and a tool for promoting knowledge based society (UGC 2007:3). Therefore, it encourages universities to expand in the area of LLL based on their expertise, making it a separate discipline of study field and practice, strengthening the departments with faculty and involve more participation by introducing it into colleges, creating centre of excellence and by providing grants. Therefore, according to UGC, universities should focus on:

- Promoting the philosophy of LLL
- Put concerned effort to integrate formal, non-formal and out of school learning
- Outreach mainly to deprived sections
- Improve extension activities
- Introduce innovative courses
- Generate new knowledge through research and publication

These focal areas are further emphasized by providing a guideline of what should be the role of the department of LLL. UGC have mentioned a variety of learning programs and activities, which departments should or could take. These are-

- Teaching, Training and Research
- LLL Programs
- Extension (including Counseling of students and non-student youth, career guidance, and placement assistance). This includes-
    - Projects related to extension/field outreach within a discipline at the undergraduate or postgraduate level;
    - Field work in respect of a subject of study;
    - Participation in literacy, post-literacy, continuing education, population education and non-formal education programs;
    - Participation in programs for enhancing employability and technology skills;
    - Any other activity approved for the purpose by the University Authority with the approval of the Commission.
- Publication (including e-content development) and
- Population Education (PE)

A priority is given on the economically and socially deprived section of the population including people of 'scheduled caste', 'scheduled tribes' and 'other backward classes' (SC, ST and OBC) (UGC Guideline on LLL and Extension 2007-2012).

As it can be seen that UGC takes the idea of LLL, which was rather limited in scope, into a much wider level. It incorporates the aspect of economy, technological progress and global competition in its discussion of LLL which were not this much prominent in the 1968 and 1986 (modified in 1992) National Policy on Education. The two major education policies (1968 and 1986), however, mentioned about the human resource development and national capacity building. They mentioned about eradication of illiteracy, women's equality, universalization of primary education etc, but also considered LLL as a voluntary way of educational activity. Here, the UGC guideline apparently differs in two points. First, it recognizes higher education as a part of LLL and second, LLL is considered as a necessity of the citizens of the nation in order to make India an active global player. Therefore, along with the national five year plans, UGC also focuses on vocational education and training, self-employment related programs, and career oriented courses. UGC mentions-

> Globalization of education and economy has led the University Grants Commission (UGC) to reorient and reshape its policies and programs to make the current Indian Higher Education System more relevant and career-oriented with focus on quality and excellence. It is envisaged that professionally qualified graduates with a sound knowledge of their core disciplines and expertise in a concerned skill will have more openings in service, industry and self-employment sectors (UGC, 2007:2).

In recent documents, UGC always mentions the necessity of modifying education in India with regard to India's changing socio-economic context. However, only recently, it establishes a rather more direct relation between LLL, globalization and the much needed educational reform in India. According to the UGC guideline on LLL and Extension-

> The role and importance of LLL in India have increased in recent times due to several socio economic factors. In a technology driven knowledge based competitive economy, the landscape of learning is fast changing in India. The growth of Indian economy at an average rate of 9.2% per annum during 2006-7 (*Economic Survey 2006-7),* tremendous expansion of Information Communication Technology and the rapid globalization have all been instrumental in bringing about changes in the job skills so that the workforce keeps on learning and updating their skills to be globally competitive. The country's economic performance depends critically on access to and the adoption of new technology and improving the skills of the labor force. Since 92.4% of India's workforce is in the unorganized sectors (*National Sample Survey, 61st Round, 2004-5),* they need regular upgrading of skills to compete in the globalize economy. Equipping the labor force with relevant skills implies the need for creating a variety of learning and training opportunities. In this process, the university system in India will have to play an important role (UGC, 2007:1).

This above view on LLL is revolutionary in many ways, especially in the contemporary Indian context. It directly includes the aspect of skills and recognizes it instrumental values in Indian context. It also argues for the necessary arrangements and changing roles of universities. This concerned attitude towards LLL indicates towards a more pragmatic stand and therefore it seems initially different from the previous UGC documents.

This bold changes related to LLL, can also be seen in the latest XIIth Five Year Plan, a draft version of which has been published recently. It is plan for the time period of 2012-2017, hence, it could provide a guideline on what could be the dimensions of LLL in near future in India. The aspects of LLL are therefore briefly discussed below.

XIIth Five-Year Plan on LLL

Like that of the XIth Plan, the latest XIIth plan also starts with highlighting the all-round importance of education and educated population in today's society. In the initial statements, education seems projected as a ubiquitous solutions for fulfilling many mandates for India. According to the plan, it improves economy, skills, competencies, strengthens democracy, values, social cohesion and national identity. Moreover, it creates a society, which is just and fair for all. Therefore, the Plan places an unprecedented focus on the expansion of education, on significantly improving the quality of education imparted and on ensuring that educational opportunities are available to all segments of the society (Planning Commission, Government of India, 2013c: 47). However, this all-encompassing; economic, social, equity oriented dimensions of education seems only policy rhetoric (Tilak, 2012) to some. Nevertheless, there are some important features in the policy, which could enrich our perception about the LLL there. One of them is the focus on 'economy'. Although 'economic development' has always been a prime focus in recent policies, but the last two policies (XIth and XIIth) are encouraging education to prepare students for the present job market. The plan therefore recognizes the changes in the market and urges to change the existing education system accordingly to make it more outcome-oriented. Form early childhood education to higher and adult education, this focus on learning outcome remain as a constant. To select the learning goals, it takes the international helps and supports 'internationalization'.

Along with some of the proposed modernizing approaches, the plan recognizes that private sector would take a leading role in providing education. In this regard, the plan clearly supports the for-profit education in many educational sectors and intends to make necessary changes in the national law for the privatized education to thrive in India. This rather market oriented step to revamp education, however, does not neglect the downtrodden section of the population. The plan repeatedly mentions about equity, providing support to the disadvantaged sections of populations, girls and so on. Hence, a way to balance the situation of progress and underdevelopment could be repeatedly found in the policy.

Overall, however, it tries to stick to its development-oriented path laid in the previous plans by the NKC and the XIthe Plan. A major breakthrough in this regard is a strategic shift from literacy to LLL, which, according to the Plan, is a paradigm shift. It clearly sys that-

> Under this new paradigm of lifelong learning and literacy, the focus is not only on non formal education set up but on establishing strong linkages with the formal system with mechanism for recognising prior learning and accreditation (Planning Commission, Government of India, 2013c: 88).

It recognizes that-

> There is a need to not only redefine literacy but for a paradigm shift from basic literacy to lifelong learning. In the present technology-driven knowledge-based competitive economy, even the basic ability to read and write with understanding is not enough; adults need to learn to manage information and knowledge in a critical and reasonable manner, learn to search, identify, evaluate, select, and use information and knowledge wherever they are available: print, mass media, or the Internet (Planning Commission, Government of India, 2013c: 88).

Here, in the above, it is plausible to see a change in perception about the dimensions of LLL from its traditional once. Unlike that of the past, the recent once recognizes the importance of knowledge based economy, which is technology driven and competitive. Hence, ICT, multipurpose skills development are given higher priorities, with linkage between formal, non-formal and informal learning, which also includes an urge to develop an effective mechanism for accreditation of prior learning. Thus, it links different domains of education, both horizontally and vertically.

The same trend follows in other sections of the policy, especially in its higher education, vocational education and training sections. There also, the plan continues with its outcome oriented approached which focuses on the learner and skills and competencies oriented needs of society. There are more discussion on this in the higher education section (chapter- 11 and 12). Nevertheless, it can be said that this policy takes the policy mandates of the XIth Plan forward with a much focused orientation of economic development. However, it also, quite strongly mentions about the equity, which shows the effort to balance the inequalities, persist in almost every socio-economic-educational scenarios in India.

We have to wait to see how the recommendations of this plan are implemented. Nevertheless, this non-traditional, change-oriented Plan, however, puts some questions forward. First, although the document starts with the notion of globalization and technological progress and a needed educational revamping; how is the synergy between the development between the advantageous and disadvantageous sections maintained? How is the synergy between the old and the new notions of LLL being addressed? Moreover, although, there is change in dimensions about LLL, does it clearly show a trend towards a more globally oriented approach of LLL or it is an unsorted amalgamation of programs, from different timelines? In other words, it could be asked, how multidimensional and coherent is it? How can this approach by the XIIth Plan,

towards LLL, contribute to overall the Indian dimension of LLL? Some of these questions are perhaps also valid for the policies of NKC and UGC's. The study therefore, intends to address them throughout the following chapters. Nevertheless, by further analyzing the key focus areas from the policy analysis done above, the study initially attempts to answer some of the questions raised above.

Key focus areas: discussion of policies related to LLL, in the Indian context

From the above extracts of the NKC, PCI and UGC documents, it seems plausible to find out several common key areas relating to LLL. Primarily, the documents focus on the **changing learning or educational landscape,** which is prevailing in and outside India. Secondly, they try to make an effort to change the existing dimension of education in India by making it as a tool to **meet the demands and challenges of globalization**. The focus is therefore on skill and competence development, knowledge up-gradation with utmost priority on practical knowledge acquisition, which can be utilized in the national development. The issue of diversified courses and course providers based on the market needs has been encouraged where increased importance has been given on public-private partnerships. Extending the programs, education opportunities to the mass is another area, which is related to the partnership issue. In all three commissions' reports, need for 'innovations', quality and relevant research and development, networking, are given higher values. The issue of social **inclusion, literacy initiative and up-gradation of the deprived sections** are also mentioned with increased importance. Overall, the commissions urge for a more dynamic and up-graded education system, which can live up to the dream to make India a knowledge society. On one hand, where the National Knowledge Commission comes up with bold recommendations, the Planning Commission tries to incorporate most of them after certain modifications. On the other hand, the University Grants Commission tries to implement a fraction of the policy through their guideline. It seems a journey from pro-global solutions through LLL to 'Indianization' of recommendations and implementation efforts at the institutional levels. On its way, the recommendations have been modified to policies and then to operational and applicable guidelines. The later section, therefore, tries to look some aspects of this journey from a critical point of view to find out even more core factors, which are causing India to think about renewing its dimensions of LLL. This following discussion therefore contributes to an extended analysis of selected key factors in the last chapter of the study.

A deeper look: core changes in the Indian dimensions of LLL

Policy should match the context. This common and practical notion leads the main discussion in this section. As India is undoubtedly one of the most diverse societies in the world, there are prominent regional, cultural, ethnic, lingual, religious, sub-religious (cast), economic and other diversities. This diverse condition means diverse needs and specializations based on local needs and expertise. UGC recognizes the diversity at regional and institutional levels, encourage the universities to specialize in their respective areas based on their expertise, and needs to undertake projects and programs.

This could lead to a custom-made solution for the local issues and integrating the departments of LLL more into the local communities. The same line of thought can be seen when UGC mentions that the departments of LLL would be non-conventional and should engage with various types of activities beyond academic nomenclature of teaching and research. They should involve students in literacy campaigns, impart soft skills and computer skills, consult with 'Jan Sikshan Sansthans[35]' and importantly; prioritize educational activities in the areas with low literacy among scheduled caste and tribes (UGC, 2008). In the summary of the document, we can find out that the focus is on creating an integrated concept of LLL which combines all processes of learning (formal, non-formal and informal), which can reach out to community more effectively, extend its services to them and provide more professional manpower through innovative courses. This idea of extending the Universities beyond its academic boundary is a major change, mentioned in this document. Therefore, the idea of LLL by UGC intertwines itself with extension. A sense of autonomy is also present with the freedom to identify, choose and implement projects, according to the diverse Indian socio-economic-educational contexts. The XIth plan and the National Knowledge Commission both advocate for such localized solutions in their documents. NKC in one hand, stresses on the urge to speed-up the development process, the XIth Plan, on the other hand, takes a more secure approach to develop the mass from the grass-root level.

Another aspect of collaboration is also related with this concept, i.e. the concept of information sharing. In this knowledge era, information sharing is one of the main tools for success. By sharing information and collaborating among other government and non government organizations, the ability to work in a group is tend to develop, which is also considered as a competence by many (e.g. by UNESCO, TUNING etc.). Programs such as **participation in literacy, post-literacy** and continuing education programs; developing **reading materials** for neo-literates, **skill training** program and **vocational educational** and training programs, participation in enhancing **employability** and technology skills, **populations education** to generate awareness about the population explosion and **gender issues** are some example of programs that may require joint ventures. The interesting thing is that, any conventional university department does not commonly undertake joint efforts like these. It is also, to some extent against the elitist position of a university. However, it could be asked, why are the departments of LLL supposed to take a more unconventional path? What is the significance with these changes with the change in the understanding of LLL? These questions are provoking and urge to go one more step, deeper into the discussion of the UGC guideline for LLL and extension.

Unlike the other policy documents (of NKC, PCI) mentioned in this chapter, the UGC guideline directly addresses the issue of LLL. However, to analyze it further, we need to refer once again to India's socio-economic condition, related to its educational scenario to answer to the questions, raised above. Over the course of time, India has developed

[35] *The Jan Shikshan Sansthan (formerly known as Shramik Vidyapeeth) is an innovative educational Scheme in the field on non-formal and continuing education and training for adults started by the Government of India in the year 1967.*

itself in many aspects of education. The literacy rate has gone up, enrolment in primary education has improved; but still the number of dropouts in primary and secondary level is alarming. The largest number adult illiterates are also in India along with many poorly or semi literate people.

There are many people, who have not completed the lower secondary (grade 8 or equivalent) and secondary (grade 10 or equivalent) education. There are even fewer, who complete higher secondary education (grade 12or equivalent). However, the total number of successful students is significant in terms of global number of equally competent manpower. This issue is discussed further in later chapters. Nevertheless, it could perhaps be realized that, the percentage as well as the total number, both are equally important in this regard. The figures below, show the absolute numbers of enrolment in primary, middle and high/ higher secondary level of education in India. These figures also show the drastic reduction in total number of students enrolling in the high/higher secondary level compare to the total number of students enrolled in the primary level. It helps to know its relation with policies and elements related to LLL better and also to review the reasons for dropouts in Indian scenario.

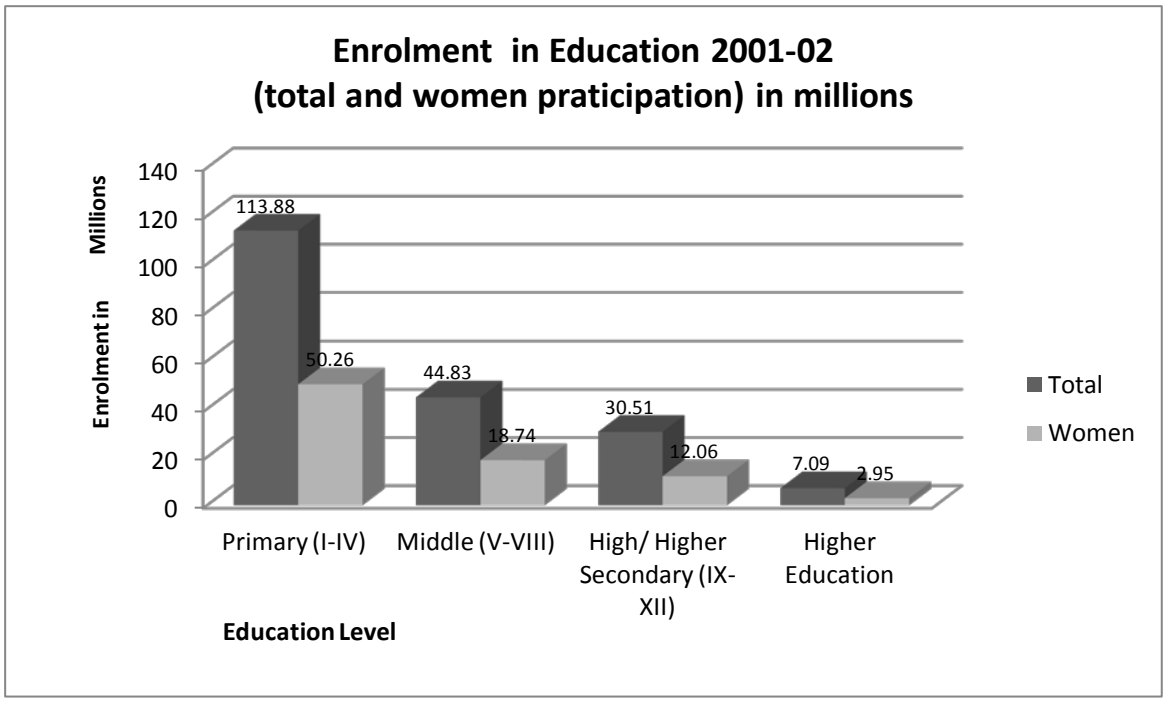


Figure 11 : Enrolment in Education 2001-02 (Total and women participation) in Primary, Middle, High/Higher Secondary and Higher Education Levels. Source- Ministry of Statistics and Program Implementation; Govt. of India

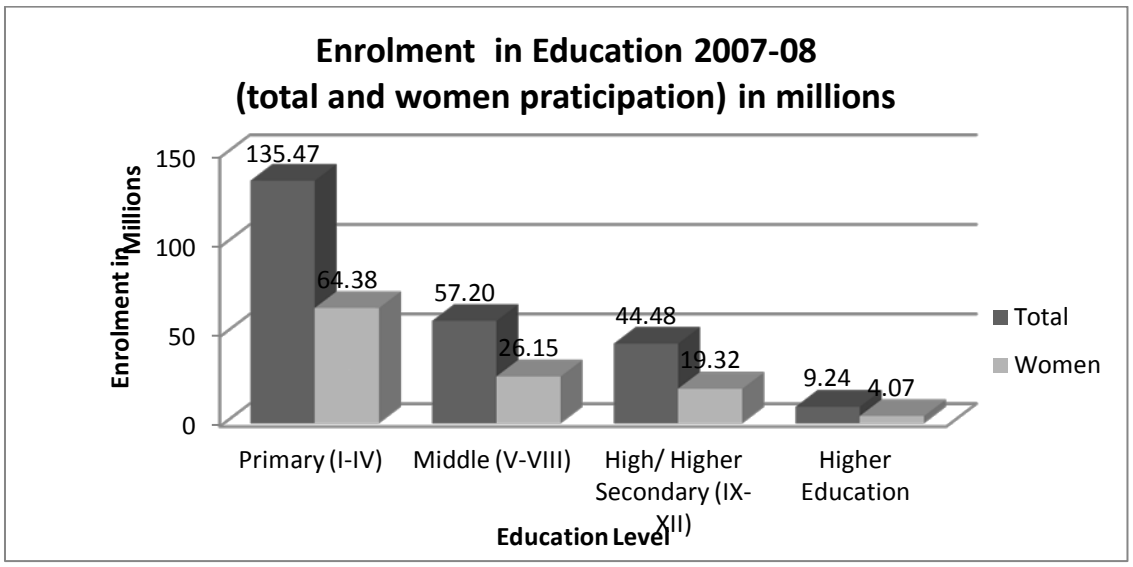


Figure 12: Enrolment in Education 2007-08 (Total and women participation) in Primary, Middle, High/Higher Secondary and Higher Education Levels. Source- Ministry of Statistics and Program Implementation; Govt. of India

It can be seen that the enrolment, in all stages, have increased in 2007-08 compared to that in 2001-02, However, still, the gap is profound and the women participation is still low. These two figures, roughly, helps to know the inconsistent educational attainment, which are also related with policies, implementation and elements related to LLL. These point out that, in spite of large enrolment, the high dropout rate a major problem in India.

Among others, UNESCO (2011) in the Global Monitoring Report 2011, points out several reason and consequences for dropouts. Among the main reasons, first is the economic situation of the family. It is more likely that children from poor families cannot continue with their education. They mainly earn for the family as labors (in the form of child labors and others) with low daily or weekly wedges. Jean Dreze and Amartya Sen (2002: 154-156) show that the actual reason is not the children who work as child labor, cannot study; but surprisingly, it is the other way round. Those who do not study go to work, partly because they have nothing to do and partly because they lost interest in schooling. 'School deprivation' is often the cause in these situations (Dreze and Sen, 2002:157). There is, of course, no denying the fact that economic constrain prevents parents to let their offspring continue with education. Even in public education system, where the cost is low enough, it is often difficult for parents to bear that for longer periods. Secondly, the pupils from ethnic minorities tend to dropout more than others do as they face difficulties in coping –up with different cultures, language and systems. Thirdly, gender plays a major role in influencing dropout rates. Girls are more tend to dropout from education than that of boys in India. It is related with the Indian socio-historical structure and culture, which cause gender discriminations, even in the 21st century India. However, here also, Dreze and Sen (2002:154) show that Indian parents, even in the most disadvantageous regions, considers their offspring's education 'important'. However, apart from this gender discrimination issue, there is another important factor, which

causes increased dropout rates. It is noticed that children of illiterate mothers are more prone to dropout than vice versa (Lloyed and Young, 2009 in UNESCO 2011). This problem is rather much deeper and related with Indian societal structure and lack of awareness. It has more consequences too. The illiterate mother often also lacks in knowledge of family planning, maternal care, birth control measures and proper child-care. The results are undernourished mother and child, malnutrition, more children, early pregnancy and so on. Moreover, a chunk of people (both parents and their infants), who do not have proper nutrition, cannot prosper educationally and hence cannot contribute efficiently in the economy and the society. The possible threats are two folds. First of all, at an individual level, the unemployed and unskilled portion of the population can end up in such jobs which prevents them from accruing productive skills (such as unskilled construction workers) or even can lead them to socially undesirable ways of living and cause further social problems. Secondly, at a macro level, it can further increase the total number of illiterates and more importantly cause the country a slower progress. According to John Field, "the unskilled, unqualified and uneducated, it seems, are not only likely to face diminishing opportunities themselves; they also become a milestone, holding back the application of knowledge and preventing the educated and creative majority from enjoying to the full accessible fruits of the knowledge economy" (Field, 2006:25).

All of these issues lead the planners to form a guideline for LLL, which not only includes literacy initiatives, but also links it with several awareness generation programs and population education in particular. The employment generation programs also links itself with other programs. For instance, an educated family is not only more prone to value the education of their infants, but also they have more chance to take the benefits of the available government schemes of birth control, girls child education, self employment, bank loans, and importantly, let their child continue with education. It is also possible that they engage themselves in different vocational education and training with the improvement in education and consciousness, which in turn contribute to the societal development. These issues are therefore quite interrelated and indigenous in Indian society. These problems are not this much acute in developed countries where they can directly focus on education, skill up-gradation and issues such as ageing population problems, which are relevant in their context and are main aims of their LLL.

The operational aspects of the guideline of LLL could also add to our understanding of UGC's view on LLL. Broadly, it can be divided into two major sections. One, we may call it as the 'academic section' and other is the 'applied section'. The first section includes the academic activities including research and publication; LLL as a subject of study. The other part, i.e. applied section, overall includes the programs, which are more operational in nature. This major classification shows that the intellectual section focuses more on the theoretical knowledge building, which could possibly strengthen the changing conceptualization of LLL in India and contribute in developing Indian education. The applied section, on the other hand, could break the traditional idea of a university department by fostering collaboration, extension, involvement, program design and study material preparations. This section perhaps also backs-up the changing

concept of LLL with the progress reports, surveys and different localized initiatives by the universities. In other words, UGC guideline on LLL and extension focuses on a more secure path of academic activity, explores the issue of extension and field outreach as their coordinating activity and together, venturing the changing notion of LLL in a more experimental and exploratory way. The inclusion of ample number programs shows their intention to explore all the possible corners of LLL and inclusivity. However, it could also lead to a blurred focus as it tries to include everything without being coherent. The reason, probably is that-

> Sometimes, LLL has been used by policy makers as little more than a modish repackaging of rather conventional policies [...] with little that is new or innovative. This tendency to wrap up existing practice in a more colorful phrase can also be seen in the rush by providers to claim their adherence to LLL (Field 2006:3).

Due to this less standardized nature of the term LLL, confusions have already started spreading among academics, also relating to the UGC's stand on LLL. As of now, it is hard to say which way UGC's document might lead and will contribute to the changing conceptualization of LLL with specific focus. However, it can be understood that this all-inclusive, yet less focused approach by the planners might lead to a confusing state where lack of focus might prevent a noticeable change in Indian university education culture.

There are other recommendations for qualitative and quantitative improvement visible in the form of developing LLL as a field of study and practice. This particular effort focuses towards building a national knowledge base through research and publication. The departments of LLL are also supposed to coordinate with other departments of the university, government departments and NGOs. These could be referred as an effort to bring the department and the university closer to the real world and promote the building of applied knowledge and coordination. From the point of the incorporation, it welcomes learners of different ages and needs and with different time to provide for the learning activities. These could also remind us that universities are encouraged to come closer to the world of work; it needs to participate, coordinate and contribute in the society in a progressive, practical and pro-active way. In this sense, it seems more result oriented, demanding and above all portraits a dynamic nature. This dynamism through diversity is essential if a large tertiary system has to meet diverse needs. These efforts clearly indicate towards a more hands-on approach of LLL, which is wider in scope. The expansion of LLL from universities to colleges and involving students into literacy and allied initiatives are focused more on the issue of diversity. However, along with the existing focus on literacy and up-gradation of the disadvantageous classes, the focus contemporizes itself with the introduction of computer literacy and learning of English as a language. The important point to note is that, almost all the new concepts introduced by the UGC resemble to the idea of making the universities a dynamic learning institute and in general, to promote a learning society, which is compatible with the contemporary changing world and can face its challenges.

In this complex situation, the introduction of LLL is likely to face rigorous challenges as it promotes a highly flexible portrait of education. The first wave resistance is most likely to come from the universities itself. UGC, through it documents, opts for the idea of changing the traditional notion of universities to a flexible and dynamic learning place where all can learn, even being outside the institutional structure. The idea of a learning university could broadly be related to the idea of a university, which itself learns and changes depending on the needs of the society. However, the idea of a 'learning university' suggests a paradigm shift as, to some; it invades the university and corrupts its soul (Duke 2001:515). This so-called non-elitist approach towards transforming universities poses a challenge to the traditional universities. It is almost equivalent to fundamentally challenging the traditional notion of considering universities as ivory towers. In general, this metaphor signifies something elite and far from the general life, which is not influenced by the quick changes in the society. Philip Albatch (1993), H.S. Bhola (2006), J.B.G Tilak (2005) have repeatedly mentioned their worries about the rigid nature of Indian universities and here, this could prove a major barrier in implementing LLL in the universities. There are more discussion on this issue on chapter 11 and 12.

It is however, important to mention that the departments of LLL (or dept. of adult and continuing education) are mainly under-resourced and overall, there are only few department of LLL in Indian universities. It is perhaps not so difficult to imagine the approaching challenges in this regard. Firstly, the departments, which are already very low in number, have to cope with the new guideline and that means including new programs, new people and more outreach. Secondly, the limited scope of changing the universities into a learning institute would be less feasible as the guideline is limited to only a single departmental boundary and not for the whole university. Thirdly, how UGC wants the departments and the universities to become more accountable and responsible to the community is less defined in the document. From a more theoretical point of view, this could create problems as the departments of LLL could be stuck with their existing program and more importantly follow the same traditional way of executing programs with a changed name of the departments (in some cases). As a result, this effort carries the risk of failing to bring considerable changes even within the department, let alone the whole university and the higher education system of India. Nevertheless, as mentioned earlier, as a policy documents, it is the first of its kind and thus carries apt for initiating further changes in the perception of LLL in India, at least in its policy domain, which is the focus of this study.

Conclusion

It can be seen that UGC, NKC and the PCI are reacting and dealing with the present changes in global economy and educational systems. A closer look reveals a common thread, i.e. globalization, which triggers the changes in these three commissions. Although it depends on the context, however, all three entities have a more prominent vision of economic development, which can be seen while promoting knowledge economy, market economy, global competition and so on. In India, the NKC seems to promote a notion of overall development by overcoming the 'isolationism' and turning the adversity into opportunity (Singh, 2005), also for non-knowledge labors (Meredith,

2007:95). Meanwhile, India enjoys the 'demographic dividend', and thus can stand on good hope to increase the inflow of foreign capitals. India, as an emerging market giant is much aware about its economic growth which is 'about three times as fast as the US and Japan; far faster than Europe and creates unavoidable future for the companies around the world' (Meredith, 2007:95). Therefore, to support this economic globalization, 'the education investment is a must, it is nonnegotiable' (Nilekani[36] in Meredith, 2007:212). Similar trend can be seen in the NKC's recommendations and then in the 'national five-year plan' by the PCI and later followed by the UGC and continued by the latest XIIth Five Year Plan. Thus, it is evident that globalization, specifically economic globalization plays a dominant role in policymaking in contemporary India.

Therefore, it seems important to know how these factors and forces are reshaping the notion of LLL in specific countries (here, India). It is having a great importance to investigate and get a better insight of this issue, especially after the initial discussion of how these three entities are reacting to the forces of globalization and local needs while promoting LLL. Hence, the next chapter goes deeper into this issue and analyses some selected factors, which play crucial and deciding role for the metamorphosis of the concept of LLL in India in a global context. This helps to understand the policy recommendations better and helps to open windows for further analysis.

[36] Mr. Nandan Nilekani, The Infosys CEO who has persuaded American Companies to move tens and thousands of jobs to India(Meredith 2007:212)

[This page is intentionally left blank]

chapter

7

Factors Influencing the Renewing Dimensions of LLL in India

Chapter 7

Factors Influencing the Renewing Dimensions of LLL in India

Introduction

The discussion of some of the major Indian policies (of NKC, PCI, UGC) show that the understanding of lifelong learning (LLL) is changing in India, at least in its policy domains. The discussion leads this chapter to go a step deeper in the discussion and analyze the factors behind, which are in turn, influencing the changes in the policy domains. This section therefore, selects some of the major socio-economic factors and analyzes them critically, to find out the answers. It starts with the rationale for this chapter in the background section, which sets the platform for the methodical analysis of four selected factors, on how they influence the present dimensions of LLL in India. The findings of this section are strengthened with separate extracts from the findings of the analysis of the interviews, done, specifically for this study. The findings are placed in the relevant sub-sections, which help to relate them with the issue discussed and follow the main arguments of the study. These might help to provide a detailed understanding of the complex dynamics related to the changing concept of LLL in India, which is further unfolded in the next chapter.

Here it seems important to provide a concise note about the responses from the interviewees regarding the factors influencing LLL in India. According to the interviewees, there are several socio-economic factors behind the changes of the conceptualization of LLL in India. A majority of them found 'globalization' and 'economic progress' as the major reasons for these. When asked to focus on the other important agents of change, some of them mentioned about the influence of international organizations, multinational corporations and the global changes in the field of education, its requirements etc. However, when asked to relate these changing agents, with the policy aspect, responses were varied. Some responses were either critical about the changes in the policy and some other mentioned that the actual reasons for such policy changes are perhaps hidden from all. Some of them indicated that this is largely a policy change following that of the West. Overall, it can be observed that there is a fair trace of speculations about the actual reasons and agents of changes. Hence, it seems that the discussion in this chapter could shade some light in this regard.

It is the hope that this chapter would help to explore the reasons behind the changes in the dimensions of LLL in India, based on its present changing socio-economic

conditions. This chapter also leads the discussion to its next level, where the study utilizes the theoretical models to analyze the issue even further by combining all the discussion so far.

Background

Jarvis (2008) says that LLL is not neutral and it happens through the actions and reactions of different agents in the society. It is affected by the social, cultural, lingual, economic, scientific and many more aspects and their interactions. Moreover, it varies form factors ranging from an international to local, even individual levels. A complete picture of LLL is therefore extremely complex and diverse, since LLL varies in different regions. For instance, it is mentioned in the previous chapters that, in India, LLL has mostly been considered as adult and continuing education for so long. However, due to globalization and growing thrust on education, this existing philosophy is under discussion. Hence, LLL suddenly become an issue of great concern of the major policy papers and documents.

We have also seen that the basic philosophy of 'learn as long as you live' was there in India, but in course of time, it was narrowed down to non-formal learning. The education policies in post-independence period have largely emphasized on this narrowed dimension as well. Only recently, there has been a clear indication of change. However, it is probably not the incarnation of the ancient Indian philosophy of 'learn as long as you live' as we argue that this new concept of LLL, although has some of the old philosophical elements, is mostly pragmatic and postmodern in its concept. Hence, the factors influencing it, could possibly be found and analyzed better in the contemporary context compared to that of the traditional Indian philosophical contexts. The discussion of NCK, PCI and UGC documents in the previous chapters possibly suggest the same as they recognize some internal and external factors shaping today's 'education paradigm' influenced by globalization and partly because of the global discourse of LLL.

To explore the issue, on how globalization and related socio-economic factors are influencing India's 'education paradigm', four major factors are selected for discussion. They are economy, Information Communication Technology (ICT), demography and language. They are selected based on the extensive study of policy papers, scholarly works (of Field, 2006; Jarvis et. al., 2003; Jarvis, 2007, 2008; Altbach, 2002, 2003, 2008; Tilak, 2002, 2009, 2012, among many.) and the present understanding of the socio-economic context of India and the world. It is important to note that in these factors are also selected keeping in mind the possibility of further research in the next major section of the thesis, i.e. higher education. The study explores that these factors are highly interlinked and act individually or in any combination to re-route the dimensions of LLL in a given context. Nonetheless, it is worth remembering that apart from these factors, there are other factors as well, but this research mainly considers analyzing the said factors from a macro perspective. This chapter, unlike other chapters takes a rather different approach in its analysis. It tries to find out how each factor influences either of the dimensions (e.g. traditional Indian or global) of LLL and how the tension and dilemmas are present on the way of reshaping the dimensions of LLL in India. It is done

in such a way in accord with Jarvis's (2007, 2008) theoretical models, which claims that LLL is never neutral and always forms with tensions and dilemmas existing in an interconnected layers of societies.

The discussion starts with 'economy' as the first selected factor for analysis. It is perhaps among the most influential factors in the era of globalization, shaping the education paradigms of the world.

Economy influencing the Indian dimensions of LLL

This section is divided into two sub-sections. The first and the second sections explore how economy is promoting the global perspective of LLL and the traditional perspective of LLL, respectively, in India. These sections also explore how the tension exists between these two perspectives, which help contributing in the final part of the discussion. The first sub-section shows how Indian economy and its recent development influence the global perspective of LLL to thrive in India, coupled with neo-liberal ideologies. The next section, however, represents a completely opposite picture, where poor economic and educational situations of millions of Indians create a strong resistance to the neo-liberal, market oriented educational restructuring and hence prevents the global dimensions of LLL.

Economy as a supporting factor to the global perspective of LLL (in India)

The economic globalization brings growth, which has a huge influence on the Indian economy and consequently on education. However, the economic growth of India did not happen much through the development of public sectors. It has mostly happened due to the investment of the national and international private firms who mainly provide services to other developed countries. Due to this, there are emerging demands for technically skilled people and people with business management skills inside India. This demand creates a pressure on the government to take certain steps, which can fulfill both the demand and the supply of human resources. After the new economic liberalization in the 90s, the Indian growth rate experienced an average of 8 percent a year during tenth five-year plan (Planning Commission, 2010). On the way to success, the service sector became the main prosperous and dynamic sector of Indian economy, which earns better returns for the government, than that of any other economic sectors. The trade liberalization in the domestic economy here helped this boom in the service sector, providing the access to Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) to the Indian economy. FDI in Service sector grew by 36% in 2001 and IT related FDI grew from 17% in 1997-98 to 34% in 2001-02. In 2002-05, agricultural sector provided 22.00% of the GDP, industrial sector 27.3% and the service sector provided 50.8% in the year 2002-03 (EIU, 2004 in Dahlman & Utz, 2005:4).

The focus on human resource development can be seen internationally as well. Worldwide, in a capitalistic or semi capitalistic structure, the demand of skilled people in all economic sectors is being operated mainly by market mechanisms (Stromquist, 2002). These skilled people, who generate economic benefit for the country, bring new platforms where economic liberalization could show a prosperous economic future for

the country and an urge to change the existing systems to fit them with the growth pattern and market expansion. For the education sectors, the demand is high, since the development of the modern economy is highly dependent on the proper education of the human resources. The challenges are to develop a robust system, which can support this expansion of markets. There are some possible general consequences:

- Educational reforms become a next step to the new open economic policy.
- The integration between the formal and non formal education systems becomes important since many jobs in this present economy do not need university training, but some type of work based technical or trade credentials (Stromquist 2002:xxi).
- The linkage between education sectors with the labor market is likely to be intense and becomes important in this economic situation.
- The future generations are therefore likely to be more skills and competency oriented, compared to that of the exiting generation, which values degree/ certificates.

It can, however, be noticed that policies have already started to come out with various solutions and ideas that lead to educational reforms. However, as it is argued earlier that it is a global phenomenon, similar types of educational reforms can be observed in many other countries, including developing one. China is certainly one of them. China started its economic reform earlier than that of India (in Late 1970s) and at present, is much ahead than that of India, However, after its economic liberalization almost two decades after the Chinese economic reform, India started to look at other countries for inspirations and perhaps to identify possible competitors. India especially looked at countries, which are more or less in a similar condition of their development trajectories. Soon, for India, China's economic progress injected a sense of backwardness and sense of competition. China, however, also works as a kind of inspiration to India along with being a competitor. Hence, the India's present Prime Minister Mr. Manmohan Singh clearly envisions making India economically competitive like China. The Commerce Minister of India in 2007, Mr. Kamal Nath said that "what we have tried to do is learned from China" and then "build it in our own pattern: (in Meredith, 2007:53). Here, the key is again the educational reform and to follow the global perspective of LLL. LLL here implies all kinds of education and training, skills improvement programs, on-job training programs etc. for the development of markets, the society and eventually, for a competitive country.

Along with the national level consensus that India should become a better and competitive economy, international organizations started to influence the traditional Indian perspective of LLL as well. Their 'pragmatic' approach has a specific focus on the economy. The World Bank (WB) policies could be referred as an example. Its renewed understanding of LLL stands for flexibility where assessments are based on personal achievements of skills and competences. Unlike the traditional approach, where elites are allowed to learn more, this approach argues for the continuous learning opportunities for all, probably because of the demand of the labour market (World Bank, 2003 in Dahlman and Utz 2005:70). Here it seems possible to recall the changing character of UNESCO from chapter 5, which is gradually accepting the fact that

economic development is necessary for the socio-economic development of a country and education is one of the main tools to achieve it. Not only UNESCO or WB; studies are being published from different international sources (e.g. McKinse, EC, OECD, etc.), mentioning the same in different ways. However, it is not just the possibility for economic development, which plays the sole dominant role. Sometimes, strangely however, it is the other way round.

In this regard, we may recall the influence of the economic recessions to promote the global dimensions of LLL. It insisted or sometimes forced Indians to pursue LLL and skill up-gradation in order to keep them employed. This can be understood by referring to Krugman's 'perspiration theory' (in Jhaveri, 2003: 4339). According to the theory, long term sustainable growth is not possible only with the application of financial, physical, human and knowledge resources since the law of 'diminishing return' would apply eventually. It is important, therefore, to make institutional arrangements for adopting and operating management practices as a means of sustainable development. The collaboration with foreign companies, gives India a massive income generation but the lack of innovation (McKinse, 2003) and internal infrastructure also created a possibility of considering India as a 'service supplying' (exporting) country. According to many economists, it is too early to judge India's sustainable economic growth. However, in India, the global recession has created hikes in unemployment of previously employed people, delay in recruitments and cut-downs in salaries. In these circumstances, the crisis leads Indians to find alternatives or to go for further skill improvement, further education and training. The crisis, seems works here as a driving force to move India near to a global path of LLL where skills and experience becomes the deciding factors for employability contrary to the traditional permanent job pattern, mostly prevailing in the public sectors. It could also be said that this new pattern of LLL are pretty much bound by the rule of the market, at least in this case. This situation is even more common in the developed west and that is why they put more emphasis on skills and competencies development not only to be employed, but also to increase the chances of employability. This concept of employability is then certainly more flexible and more demanding than mere employment. It also puts more responsibility on the individual and makes him or her pursue skills up-gradation at a regular basis. In India, this trend can already be seen, where employees are going for on-job training, MBA courses and further skills development initiatives.

The economic growth then creates a huge demand for skilled and competent labour force needed for a present changing economy. Hence it demands continuous education and increase demand for a globally oriented LLL, focused at the economic development. Along with it, the economy, as a factor, also encourages to increase the educational resources and opportunities and in the process, the individuals are given prime focus as they are the once to be and remain skilled and competent to make them employable, even in the time of economic crisis.

The policy response to all these complex interconnected forces for the global perspective of LLL is nevertheless, interesting to observe. In the XIth Planning Commission's reports, the emphasis is on developing necessary skills and competencies. Education for

all (EFA), achievement of the millennium development goals (MDG), individual need based education and the influence of market and globalization on education sectors are mentioned with great emphasis in these policy reports. The Public Private Partnership (PPP) has been put into practice through the National Skill Development Corporation (NSDC). It is the a first-of-its-kind PPP in India set up to facilitate the development and up-gradation of the skills of the growing Indian workforce through skill training programs (NSDC). The National Skills Development Initiative by the NSDC strongly promotes skill development aiming to ensure India's competitiveness in the global market.

The NSDC wants to contribute significantly (about 30 per cent) to the overall target of skilling / up-skilling 500 million people in India by 2022, mainly by fostering private sector initiatives in skill development programs and providing funding (NSDC).

The reasons seem valid. According to the Confederation of Indian Industry (CII) there is a huge skills shortage in India. In the report of the 4th Global Summit in Skills Development (2010), it mentions that India faces a 'dilemma'. It mentions:

> With 40% of world's population under 25 years of age living in India and yet only 5% of total Indian industrial workforce skilled (compared to 85% in South East Asian Countries). Of the 450 million (approx.) workforce in India, only 9% is engaged in the organized sector and only 5% have marketable skills. The largest share of new jobs would come from the unorganized sector, which accounts for the majority of the national workforce (CII, 2010:1).

The draft of the XIIth Five Year Plan echoes the same concept of skills development focusing at the economic development of the country. The main line of thought is how to use this massive number of working age people and how to take the maximum benefit of the 'demographic dividend'. There are more discussion on this in the next sections, however, at this moment the government relies more on the PPP model and a three-tier management system consisting of the Prime Ministers National Council, National Skill Development Coordination Board (NSDCB) and NSDC (Govt. of India, 2012).

Along with skills and competencies development, privatization in education and training is one of the major features of the global perspective of LLL. While dealing with the fast changing nature of the demand of specialized skills, the government realized that-

> In the liberalized global economy where there is a pursuit for achieving excellence, the legitimate role of private providers of quality education not only needs to be recognized, but also encouraged (Planning Commission, India 2007:9).

The policy continues to emphasize improving quality in education, specifically in higher education sectors, to meet the challenges and demands of global forces-

> Quality improvement in higher education will be brought about through restructuring academic programmes to ensure their relevance to modern market

> demands;[…] complete revamping of teaching/learning methods by shifting from traditional repetitive experiments to open-ended design-oriented work for encouraging invention and innovation; compulsory interactive seminar-tutorials, broadening the content of science and engineering programmes […] (Planning Commission of India, 2007:26).

The main aim of these policy orientations in support of the global perspective of LLL may come from different international, national entities, focusing on making India a 'global knowledge hub' (Planning commission, 2007:27). However, the neoliberal principles of the present market economy works here as a main supporting force to strengthen the global perspectives of LLL. Bourdieu (1998 in Stromquist, 2002:6) defines neo-liberalism as a program capable of destroying any collective structure attempting to resist the logic of the 'pure market'. Bhola (2008) explains neo-liberalism as an intertwined discourse with post-modernism which tries to de-construct old ideologies and theories, and norms and practices, to reconstruct new ideas of policy and planning, organization and management, and of course, of pedagogy and institution of schooling itself (Bhola, 2008:10). This powerful discourse is extremely difficult to combat and in present realism, impossible to question because it represents the coordinated actions of all forces in the society that hold powerful positions (e.g. market, government etc.). The discourse of neo-liberalism here, calls for a less interventionist state in economic and social arenas and proposes such measures as deregulation, decentralization, and privatization (Bourdieu in Stromquist, 2002:6). More in-depth analysis on this issue, combined with other issues can be found in the section named 'changes and dilemmas of changes'.

Here, it can be seen how economy with its neo-liberal ideologies can influence and sometimes force the global perspective of LLL in India. The national level policies also response accordingly to achieve more economic growth in this global competitive market economy and thus support the global perspective of LLL. However, the next section explores the opposite side of it; i.e. how economy is influencing to keep India's traditional perspective of LLL.

Economy as a supporting factor to the Traditional Indian perspective of LLL:

This section highlights the not so prosperous sections of the Indian economy, which seem supporting to keep India's traditional perspective of LLL. It may be understood by studying some of the realities of the Indian economy, besides its overwhelming economic growth figures. For instance:

- Indian economy does not consist of service sectors and massive farms only. It has a huge unorganized economic sector where majority of people are working.
- Still India is considered mainly as an agrarian land where more than 50% of the total workforce is involved.
- A chunk of the population in India has almost no money, termed as 'poor vulnerable', 'extremely poor' and 'very poor'.
- Moreover, a majority of this population cannot read and write. India has the largest number of adult illiterates in the world (287 million, 37.03% of total adult

illiterates of the world, according to the EFA: Global Monitoring Report, 2012, UNESCO).

These deprived sections of the society are more likely to get less attention in this market economy as they are not well educated to perform in the global knowledge economy. Nonetheless, from a government perspective, their conditions need to be upgraded and it could be difficult if everything run on the market principals, which provides a threat to exclude the less productive once. Thus, in spite of its economic ambitions and following educational reforms, India has to stick with the traditional perspective of LLL to many extents, which are based on welfare perspectives, contrary to the market principles.

Further analysis shows that an almost direct jump from an agricultural economy to a service economy creates an unbalanced situation inside India. It happened when FDI started to pour in since early 2000s after the technology related jobs were off-shored to India. It left India without an option to improve its secondary economic sectors first and then welcomed the next (tertiary) wave of development. However, along with the FDIs, several corporate giants entered India (Meredith, 2007). Evidently, many small companies could not compete with these big multinationals. Many household shops were also closed down since big shopping malls were spread all over India. These are helping to create increasing income disparity where rich and educated are getting richer and economically poor and illiterates are getting poorer, by losing jobs and/or livelihood. It is an acute problem in India where the market is flowing with money from the upper section of the society, the payment of labor in an unorganized factory remains as low as a dollar a day (Economic Survey India, 2003-04 in Ministry of Finance, Govt. of India, 2004). Moreover, increased living costs have led poor people to go for work and leave school at a very early age. The work pressure and poor economic condition prevent them from acquiring training, even when such facilities exist (Shah S. Y., 2010). The overall outcome of the darker side of economic reform is poor educational scenarios in all educational sectors. These harsh realities of the society rather question the practicalities of the policies supporting the global perspective of LLL, following market principles. In contrast, these facts are probably insisting India to stick with the traditional Indian perspective, which is welfare in nature.

The policy responses; addressing India's economically poor and less educated people, are however, quite interesting. The UGC guideline for LLL can provide a part of the picture on this issue. UGC promotes a variety of programs for all sections of the society. It includes literacy programs, continuing education programs, quality of life improvement programs and a variety of vocational education and skill training programs. The main aim is to increase the skills as well as to convey the importance of skill up-gradation to the weaker section of the society. This can be seen in the draft of the XIIth plan as well, where the main focus is to improve the existing programs and introduce new programs, which are intended to improve the socio-economic conditions of the disadvantaged. Hence, a majority of these programs are designed to teach basic skills, which can keep them to be employed and make them self-dependent. The primary aim here, is not necessarily to increase the economic benefit, but towards the grass root development of the society and securing basic income source for all. This focus of LLL

here seems very different from that of the global one; because instead of putting everything in the hand of the market; Indian policies are trying to take care of the economically and educationally poor sections of the society from a welfare outlook. LLL here represents a social benefit model over an economic one. This tradition seems to continue as long as India is unable to eradicate poverty and the illiteracy, at least up-to a great extent.

It is however seems important to highlight, that it is a drawback for any country, if it cannot eradicate poverty and illiteracy even after six decades of independence and during recent its economic reforms. This in turn indicates a major drawback of the national policies. These major black holes have piled up over decades and now stopping the aims of the desired economic development in India. Analysing them with the 3P model (Bhola, 2006), the policies of independent India seems to be neither completely principled, and professionally sound, nor, they prove fully practical for Indian socio-economic educational development. Hence, since Independence, this long legacy of illiteracy is causing many problems and it is likely to continue in near future as well. Thus, all the Planning Commissions (including the latest XIth and XIIth) have to mention the literacy initiatives separately as a part of LLL, where the aims are not very different from that of the first Planning Commission report. Many efforts are being made so far to eradicate illiteracy and maintain a good habit of learning in Indian society, but many of them failed in the beginning or ended up with very poor outcomes (Bagchi, 2005; Meredith, 2007; Mandal, 1993). The market here plays less significant role and the policies keeps the traditional perspective of LLL.

The above section on 'economy' has discussed that the growth of the Indian economy could show a positive sign for the global perspective of LLL in India. However, the poor economic and educational condition of a huge section of the population has forced India to stick with its traditional perspective of LLL. The multiparty system, in many incidents, has stopped the government from the necessary economic renovations. These might have affected the overall slow economic progress of the country, however also saved many economically and educationally disadvantaged people from becoming even more downtrodden. In addition, the populist nature of the government also stops the spreading of the global perspective of LLL and market economy to a great extent. Finally, the lack of timely educational development (both policies and implementations) for the disadvantageous section has caused a slowdown in the rate of progress. It looks even more prominent since this age is largely been considered as the age of knowledge yet India has the maximum number of illiterates. Broadly, this represents two sides of India, which are rather opposite. Hence, the presence of a tensions and dilemmas of reforms could be found in this section of analysis quite prominently.

This above-mentioned views related to economy are partly affirmed by the interview responses. Especially, all agreed that economy has an enormous impact on changing Indian dimensions of LLL. However, some were critical of the over emphasis on the education oriented goals of learning and questions the very intention of LLL, and especially its 'life-wide' dimensions. To Amharst, the present understanding of LLL in India means learning some skills, which are necessary to get job and not necessarily to

improve the society as a whole. Following his thoughts, PremChand, Seth, Singh mentioned that it is perhaps important to look for long-term effects of this economy-centric dimensions of education, neglecting others. Shamshu, the Joint Advisor of the Planning Commission of India, however has a different opinion. She perceives this economy-centric LLL as a process to bridge the long-haul gap between education and occupation. The learning and industry relation is thus, the key for the societal success. Her opinion, although personal, somehow seems similar to that of the national plans and major policies, which are explained later in this chapter.

Looking carefully at the discussion of this subsection, it could also be found that a major part of these economic progresses and related educational renovations have started and spread due to the lightning advancement of the modern information and communication technologies (ICT). Therefore, it deserves a separate section for expanded analysis. The next section thus, discusses the issue of ICT and explains how it is influencing in changing the dimensions of LLL in India.

ICT influencing the Indian dimensions of LLL

The last four decades have witnessed a wide spread of modern Information Communication Technology (ICT) and the last two decades show its acceleration and overwhelming effect to all corners of the world. With new inventions and constant innovations, the ICT has reached up to a level where it made itself available and understandable to the mass. It helped us to become a part of the globalized world and kindled many other changes in the society. It is helping the way people interact with the world. Interaction through social networking and access to much information sources help reunite friends, raise voices against corruption and autocracy, provides networking among groups of various interests, enabling to explore different opportunities of learning and many more. Mobile phones, for instance, are no more just a tool for talking and texting; it provides much more interactivity, information and enables the user to learn. Traditional ICT methods like radio, television etcetera are less interactive in that sense; however, they also play very important roles in providing learning opportunities. In many ways, the modern ICT revolution has reduced and replaced in certain dimension the importance of the traditional learning methods. The practice of studying content, data, and so forth are fast becoming obsolete and being replaced by a learning paradigm, which focuses on the capacity to find, access and apply knowledge to potential problem solving. The importance is therefore, given on information literacy, analysis and the ability to provide logical reasons rather than to memorise specific information (Khan & Williams, 2007:165). In short, ICT is changing the way we learn. However, the relation between ICT and the changing dimension of LLL is not solely the result of advanced technologies. To understand this, we need to look it from many angels and one of the most important is to investigate the way ICT is changing world economic activities.

Knowledge has become the principle force of production over the last few decades (Lyotard, 1984). 'The world is experiencing a major shift from an economy and society based on mass production to one, based on knowledge creation. This shift has significant

implications for the development of human resources and for changes in all of the components of the education system, not just the use of ICT' (UNESCO, 2011:4). Even beyond education, ICT can represent a new source of economic growth and a powerful tool for social transformation. Hence through their economic and social effects, ICT can contribute in creating a knowledge society and economy' (UNESCO 2011). During the last two decades, India witnessed a rapid change, not just in the world of technology, but also in the world of economy and education. It is perhaps not an exaggeration to claim that ICT revolutionized India and became a boon for the economy, creating a new era of upsurge in GDP and a vision to become a knowledge society in future. It also promotes the global dimension of LLL since it supports a fast change in the society to become flexible, not only to be accustomed with the modernizing technologies, but also to be able to learn and contribute effectively in the economy based on ICT. However, the growth on one side creates several challenges for the economically and educationally disadvantaged side of India and poses a threat for an even more unequal ground for development. Along with many other issues, this negative effect of the so-called modern ICT promotes the traditional dimensions of LLL.

ICT as a supporting factor to the global dimension of LLL in India:

This sub-section, explains how ICT is influencing the present dimension LLL through promoting both global and traditional perspectives. It starts with how ICT promotes the global dimension of LLL in India. In the first paragraphs, it explores how ICT entered in India and penetrated in the new economic order, which has benefited India, and influenced the change in the traditional culture of education. Later in this section, it explores the positive policy responses in response to the benefit India is enjoying. It also discusses and analyzes the policies and documents to show why, in Indian context, it seems viable and working as a supporting force to the global dimension of LLL.

In India, the path towards technology-induced development, especially associated with ICT, was given a vent in 1984 by the Congress Government under Rajiv Gandhi in 80s (Bajwa, 2003). In the 90s, the stress on ICT become even higher and continued to grow and because of the National task force on Information Technology and Software Development in 1998, it is reinforced, which aims to establish India as information based superpower in a decade. Later the Ministry of Information Technology (1999) was set up followed by another task force on Information Technology as a Knowledge Superpower, which aims to make India a knowledge economy and society based on the educational development of all (primary, secondary and tertiary; formal and non-formal) sectors. In the mean time, the economic liberalization tied with the growing development of the tertiary sector, helped India to become one of the top ten fastest growing economy in the world (Bajwa, 2003). These provide a stronger base for India to focus on educational changes to attain a competitive worldwide position.

However, studies on the Indian economy show that the changes in different economic sectors were not gradual. That means it did not follow the straight path of moving from an agricultural economy to a manufacturing economy and then to a service based one. Without a few exceptions of big manufacturing farms, Indian economy, in its pre-liberalization era was largely dominated by agriculture and that too with very

rudimentary machineries. However, the liberalizations of economy in 90s, as stated earlier, also brought major changes in the world of ICT. Before that period, importing and exporting of goods were difficult and sluggish. Hence, in the fast changing world of technologies, India was lagging behind. Later, in the post-reform period, businesses surged up. Bangalore (now Bengaluru) became the 'Silicon Valley' of India pioneered by 'Infosys' and followed by many. Now there are ICT clusters in all major cities in India. It portrays a developed India inside a developing country framework.

The total growth of this sector over the years is overwhelming. 'The Estimated GDP generated in the ICT sector has increased from Rs[37]. 656 billion in 2000-01 to Rs. 2530 billion in 2007-08, which amounts to a compound annual growth rate of 21.3 per cent. The CSO estimates that the share of the ICT sector in total GDP has risen from 3.4 per cent in 2000-01 to 5.9 per cent in 2007-08. ICT services dominate the ICT industry and over time, the share of ICT services in total GDP has increased from 3.1 per cent in 2000-01 to 5.5 per cent in 2007-08 (Chandrasekhar 2010). The Indian software and service on export including ITeS-BPO is estimated as US $ 49.7 billion in 2009-10 at an increase rate of 5.5 percent. This is coupled with the growth of telecommunication market. In recent years, it is one of the fastest growing telecommunication markets in the world (UNSTATS). Recently, the share of internet has increased dramatically and now it contributes nearly 5% of GDP growth (nominal I local currency) and it is growing at a rate of more than 20 percent (source - OECD National Accounts, McKinsey analysis in Mckinse, 2011:16). India, here is leading the growth component followed by China (McKinsey 2011). All the major companies like HP, IBM, Dell, Microsoft, Intel and many others are investing more on ICT sectors in India. All of these trends predicts that Indian ICT market will continue to grow and it has made this sector an important player in the service-lead development trajectory and help India to rank 11th among the top service exporting countries. Not only that; the ICT market in India is growing at a rate of 33 percent during the past five years and also accounted for 5.2 per cent of India's National GDP during 2003-04(Jain and Agrawal, 2007: 41).

Although India enjoys the fruits of ICT, it is increasingly facing competitions. In the 'Knowledge Economy Index' (KEI) 2009 India ranks 109 with a score of 3.09 out of 10 which is 9 rank below its previous rank of 100 in 2008 (World Bank, 2009). However, it is not only the individual ranking that matters. China, the neighbouring giant ranks far ahead than that of India (18 alone and 23 jointly with Taiwan and Hong Kong respectively in 2009). Even many countries like Brazil (KEI Rank 54 in 2009), South Africa (KEI rank 65 in 2009) and other developing counties are coming up as potential competitors. In another report by the World Economic Forum (WEF), India ranks 48th in the Network Readiness Index (NRI 2010-11), which is five ranks below from its previous rank. China, on the other hand ranks 36 and made significant progress. In fact, China has leapfrogged 23 positions and features among the 10 most dynamic countries worldwide. In terms of improvement in Asian countries, Indonesia, Sri Lanka and Vietnams have been the fastest improving economies along with China, since 2006. (WEF, 2011:24). As a result, in spite of the progress in the number of mobile phone users or increased business

[37] Rs – Indian rupees (INR) currency.

in tertiary sector India's rank has not improved over the past half decade. This shows that it is not enough to be just good; rather India should be globally competitive as a nation to keep the sustainability of the growth it is enjoying now. This sense of competition, which can be considered as a by-product of globalization, influences India to follow a global path of liberalizing market, improving physical infrastructure etc.

However, the challenge is the virtual nonexistence of quality graduate education and research in information and other crucial technologies. Even in the Indian Institute of Technology (IITs) the quality of students has declined (Narayana Murthy, 2011). Several reports have raised their concern about the quality of science and technology gradates in India. 75% of technical graduates and more than 85% of general graduates are unemployable by India's high-growth global industries, including information technology and call centres, according to the National Association of Software and Services Companies' (The Wall Street Journal, 2011). Contrasting, but the truth is that the 'nation that made offshoring a household word, now finds itself short of quality talents to attract services from abroad. Although multinational companies are still exporting business to India, but now they are also leaning towards South-East Asian countries (e.g. Philippines).

This is causing several problems. First, in a competitive situation, below quality graduates means jobs moving to other countries. Secondly, in long term, this also indicates towards a less feasible innovation system, which could also mean a less sustainable development for India. Thirdly, it questions the traditional, bureaucratic and outdated (without a few exceptions) education system, which is unable to produce decent quality graduates with the basic necessary skills to be employable. It is in fact, questions the entire education system, not just because the graduates are not sufficiently skilled to be hired, but also to the system which aims only at passing exams, which in most cases overlooks the actual skills and competencies development of the pupil. This rather triggers another question of changing a mind-set of the students, teachers and educational authorities that a degree does not necessarily mean knowledge. In the words of Saurabh Govil, senior vice president in human resources at Wipro Technologies; "How are you able to change the mind-set that knowledge is more than a stamp (Govil in The Wall Street Journal 2011)?

However, in spite of the negative impact of the education, the demand is still on the rise. Until now, from both international and national standpoints, India is a cheaper and quality place for ICT based economy. However, to exploit this opportunity, it needs a huge number of highly capable human resources who can execute the ICT based works for the global and local market and at the same time be sufficiently innovative to take this into the next level from a service supplying economy to a service consuming and producing one. Therefore, the demand here creates an urge to promote educational opportunities for the national economic development. This demands a more flexible system, which secures a constant and sufficient supply of human resource to the ICT arena starting from the very basic level of primary education and all the way to the top including the non-formal and informal ways of it. It promotes regular on job learning

opportunities through projects and regular trainings. It asks for a system, which enables employees to go back to education system to upgrade them for the next level.

The policy responses from the transnational organizations promote this vision of continuous up gradation as well. The WB clearly puts forward the idea that the opportunities for countries in the developing world to become successful knowledge based economies are plentiful, and leapfrogging is a real possibility (World Bank, 2007:167). Based on the pillars of Knowledge Economy (education, innovation and ICTs), it prescribes that 'India should continue to leverage its strengths to become a leader in knowledge creation and use. To get the greatest benefits from the knowledge revolution, the country needs to press on with the economic reform agenda that it put into motion more than a decade ago and continue to implement the various policy and institutional changes needed to accelerate growth. The necessary reforms include a reform in the educational system which does not only include a inclusion of a development plan for ICT skills, but also other soft skills as problem solving, analytical skills, group learning, working in a team-based environment, and effective communication. Once required only of managers, these skills are now important for all. Fostering such skills requires an education system, which is flexible yet robust. Basic education should provide the foundation for formal learning, and secondary and tertiary education should develop core skills that encourage creative and critical thinking. According to the Bank, it is also necessary to develop an effective LLL system to provide continuing education and skill upgrading to persons after they have left formal education in order to provide the changing skills necessary to be competitive in the new global economy (Dahlman & Utz 2005). The World Bank recognizes that:

> Education is the fundamental enabler of the knowledge economy [and] with ICT use becoming all-pervasive and its impacts transformational, it has become an essential backbone of the knowledge economy' (Dahlman & Utz, 2005: xx)

There is a high preference of promoting the global dimension of LLL as the attributes supports the core component of modernizing India based on ICT. The United Nations have an ICT advisory group with representatives from developing countries and the industry. In fact, all the major international organizations (e.g. WB, OECD, UNESCO etc.) recommend educational restructuring focusing at the changes that ICT brings to the society.

In addition to the changes in the formal education sector, ICT can provoke new ways of LLL through informal and non-formal ways. In India, it also works as a mode of income generation. Due to its increasing number of mobile phone users, there are more and more mobile store and reappearing centres opening all over the country including the rural and remote areas. This helps the youth of this country to earn and learn new technologies and they are also helping and enabling users of ICTs. This informal and non-formal ways of learning is have literally changed the way people learn through communication. The use of mobile phone in distance learning is also growing though institutional supports here is not yet satisfactory.

The policy response to the advancement of ICT, changing global economic interactivity and influence of international organizations are attention grabbing. In the same line with the previously set up task forces, the recent national five year plans (X^{th},XI^{th} and XII^{th}) recognize the 'competitive advantages of brain power, assimilate and adopt spectacular developments in system integration and technology, and harness them for national growth in today's knowledge-based world economy. Soon it realized that technology and knowledge could be a tool to give India a competitive advantage (Bajwa, 2003). The XI^{th} planning commissions clearly states that;

> Science, technology, and innovation are even more relevant today. Scientific knowledge and expertise, innovation, high technology, industrial infrastructure and skilled workforce are the currencies of this new era (Planning Commission of India, 2011:165).

The planning commission recognizes that more and intense improvements are necessary in the science and technology sector to support the national economy. It recognizes the international competition and challenges and seeks to develop an innovative eco-system with-

- an education system which nurtures creativity;
- an R&D culture and value system which supports both basic and applied research;
- and technology development;
- an industry culture which is keen to interact with the academia;
- a bureaucracy which is supportive;
- a policy framework which encourages young people to enter into scientific careers;
- and
- an ability to scan scientific developments in the world and use technology; and
- foresight to select critical technologies in a national perspective.

(Planning Commission of India, 2011:165)

India has set up a National Mission on Education through ICT (NMEICT) to provide better internet connectivity in the higher educational institutes. Efforts are being made to translate the books from English to regional languages and make them available online. Radio reached almost all over the country, the cable television network is broadcasting 24X7 in various regional and international languages, telephone access reaches almost everywhere through the 'public' telephone booths and now spreading rapidly with the public and private mobile telephone services. In the major documents, the government is recognizing the importance of ICT in literacy as a first step towards the knowledge society. A number of computer literacy programs are in operation throughout India, even in its remote corners. In the formal educational sector, use of computers is promoted. To promote the access even further keeping in mind the economic conditions of a majority of students, Indian government has introduced the cheapest tablet computer named 'Aakash' (meaning 'sky') for students at a very cheap price of just $35.

Mr. Kapil Sibal, the then Human Resource Development minister said that it would enhance learning in India, as it will be able to reach to the masses. He said:

> The rich have access to the digital world, the poor and ordinary have been excluded. Aakash will end that digital divide (Sibal in BBC, 2011).

The government also promotes public private partnerships in developing ICT based and market oriented training modules, promotes private institutions where ICT based learning is demand driven. The vocational institutes are encouraged to be ICT equipped wherever possible. Libraries are facilitated to be electronically accessible and encouraged to work with the government to create, store, disseminate knowledge based on ICT platform, and promote information literacy initiative by collaborating with different entities (e.g. teachers) and so on[i]. The higher education sector received utmost attention in this regard. National Knowledge Commission (NKC) recommended several measures to make Indian higher education more ICT enabled, more autonomous and competitive. The University Grants Commission (UGC) has devised an action plan for academic and administrative reforms, ICT skills development is being promoted via vocational education and trainings. Overall, the government put much more effort to promote the ICT education and development keeping in mind the competitive global labour markets (extracts from the major documents including the XIth five year plan, Govt. of India 2011).

On policy and to some extent in practice, the government clearly recognizes the fact that ICT is inevitable for the modern world and therefore educational reforms in pro-ICT direction are necessary. It also recognizes that the education has moved out from its traditional shell and entered into a more open learning paradigm which is also, to some extends, ICT dependent. The changes ICT brings to the Indian education sectors to foster the global dimension of LLL is in turn a matter of national interest. It is related with national economic development and individual success in the twenty first century. It is a benchmark tool for Indian dream to become a knowledge superpower as well. Here ICT is changing the dimension of LLL through liberalization; privatization and globalization, which constitute the current social, economic, technological and political space (Reddi 2008).

The positive forces to promote the global dimensions of LLL are coming from the international organizations supporting the global paradigm of LLL and in relation to ICT, no one is against the use of it. According to Reddi, "We no longer have a choice. It is no longer an "if" but "how" to deploy the technologies optimally (Reddi, 2008). The interviews done for this research also unanimously supports this argument. In a similar way, ICT gets a ubiquitous 'yes' from all the stakeholders. This overwhelming influence and potential of ICT was understood by India in 80s and from there, the technological advancement has helped India to leapfrog a long way towards its economic maturity. These positive results work as a supporting force to change the other not so technology dependent sectors and work as a catalyst of educational development in India. Here, the relation between ICT and global dimension of LLL are rather complementary and it has improved the standards of lives to a great extent. Therefore, to consider it only as influence of multinational firms would limit its scope. The LLL paradigm here

completely embraces the ICT revolution and aims to be global in standard wherever feasible.

However, ICT, in spite of influencing many changes in the economic direction, technological orientation and communication revolution also helps creating several pitfalls and negative situations where the global LLL is seriously questioned. Along with this, there are several other issues related to ICT in India, which act as resisting force to the global dimension of LLL and in turn stands strong in support of the traditional one. The next section of the chapter will elaborate on this issue in detail.

ICT as a supporting factor to the traditional Indian perspective of LLL

> Paradoxically, ICT is both the problem and the solution to LLL. It is an immense problem in the kinds of dis-benefits it brings. […]However, the fact is that ICT is producing a major change in both the content and the processes of learning, such that we do not have the option of ignoring it (Mason, 2004[38]).

This above comment may refer to the point that the resistance to ICT is not similar to that of the other major factor discussed here. The resistance is not prominent in the form of a total 'no-no' to ICT initiative, rather the resistance highlights the problem ICT brings. Hence this section tries to identify and analyze different factors related to ICT, which are influencing and sometime forcing India to follow a traditional path of LLL. This helps to focus on finding the core causes of the dimensions of LLL in relation to ICT.

Overall, the problems in association with ICT could be summed up in two alluring terms - 'digital divide' and 'knowledge divide'. ICT, with its up-to-date and sophisticated inventions and innovation accelerated the Indian economy and some, who are not directly linked with ICT industries, have also been benefited. Overall, ICT holds limited potential to spread the wealth to the poorer section of the society (Dreze & Sen, 2002). Unlike the heavy manufacturing industries, in ICT based industries, it generates few opportunities for the unqualified people and hence it initially contributed effectively in establishing a wider 'digital divide' (Konana & Balasubramanian, 2001). Further studies show that when the ICT boom started in the Indian states of Karnataka and Maharashtra there were no ICT policies and the industries ware mostly driven by private sectors. That resulted in an unequal distribution of wealth and knowledge where the section with more knowledge suddenly became rich and other half without necessary education stayed poor. The government started taking initiative in later phases where the 'knowledge divide' became very prominent (Meredith, 2007, Bajwa 2003). However, to understand the problem, specifically the resistance towards ICT and the problems with the limited use of ICT and its consequence on the dimensions of LLL, it is necessary to dig deeper. It, initially, reveals that in India, the problems are many and come from different directions. Broadly, it can be classified in the following segments;

- Mode of ICT tools– Old vs. New
- Affordability
- Unequal access

[38] Online document, without page number.

- Lack of infrastructure
- Lack of understanding
- Other barriers – political, social, religious, gender related etc.

We may start with a theoretical argument, which shows that by definition, ICTs are basically information-handling tools – a varied set of goods, applications and services that are used to produce, store, process, distribute and exchange information (UNDP, 2001). Therefore, by definition, it covers every information and communication tools. However, it is broadly to be understood synonymous to computer and related modern communication technologies. In fact, the UNDP document classifies them into two broad categories, namely the 'old' and 'new'. The old includes radio, television and telephone and the 'new' includes computer, satellite, wireless technology and internet (UNDP, 2001). However, 'what is old and what is new'; Livingstone argued (Livingstone, 1999). According to Livingstone, it is 'time' and 'space' relative and hence subjective. Reddi (2008) also supports the argument that, what is new in the West (developed West) is not necessarily so for the rest of the world (Livingstone, 1999; Reddi, 2008). In case of the public driven ICT movement in India, it mainly depends on the so-called 'old' ICT tools and has recently started experimenting with the 'new' one. In fact, many new programs in India are based on 'old' ICT tools and methods.

According to UNESCO, both 'old' and 'new' ICT tools are useful in learning (UNESCO, 2011). However, new technologies are more interactive and hence offer more self-learning opportunities compared to radio and television, which are mostly non-interactive. Internet alone makes a huge difference. The use of mobile phone can be mentioned in this regard, but the efforts by these modes are still at an experimental level in India. Therefore, in reality, people who can afford and/or get access to modern ICT tools, learn more and learn faster compared to others. They are likely to become more creative and not just become passive listeners like that of the radio or televisions. Another possible consequence includes the users of old technologies are likely to be far behind than the users of newer technologies as the digital divide will increase further.

Secondly, the users of new ICT tools have better learning and employability opportunities in future since the world is moving towards a knowledge economy, based on modern technologies. Data shows that there are only 5.1 internet users per 100 people and broadband subscribers are less than one (0.6) per 100 people (2009-10) in India. The internet access in schools are quite low and India ranks 118 with a score of 5.1 (out of 10) and countries like Zambia, Botswana and Libya are ahead than that of India. China is far ahead with a rank of 75. Apart from the internet, the number of households with a personal computer is also low and India ranks lower than that of Ghana, Kenya, Sri Lanka and Pakistan (data, 2008) (Data source – World Economic Forum, 2011). However, the problem does not stand-alone. It is coupled with other factors like affordability, unequal access etc. discussed below.

Affordability is certainly a crucial factor in India to promote ICT. Even though, globally ICT is becoming cheaper, it is not so for many Indians. Having a personal computer is

unthinkable for many who cannot even have electricity connection due to their poor economic condition. For some, it can cost a month's salary or more (Dighe, 2008). In these circumstances, the government needs to step in and support with different mechanisms. The good news is, it is happening in the form of providing cheap tablets to students (mentioned before) and through innovative educational initiatives in some states (e.g. Karnataka with the private partnership of NIIT). However, these are far less than sufficient for the whole nation of more than a billion people. Thus, the future of ICT based learning seems not very promising for many. Reddi (2008) shows his concern saying that there are likely to be four levels of learners. The first level of learns are those who can afford the high cost of education. They will get best educational facilities and infrastructure. The second level will consist of intelligent and competent students, who are initially unable to afford the cost of education but will be able to get it on the basis of their outstanding merit. This group will soon catch the first level of learners. The third level will consist of academically and financially poor students who have to get education from lower quality institutions and hence are likely to be more backward in future. The last group will consist of the illiterate and poor and they are less likely to be able to improve their learning conditions and standards up to any satisfactory level needed for 21st century (Reddi, 2008). Time will tell how far Reddi's (2008) propositions are valid for India. Nevertheless, this seems certainly a matter of great concern considering India's present unbalanced ICT development. Moreover, considering hundreds of millions of economically poor and illiterates, affordability to the modern ICTs and/or limited use of it considering the language barriers (most of the modern ICTs are in English) could lead to negative consequences. It is already creating regional imbalances, as it is seen that the economically advanced regions tend to pay more for ICTs. For example, urban areas are better ICTs equipped than that of rural regions. The World Economic Forum shows that 22 percent of urban population spends 51 percent of the total ICT spending in India and the rest of 49 percent spending is done by the 78 percent of rural population (World Economic Forum 2011:49).

> The real challenge is to promote the effective application and use of ICTs throughout the economy to raise productivity and growth, not just in a few pockets. Ensuring that the benefits of ICTs are shared by all requires an enabling environment for ICTs (Dahlman & Utz, 2005)

Coupled with these, there are other problems too. In a sub-tropical country like India, the installation and maintenance cost of a computer is more than that of a colder region. It needs an air condition and machines should be prevented from dust and other natural hazardous objects. Dighe (2008) shows that most of the money is spend on establishing the hardware that often there is less money left for the actual training or planning. The result are showing a rejection of use of the modern ICT methods or emphasizes on sticking to its minimal use, which are counted as less satisfactory output

Affordability is, however, not the only problem. Access to modern ICT is another great concern here. There are many places in India without a broadband network and still many villages without even an electricity connection. Many rural and semi-urban areas

are also suffering with severe power cuts, the versatile FM radio networks are mainly limited to cities and their peripheries. Internet use via mobile phone is increasing in the urban areas but not so much in the rural areas. There are more issues and possible faults in planning as well. The contents prepared for teaching children and adults through ICTs, are often not relevant, locally suited and timely. Hence, although available, they are often not accessed. Furthermore, preparing the multimedia contents in local languages is a great challenge and it has not yet been overcome fully. The learners are often not consulted while preparation of materials and contents. They often come as a part of the top-down mechanism India follows and hence it is not rooted in ground realities. These are either issues of language discriminations or limitations of integrating all the Indian languages in the ICT led educational development. The issue is again highlighted in the discussion of 'language' as a factor.

These discriminations make ICTs practically less useful (Reddi, 2008). However, discrimination can also happen at household levels. In India, girls in many places are prevented from using ICTs freely and women users of internet represent a much smaller number (International Telecommunication Union, 2002 in Dighe, 2008). Rural illiterates and rural women are often not given the ownership of control of the means of communication with the perception that they cannot handle the technology (Reddi, 2008). These are serious problems of access, which enforces India to stick to its traditional method of classroom education and learning and rarely venture into the modern ICTs. In addition to these, there are problems of caste discriminations, poverty and many more; some of which are discussed in this chapter.

There is another very serious problem related to the 'perception' related to ICT and learning (Dighe 2008) among teachers, trainers etc. There is still modest recognition at many levels that ICT can actually be used to truly enhance LLL. Many think that it is merely another tool and hence do not utilize the full potential of it. There is lack in teacher training to use ICT properly. In many places, the popular practice is to use computers as a tool to make better power point presentation, which is barely any significant up-gradation from the old overhead projections. Even the ultimate use of power-point projection to make it more attractive is rare. It is perhaps the lack of understanding that the style of teaching has to be changed. As Mr. Sam Pitroda (advisor to the Prime Minister, India) clearly points out-

> Teacher today spends most of his or her time in delivering content and creating content. Content is already created on internet, there is no need for teacher to deliver content. Role of a teacher will have to change to that of a mentor. All of these models will change the way we used to look at education (Pitroda, 2010).

It is seen that, in many cases teachers do not feel comfortable to change their teaching style and resist ICT penetration in the education system. It is possibly infused with lack of previous modeling, personal experience, proper training, and a lack of understanding about the new studet-centered learning models. Teachers are still, in many cases, considers them as information provider, without realizing the shift brought by the

modern ICTs. Sometimes however, they feel threatened and further challenged when told that they have to use ICTs. They feel scared that they might lose their job and will be replaced by the ICTs (Reddi, 2008). Not only the teachers, but also some politicians seem not to understand the fact that ICT is a actually a complimentary tool of learning. For e.g. during the Left party rule in West Bengal (a state in Eastern India), the party functionaries protested against the use of computers in government offices with the perception that people will lose their jobs. That resulted in a ban for computers for many years in the said state, a long-term deficit in ICT development and less prospective future for the students of that generation. The former chief minister of Bihar (a state of India) Mr. Laloo Prasad Yadav said that IT could not be the thrust of a nation where priority is agriculture and economic development (Times of India, 2000 in Bajwa, 2003). This lack of understanding, political will and poor planning and regulation work together, negatively, for ICT in India. It sometimes also transmits a negative impression that ICT is causing the divide. Here, it is perhaps important to remember that:

> Technology is a double-edged sword. In the 20th century, rapid techno-logical advances led to rising standards of living, literacy, health and life expectancy. They also made possible a century of more deadly warfare, the industrialization of mass murder, global warming and ecocide. The promise of ICTs for the 21st century likewise presents both opportunities and challenges. ICTs, like all technologies, are tools. How they are used depends on the user and the context (UNDP, 2001).

UNESCO however recognizes that under the right conditions, it is believed that ICT can have a monumental impact on the expansion of learning opportunities for greater and more diverse populations, beyond cultural barriers, and outside the confines of teaching institutions or geographical boundaries (Haddad & Draxler, 2002 in UNESCO, 2002:11). However, the situation in India in relation to the use of ICT is by far close from 'right' or ideal. On one hand, the government initiatives are inadequate and unevenly placed. In remote areas, there is no infrastructure for internet, computer, or even electricity lines. Although the situation has improved a lot, but from the governments to the teachers, the taboo related to modern ICT is still present (Mandal, 2012). In the form of a traditional teacher-student relation, use of traditional tools and teaching styles, use of backdated and outdated study materials and finally the inability to understand, implement and act according to the changing society have reduced the scope of ICT in India. Hence, it continues to support the traditional perspective of LLL in the less developed sections of India. The possible consequences are a future towards more 'digital and knowledge divide' as the developed section will continue to grow at a rapid pace and the gap will be even larger (Mandal, 2012).

The above discussion of ICT shows that the presence of ICT has potential for positively working as a supportive agent for the global dimension of LLL, but this potential is conditioned by crossing variables and phenomena that India is not optimally positioned to receive all the ICT booms and spread its good effects to all corners of the country. This is causing a tension between ICT enabled and disabled, old and new ICTs and affecting

the learning paradigm. The problem is even larger in a country like India which is very diverse in nature; economically, educationally and so forth.

According to the responses of the interviewees also, ICT is benefitting a section of the population to learn, leaving others. However, all agree that the benefit of ICT has revolutionized education. Reddy, who is an academic at the IGNOU[39], explained how modern technology has influenced policy makers to opt for digitalization of the study materials, documents so that people can access them from anywhere. He, however, thinks that the befit of technology should definitely be given to the economically deprived on a priority basis. Regarding the spread of ICT in changing the educational paradigms, interviewees however coined some interesting points. To Singh, the benefits of modern ICT have largely reached in the large-medium and small towns, leaving the countless villages in India. This opinion is however partly challengeable, as data shows that people in rural India are increasingly using mobile phones, radios and TVs. Nevertheless, there is perhaps no denying the fact that the rate and expansion of the development of ICT in villages are far less than that of the cities. The reason is partly provided by Reddy, who told that although modern ICT tools are getting cheaper, but they are still not affordable to many millions Indian families. Data supports this opinion and adds that although there is buying capacity for some, the lack of proper infrastructure (e.g. internet, even electricity) is one of the main obstacles for the educational development initiated by ICT, in India. Hence, in the analysis, it can be seen that the benefits of economy, demography and ICT have great influences on changing the educational landscape of India. However, each factor has various consequences, both positive and negative.

However, when it comes to deciding the dimensions of LLL in contemporary India; all aspects of the society, economy and population are to be counted. Moreover, the issue of population emerges many times in the discussion so far. The factor of 'population' therefore seems carrying a special significance. It seem even more evident, as India is a country of more than a billion people and enjoys the demographic dividend, or the benefit of having large number of working age population. It certainly plays an important role in deciding the future of the country and as the future is towards a knowledge society, it is related with learning. Hence, it seems worth discussing the issue of demography in detail. It is interesting to find out how the economic, educational standards of India combined with the total number of youth and working age population promotes or opposes the new dimension of learning. The next section discusses all these issues in detail.

Demography influencing the Indian dimensions of LLL

The aim of this section is to explore how demographic situation in India influences the dimensions of LLL. Like other section of this chapter, it shows how demography and related factors influences both the global and the traditional Indian perspective of LLL. This section is therefore divided into two sub-sections and helps to explore

[39] IGNOU- Indira Gandhi National Open University.

the presence of tension between two perspectives of LLL, namely the global and the traditional Indian perspectives respectively, using demography as a factor for analysis. Following the outline of the previous section (of economy and ICT) this starts with how demography is working as a supporting factor to the global dimension of LLL.

Demography as a supporting factor to the global perspective of LLL

This subsection explores how demography can influence the global perspective of LLL in the Indian context by putting emphasis on developing human resource needed for the economy and development. If we look at the population scenario of India, we can see that it is by far the second largest populated place in the whole world, with a total number population of more than 1.21 billion (National bureau of Census India, 2011) which is after China (1.34 billion). It is estimated that with the population growth, India is soon going to be the largest in terms total population. This also means that, the population is growing at a rapid stage and more youth population is adding up each year. The result is, 59% of the population is in the working age group (National bureau of Census, 2001). This massive potential manpower is termed as the 'demographic dividend'. Looking at this population trend the XIIth Planning Commission says that-

> These changing demographic profiles indicate that India has a unique 20 to 25 years' window of opportunity called "demographic dividend". The demographic dividend is essentially due to two factors (a) declining birth rates and (b) improvement in life expectancy. [...] The "demographic dividend" accounts for India having world's youngest work force with a median age way below that of China and OECD Countries. Alongside this window of opportunity for India, the global economy is expected to witness a skilled man power shortage to the extent of around 56 million by 2020. Thus, the 'demographic dividend' in India needs to be exploited not only to expand the production possibility frontier but also to meet the skilled manpower requirements of in India and abroad (Govt. of India, 2012)

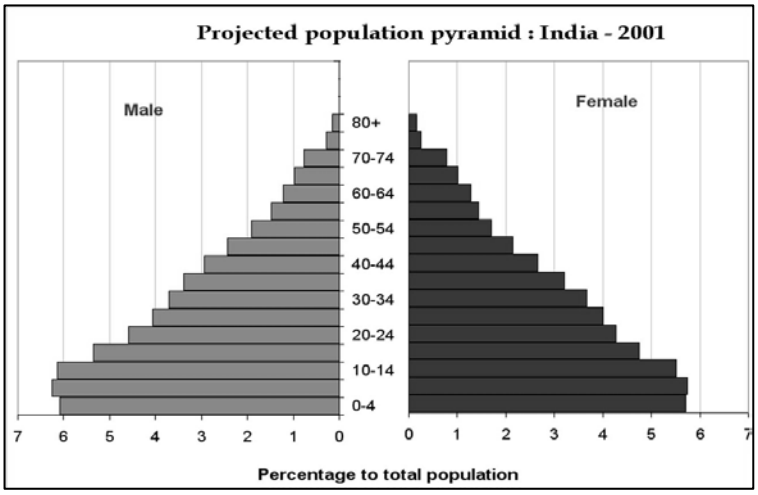


Figure 13: Projected Population Pyramid - India 2001

[Source : Govt. of India, 2006]

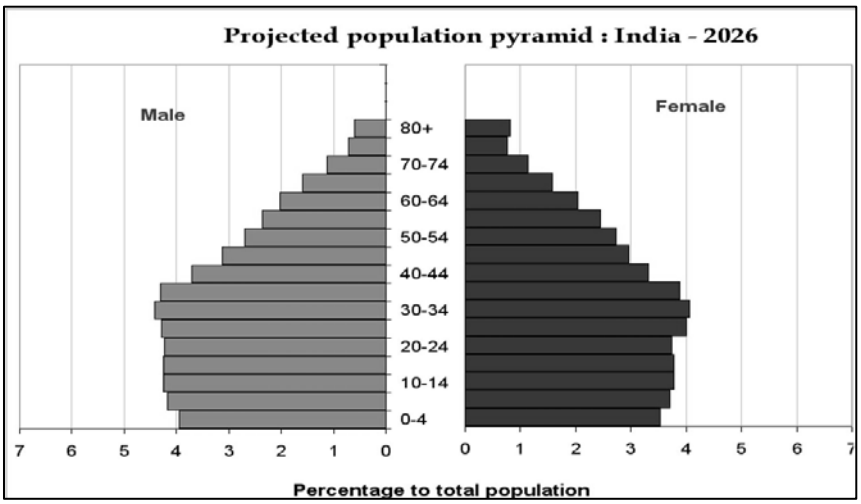


Figure 14: Projected Population Pyramid- India- 2026 [Source: Govt. of India, 2006]

The above two diagrams (Figure 13 and Figure 14) depicts the demographic dividend India is enjoying and going to enjoy for next few years. According to census report 2011, this growth will continue for the next two decades before it starts to decline. The population pyramid and the age-group wise distribution show that the large number of children (age group 0-14) in 2001 (Figure 13) will grow up and eventually join the number of working age population in next few years. Therefore, the working-age population or number of human resource will increase effectively (shown in Figure 14). In the period between 1996 and 2016, population in the age group 15-59 will increase from 519 to 800 million; the age group below 15 years will decline from 353 to 350 million and the age group above 60 years will increase from 62.3 to 112.9 million (National Commission of Population, India). The graph below (Figure 15) reveals the same for the year 2026.

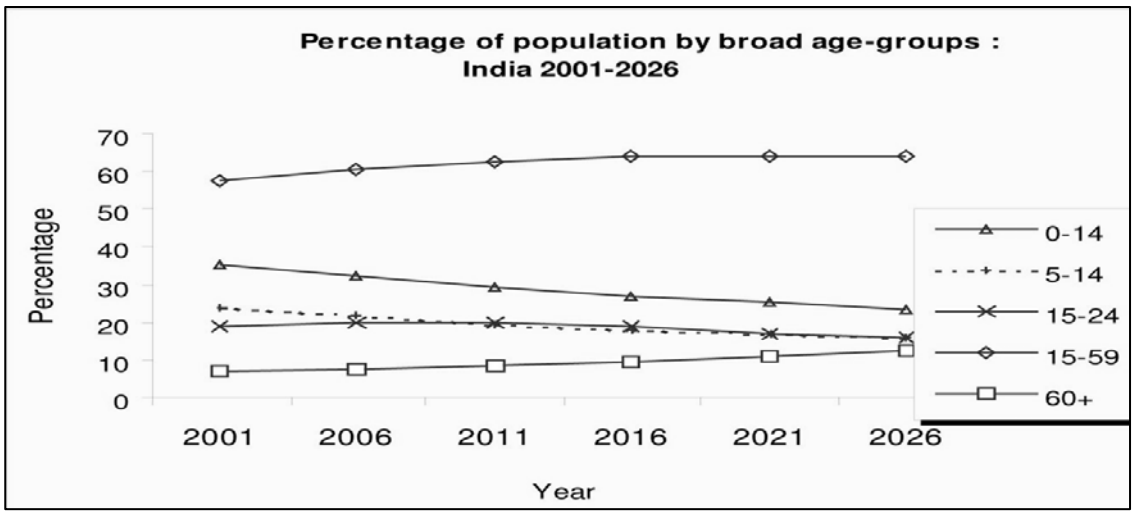


Figure 15: Percentage of Population by Broad Age Groups. India 2001-2026[Source: Govt. of India. 2006]

The diagram shows that India has a pool of youth population ready for the emerging market. According to India's former finance minister Mr. P.Chidambaram, India does not have to worry about the ageing population now (Chidambaram, 2005), which is a great worry for many developed countries. However, this huge number of youth could be a big problem if they are not trained or channelized properly in the development of the nation.

Another fact of Indian demography is that, compared to the European countries with their relatively low birth rate, which is even decreasing (in Longworth and Davies, 1996:27), India enjoys a high birth rate, which guarantees the continuous supply of man power. According to the NKC:

> Our unique demographic dividend offers a tremendous opportunity as well as a daunting challenge, which requires creative strategies for a new knowledge oriented paradigm. To get the real demographic dividends we need to empower and educate the 550 million young below the age of 25 through proper education to build future growth and prosperity. The destiny of India is in their hands (NKC, 2009).

However, the ageing population could be a matter of concern in India in coming decades, as the increasing life expectancies and the present number of youths will increase the number of elderly population, who are comparatively less productive. How to effectively increase their contribution in the society through LLL, could therefore be a matter of future research. Nevertheless, in the present context, the importance of demography is considered everywhere, from the basic schooling to the vocational education and training and even on urban and local planning. However, the concern is not only on the crude figures of manpower in India, rather it is on the effective portion of man power which can be used in economic activities; i.e. the portion of human resource occasionally or permanently contributing to the economic development. It is indeed linked with the concept of human development and improvement of life quality through adequate employment.

However, India, in spite of its demographic dividend, has a very low Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) in higher education (12.4% in 2010) Moreover, the whole mass of workers includes a very small amount of 'knowledge workers'. Certainly the absolute numbers play a big role here since the total population is more than 1.2 billion. Therefore a few percentages could represent a couple hundred million people. Probably that is why in the knowledge economy, size also does matter (Dalhman & Utz 2005:15). It could help us to see the linkage between the population and national development in the quantitative aspect. It could also show the estimated returns from the educational sectors, which are linked with the national economy, more specifically, with the knowledge economy.

In response to the demographic benefits India enjoys, different policies mention the effective utilization of these human resources through all possible educational expansions. This dividend could lead the perspective of LLL towards a global one as

India now has the opportunity to tap the benefits of less population control and give the economy a necessary boost. In this regard, the last five-year national plan (XIth) mentions the urgent need for skilled and competent human resources, which can benefit the country's condition in this era of globalization. NKC's view is even more close to that of the global perspective of LLL in this aspect. According to NKC-

> In order to harness the true potential of India's demographic dividend, we have highlighted the urgent need to produce skilled manpower and upgrade human resources. In this respect, as a means of encouraging the use of ergonomic tools and skill development, schemes for lifelong skill up-gradation through training programs must also be available for workers engaged in manual labor.'(NKC, 2009: 156).

In addition to the technical education, the thrust is also on vocational education and training (VET), as this sector directly links economy and learning. For example, the XIth Planning Commission expresses its worry about the low rate of enrolment in the VET sector. 'According to the recent National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) data, only 5% of the populations of 19–24 age groups in India have acquired some sort of skills through VE. The corresponding figure for Korea is 96% (Planning Commission, 2007:20).

The strategy for upgrading the education level of the population is also recommended through various formal and non-formal training programs, which show a tendency to move towards the direction of the global perspective of LLL, where continuous renewing of skills and competencies is considered as one of the most essential components. The view of the Planning Commission (2007) indicates the same:

> Only 5% of the population can receive skill training through the formal system. The remaining about 4.0 crore [40 million] unskilled and semi-skilled persons, who are already working, will be given continuous or further training for up-gradation of their skills (Planning Commission, India 2007:22).

Several other programs are also under planning or ongoing to upgrade, impart skills and competences development to the masses. However, there are different layers in it and 'demography' as a factor couples with its features contributes in the development of the dimensions of LLL in a complex manner. Since it is an enormously vast and complex field of study, with many branches and sub branches, only some aspects of it are discussed below. However, it is interesting to see how these market mechanisms directly and indirectly influence the changing perspective of LLL towards a global one in contemporary India.

The demographic and other associated data show that a large number of Indian people are now considered as middle class (who earns Rs. 200,000- Rs. 1million, nearly $4376 - $21,882 in a year). Projection shows that this middle class will grow from nearly 50 million people (2010) to a staggering 583 million in 2025, covering

about 41% of the population and would earn about 58% of India's total income (source : McKinsey Global Institute 2003 in Farrell & Beinhocker, 2007). With this wave of increasing middle class in India, the character of consumption and access to education would change eventually. Firstly, people will consume more modern-day commodities and services. Looking at these figures, the companies and the government both have started to change their position in terms of business strategies and policies. For multinationals, the new target customers are the middle and sub-middle classes. C.K. Prahlad, argues that selling products to the major section of the pyramid is the future of the global business because of the sheer numbers of potential customers (in Meredith, 2007:93). Second, considering the recent economic growth India enjoys, Mckinse projects that the economic growth rate has also reduced the number of the poor Indians to some extent. Many form the income group, who used to earn about a dollar a day (per person) are now earning more and stays in a better condition. The projection shows that 291 million people can move out of poverty over the next two decades. However, the point here is that, all of them should have some sort of education with which they can possibly get the benefit of the new economy. In addition, the nature of the middle class is also to save money for the education of their children (Beinhocker et al. 2007). For private education, it is certainly a growing market of selling educational services. These trends could also possibly encourage the government by making policies in support of the global perspective of LLL as these policies can work in two ways:

- Firstly, for the country, it can bring the new source of educated people, and more educated people in the next generation.
- Secondly, for the companies, it means more customers for their goods and services and users of modern technologies, such as personal computers and mobile phones. For the government, it is economic growth rate.

The following consequences are also important:

- As more and more students are becoming self-financed, this tendency could reinforce government providing free or subsidized courses in different kinds of public institutions and can increase its effect to reach lower social layers.
- The self-financed students form middle class, in many cases, take loans from banks. This creates another source of flow of capital to the market. Notably, Government of India promotes student loans as a means of providing higher education to all (Yash Pal Committee report 2009).
- This borrowed money (e.g. from banks) along with the money of the 'middle class' are being invested mostly in private educational institutions (mainly professional, technical courses with strong market principles) which encourages even more market oriented educational reforms.
- This provision would also create a competition among private institutions in terms of giving better returns to their students in terms of work oriented learning, updated education and training, education-industry linkages etc. Moreover, it creates a market for education, which by its own mechanisms is competitive and creates human resources needed for the present day market with less government interferences and subsidies.

This neo-liberal, market oriented principles, here, influencing the renewing perspectives of LLL in India by-

- introducing a competitive market,
- restructuring industries education linkages,
- turning students into customers and educational institutions into service providers, and thus, creating a educational market,
- making students responsible for their own decisions, especially the one related with education,
- focusing the purpose of the education mainly towards a professional direction,
- taking a part of the control of education sector from the state to the market and
- perceiving at the potential Indian population in a cumulative way.

All of the above influences have their benefits and risks, which are discussed later on. However, the last point seems carrying an interesting and distinct meaning. Due to the huge population of India, the total size of the population plays a major role in the market. Hence, the demography and market play a complex role together where the 'demographic dividend' dominates over everything else. Therefore, although the new dimension of LLL focuses on individuals, as a market, it opts for the large number of Indian youth capable or willing to pay for their education. The 'demography' as a factor, therefore plays an important role to support the global perspective of LLL in India by projecting the potential human resources needed for the future progress. It also opens the possibility of 'educational markets' in India. Potential economic benefit, neo liberal market principles coupled with the reserved human resources, willing to be educated to upgrade their living conditions, play a complex role in shaping the LLL in contemporary India.

However, a major risk of focusing on the individuals capable of paying for their education has its own flaws in a unequal society. Demography interlinked with strong market principles therefore, could also prove as a negative factor in promoting the global perspective of LLL, which is discussed in the next section.

Demography as a supporting factor to the traditional Indian perspective of LLL

This sub-section explores how some of the features in Indian demography could oppose the market principles and the global dimensions of LLL and continues to promote the traditional Indian perspectives of LLL. The basic reason is the long haul educational underdevelopment in India, which also results in a large pool of less productive population, which is capable of creating a massive burden for faster and neo liberal development and therefore, could continue supporting the traditional Indian perspective of LLL by keeping a welfare approach of LLL. However, there are other factors related, which are complex in nature and thus, demands further analysis.

The crude statistical figures show that India has 68.9% population under the age of 35 (Census Report 2001, India). Theoretically, this age group can contribute effectively in the national economic development if educated properly. However, on the other hand in India, GER in educational levels are low, or riddled with high dropout rates. Moreover, with high disparities, inclusive education has been an elusive target so far. For instance, vast disparities are prominent between Rural and Urban GER in higher education in India. The rural GER is as low as 6.70% compare to the urban GER of 19.90% (XIth Planning Commission, 2007). There are noticeable gender differences as well. The male GER is 12.40% whereas the female GER is 9.10% (XIth Planning Commission, 2007). These disparities depict the huge differences between the aspirations of making India a Knowledge Society and the reality where a enormous number of people are not even enrolled in education. The scenarios of primary, secondary and elementary educations are, although improving, but the retention rate is still low. In secondary (up to class 10) and higher secondary (up to class 12), the GER is 51.65% and 27.82% respectively. The dropout rate is as high as 62%, higher than that of the primary and elementary education levels. On an average, more than half of the students drop-out from the elementary, secondary and higher secondary schools and a majority of scheduled caste, scheduled tribes and people from other disadvantageous classes do not go to school at all, due to several socio-economic reasons like poverty, hunger, inaccessibility, lack of awareness and social discriminations. The bulk of these children belong to the poorer segments of rural and urban households.

The problem of less enrolment is not only related with economy and poor economic conditions. It is also related with Indian traditional class structure, religious setups and caste systems. In the history of learning in India, we have seen that class and caste system prevented people from getting education. Social-pressure and superstitions related to Indian class and caste systems still prevents people of different classes to mix freely and take part in social events together. Because of these negative factors, the focus of LLL in India is still at a basic level of awareness generation where it works to create a stable ground for further educational initiatives. Basic education, adult basic literacy and continuing education are some of the initiatives to mention in this regard (Shah, 2008:2), which are more traditional in nature, yet necessary milestones to socially upgrade the nation.

Interestingly, regional politics, politics related to religion and castes play a major role here in determining the pathways of LLL in India. Although the regional level discussions are not the focus of this study, but overall, it seems important to mention as an indigenous factor. In this biggest democracy, which consists of the numerous ethnic groups, these 'narrow' politics based on caste and religion results in the vote bank as a number of people from certain casts and/or religion could (and does) play a deciding role in forming or toppling a government. Hence, keeping the religious and caste divides alive could sometimes be beneficial to come or remain in power. Therefore, even if the forces of economy, ICT, demographic dividend demand to move forward at a faster pace, they are somewhat bound by the restrictions of the federal structure of the nation. That means, in most of the times, the actual success of

a policy depends on how the states are responding to it and act to achieve the targets. In a federal system, this is one prime limitation of a central level policy. Therefore, the progress is often evolutionary rather than revolutionary.

After discussing demography in two subsequent sections, it can be seen that it can play a complex and dual role in renewing the perspectives of LLL in India. On the one hand, it can promote the global perspective of LLL, with the potential demographic dividend, and on the other,

Similar opinion can be found while discussing the influence of demography on the changing dimensions of LLL in India, with the interviewees. Here, almost all have mentioned that India is trying hard to reap the benefit of the demographic dividend. However, by doing it, according to many (e.g. Shah, Amhrast, Rajesh, Farooq, Seth, Singh) it opened up a market of education, where private providers are thriving. Moreover, it is helping mainly to those who can pay and therefore increasing the already alarming level of inequality in the Indian society.

While discussing about demography, the issue of diversity is mentioned many times. This issue persists among the diverse population size, location and their livelihoods. Therefore, to consider it as human resources without considering the diversified nature would limit the scope of the analysis. Similarly, it seems noteworthy that the diversity also exists in the language Indians speak. There are hundreds of languages and dialects. Therefore, the benefits of getting a homogenized ground for implementing policies are not applicable in India. The states, for instance, are mainly divided on their major spoken languages and inside the states, there are several languages and dialects. Hence, the languages could play a major role in deciding the direction(s) of LLL in India. Although this factor is not as crucial as the three main factors discussed above, it nevertheless seems that the issue of language deserves a special section of discussion in this study. Therefore, the next section explores this issue in detail in the context of globalization and diversified Indian scenario.

Language, influencing the Indian dimensions of LLL

This section analyzes 'language' as a factor, shaping the Indian perspective of LLL, where it supports the global perspective on the one hand and the traditional Indian perspective on the other. These contrasting pictures would lead to an understanding of a tension between two ideas playing crucial roles in renewing the Indian perspectives of LLL. In the presence of this diverse and contrasting nature of the Indian economy and demography, the discussion of the language factor in India seems important, since language is one of the main competencies needed for the knowledge economy and consequently an essential feature for the global perspective of LLL.

Language as a supporting factor to the global perspective of LLL in India:

This sub-section explores how the language as a factor is playing role in renewing the Indian perspectives of LLL and help it to lean towards the global perspective of it.

However, before going into the main discussion, it seems necessary to have an idea about the nature of the Indian lingual diversities.

At present, there are 22 official languages and 1652 mother tongues (according to Malayala Manorama Yarbook, 2007 in UGC, 2007) in India. Hindi is the national language; and English is used in almost all official matters. Especially after the onset of globalization, with the availability of Job, foreign goods, entertainments in market, the country is leaning more towards English as a day-to-day language and understanding its inevitability in today's world. Crystal (2003) says that:

> The global interdependence through English, the desire to have a voice in the world affairs and the value for multilingualism in attracting trade markets, all support the adoption of a functional account of English, where the language is seen as a valuable instrument of enabling people to achieve personal goals. [...] English is seen as a prime means of achieving a global presence (Crystal, 2003:24).

In India, a large number of students are now pursuing their studies in English medium with the anticipation of better employability in this highly competitive Indian job market. Knowing English, in these circumstances could prove to be an important skill in this economy and so for the global one. Thus, the demand for English is increasing and playing a very important role here. The McKinse report made it clear that:

> There is also a supply-side element shaping the current patterns of off-shoring. It has been conducted primarily in countries where English is the main business language. In general, the presence of an English-Speaking population is the key factor in the choice of location of offshore service, as the commonality of language helps to ensure that quality and performance criteria can be fulfilled. Without a shared language, errors are much more likely to occur, thereby undermining the benefits of off shoring. Canada, India, Israel have all proved particularly attractive in that they have large English-speaking population (McKinsey, 2003).

The benefit of speaking English coupled with modern technologies help to bring the opportunity to export more white-collar jobs from India (Meredith, 2007:79). For instance, US based companies are still now the most attractive offshorers. There are more than 2.3 million white-collar jobs to India, off-shored from America alone. By 2003, British farms had moved 250,000 service-industry jobs to India and the trend is increasing. Germany, with many English speakers, is the next-largest offshorer. (Original data collected from McKinsey Global Institute, McKinsey & Company's economic think tank, interview, June 2006 by Meredith, 2007). This process of off-shoring started when foreign companies found that Indian technicians are equally good as Silicon Valley technicians in writing programs to save the computers from the Y2K crisis. Soon after that, the technological revolution helped to transfer international calls over the internet at a tremendously low cost. Followed by the Americans, other companies started to come to India and brought a massive inflow of FDI, employment opportunities and a good incentive for Indians to be proficient in English. It is literally, getting the 'first world's skills at third world wages' (Meredith, 2007:83).

To support this demand for English, formal and non-formal educational institutes mushroomed all over India. There are now many private schools, colleges and universities around the country where English is the only medium of study. It is often seen that a section of the parents often communicate with their children in English, in spite of having a different mother tongue, to make the offspring feel more comfortable with this language. However, the actual data in this case, is difficult to be found, but from experiences and studies, it can be said that learning English can certainly give them an extra advantage in the labor market, especially when India is relying mostly on FDIs to develop its economy. From the individualistic perspective to the national perspective, learning English also proves important for India to stay competitive in the global market.

However, there is another side of it as well. Even after a long British colonial history, English in India is not flawless and not standard in accent compared to many other parts of the world. For example, Philippine's English accent is closer to American accent and thus, many foreign companies are shifting their offices there (Farrel, 2006, Farrell and Beinhocker, 2007). China is not far behind either. According to the official source, there are 10 million English speakers (excluding Hong Kong and Macao). Jian Yang (2006:07) shows that the actual estimate could be around 70 million, and if it is the case, then India must be in a tight competitive position with China. The document published by the WB carries the same message foreword. It says; "India has an edge in English and experience, but the Chinese are learning quickly'' (Dahlman & Utz, 2007:121,122). Moreover, the NASSCOM report shows that China has close to 800,000 English teachers and the English speaking population is growing rapidly. The report also shows that the competition from other 25-30 low cost countries could reduce India's market share by 10 percent (NASSCOM, 2009: 21).

For India, it is a threat of losing a major share of the growing market. The solution is however suggested by policy makers at a constant basis. The NKC has been supporting the promotion of English since its first report (in 2006). It clearly mentions in bold terms that, "the teaching of English should be introduced along with the first language, starting from Class one in school'' (NKC 2009). The PCI also stresses on learning various languages to gain the competencies needed for today.

However, there is another side of lingual development parallel to that of the English. It is increasingly seen that, the thrust is also given on learning different foreign languages. It is on the rise as India's increasing business networking, the corporations, institutions (education and other) seek to interact more with different non-English speaking countries (e.g. China, Japan, Korea, Spanish speaking countries etc.). Domestically, there is another trend as well. It can be seen that, although, English is at present the dominant language in the online world, but the situation has already started to change (World Economic Forum, 2011). More and more websites and companies are opting for providing their service in regional Indian languages. For the companies, it provides a great opportunity to tap the vast non-English-speaking market. However, for LLL, it certainly provides more outreach of ICTS and helps promoting the learning in vernaculars. With time, these websites are expected to grow in numbers, become more user-friendly (in terms of language) and the learning tends to be more spontaneous.

These new window of learning would inform about the changes happening worldwide and thus promote LLL on a modern ICT based, informal and non-formal learning environment.

It is however, notable that although this innovative effort of websites in regional languages have already entered in the World Wide Web, but still, the prime thrust is remains on learning English, focusing towards the global market. It is perhaps a strong sign of adopting the global perspective of LLL in Indian context. However, stressing only on English, and overlooking India's lingual diversity, can lead to an unbalanced lingual development and can affect in the renewing perspective of LLL in India. The next section, therefore, tries to find out and analyze the reasons, why in India English could not be the people's language and shows how this lingual diversity helps to keep the traditional Indian perspective of LLL in a globalizing India.

Language as a supporting factor to the traditional Indian perspective of LLL:

In the previous section, we have seen a picture of an India, following the global perspective of LLL by improving its English language skills. However, there are continuing tensions regarding language issue, which also helps to keep the global perspective of learning English or various other foreign languages under questions and puts the Indian perspective of LLL forward. The following section discusses this issue in detail.

The issue of language is not only related with India's economic progress and globalization, but also it is deeply rooted in its traditional cultures, lingual diversity, poor socio-economic set-ups, illiteracy, poverty, regional languages, language related politics, poor educational infrastructure and so forth. Not all of these factors can be discussed in this paper in detail, however, an understandable question could be, how can this massive amount of illiterate people contribute in the knowledge society by learning English or other foreign languages since they are not even able to read and write in their mother tongues? In addition, how can people pay for learning languages when they do not have money to buy proper food? There could be very many basic yet relevant questions like these, which have been discussed by many and still stands as very relevant and researchable. However, here, the study tries to explain the issue from a historical perspective to find the route of the problem, the stress of which is in the history of pre and post independent India.

From the early 19th century, English became a prestigious and well-used official language in colonized India. Before Independence however, Gandhi mentioned the importance of having a common Indian language, and termed it as 'Hindustani'. It was proposed as a bridging language between Hindi and Urdu and as a unified language for the nation. However, Congress[40] leaders came to the conclusion that Hindi alone could play the role of a common language, although Hindi was not the common language for all. Moreover, it was expected that Hindi would eventually supplant English. Inevitably, it did not happen. Moreover, as the states are divided based on their languages, the constitution therefore could not make Hindi as an obligatory or first language for

[40] National Congress- Major political party in India.

Indians. Rather it scheduled 14 languages (now 22) as 'languages of India'. Hence, Hindi was not considered as an elite language nor it does have a literary heritage like that of Sanskrit[41]. As a result, Hindi was a weak candidate for linguistic rationalization in India (Laitin, 1989:9).

It was 1950s. The process of changing terminologies, making translations from English was started at central level. Hindi started being used in day-to-day basis (Dasgupta, 1976: 202). Nevertheless, there were problems of using Hindi among Indian bureaucrats. It was probably due to the long legacy of using English under the British rule (Taub, 1969 in Latin, 1989:5). Using English was also considered as a 'gentlemanly behavior'. For them, it was a threat to their 'cultural capital' or 'elitism'. Even today, many private schools advertise them as 'English medium' schools to represent their so called 'elite' nature over many public schools where English is taught as a language and not used as the only medium of study. However, most private schools have high tuition fees and therefore not accessible to millions of Indians who do not have enough money to spend on this. However, going back to the historical discussion, it could be identified that at an official level, even Hindi could not get the same dignity as English. The consequences were; officials were not ready to use Hindi and thus English was continued as an official language for communication. The states were not ready to use Hindi (except the Hindi speaking states). Therefore, they put more emphasis on their own language and some regions (especially in South Indian states) rejected Hindi by emphasizing on English and regional languages. Moreover, lingual minorities were everywhere irrespective of the states, and their mother tongues were neither Hindi, nor the state language and not English. The solution was the introduction of two, three or four languages depending on the situation, preferences and political decision of the states and the union (also known as 3+/- 1 language policy). The situation was complicated. The policies were segregated, perceived and being implemented differently in the member states. In this turmoil, central political system was neither able to remove English nor could implement Hindi properly. It was considered as a 'historical failure in India of centralized governance' (Latin, 1989:8). The result is poor output and increased diversity within India in relation to language competence, which persists even today.

The language policy still portrays a blurred situation due to some 'irrational traditional' (Latin, 1989:15) political play. As a result, English is still considered as a language of the elite, or of those who can afford it. It is not the language of the mass since they study mostly in public funded schools where English is taught in a rather very old-fashioned way and the motivation is often to pass the examinations by mugging up couple of readymade answers. Of course, there are huge differences among individuals, schools and regions; and proper English skills could be found. Nonetheless, overall, the wide range of using English in offices, banks etc. makes the situation difficult to a major section of the society, as they cannot communicate in English and thus feel reluctant to access those services. They also feel injustice when their own languages are ignored (Latin, 1989:16). Hindi, on the other hand became a usable but practically 'less used' language for those who live in non-Hindi speaking regions. For the Lingual minority, it is a matter

[41] The ancient Indian language used for literatures. One of the oldest language in the world.

of lack of access, communication and infrastructure (lack of books, material, schools, teachers, funding etc.). Some of them do not have books or even alphabet or proper script (e.g. some tribes). However, the fact is many of these tribes are considered as the oldest aboriginals of India and being marginalized even after more than six decades of independence. Sadly, even today, they cannot study in their mother tongue due to the age-old ignorance from various levels of the society.

Overall, it seems that there is a huge gap in this language issue in India starting from the national to individual level. Things are rather put together without synchronizing it with one another. However, there is no evidence that this outcome was planned (Latin, 1989:17). Rather the result seems explaining a peculiar mix of interests and choices of the political might, democratic structure, bureaucracy, poor socio-economic condition, ignorance and several other factors. The whole dynamics makes the situation immensely complicated. Putting these all together, it is certainly creating a massive down force to the global perspective of LLL. Rather in consequence, it asks to stress on traditional Indian perspective of LLL by emphasizing on learning basic language up to a usable level.

Interestingly, the replies related to the last factor, i.e. language in influencing the dimensions of LLL in India, gets a unique response. Most of the interviewees think that language is not playing a significant role in changing the Indian dimensions of LLL. To them, English is the main working language and there is lessening protest against it in a national scale. Some, however, mentions that the main question is not the language itself; it is the affordability to learn it on an individual level or to spread language learning on a state/national levels. The research however, shows that language has its impact on changing the dimensions of LLL and with economic progress, technological development it is becoming even more evident. More and more people opting for language learning all over the world and hence increasing global competition. On the other hand, this research supports the claim that, it is perhaps also related with affordability of language learning. Language as a factor is therefore perhaps carries more importance than it apparently seems. This view is somewhat supported by Mohankumar and S.Y Shah. Nevertheless, the overall response from the interviewees could represent a picture of India, where English is dominating and unquestionably established itself as the language for the new age economy. This research expands this issue further in the 'higher education' section.

From the above discussion, it could be seen that in India, the increased importance of learning English is largely emerged from the urge to stay competitive in the increasing global market. However, India is a multilingual country and has a vast diversity of language, mother tongues and dialects. Moreover, several policy decisions since independence lead to a confusing state, in relation to the language issues in India. It can, however, be seen that whereas, the NKC is a strong supporter of English, the XIth Planning Commission and the UGC support the promotion of regional languages and mother tongues along with English. The diversity of Indian languages is the main argument for them. Interestingly, Hindi is not given any special importance, any more.

These policy stands could indicate the presence of a tension between two stands; one supports the global perspective of LLL and the other supports the traditional Indian one.

Conclusion

The above discussion of 'economy', 'ICT', 'demography' and 'language', represent how these factors are dynamically shaping the renewing perspectives of LLL in India by supporting the global or the traditional Indian perspectives.

Overall, the interviewees also represent a similar picture related to the changing dynamic of LLL in India, although it can be seen from the analysis that not all are sure about what its present dimensions are. Some, however thinks beyond LLL as an educational sector (like that of the adult education) and expresses their view of LLL as a framework (S.Y. Shah), guiding principal (Shamshu), leading thought (Mohankumar) etc. Almost all think that the theoretical concept of LLL is 'good' for the society; but the way it is interpreted now, can perhaps has serious negative ('bad') consequences. This research however considers the 'good' and 'bad' as subjective opinions as it depends on, from which point of view it is being analyzed. Consequently, Shamshu, Seth, Mohankumar, S.Y. Shah think that these changes in the education policy domain are needed for the national development and economy and these are certainly a major pillar for that. Some of the interviewees are however, skeptical and opined that, with the present LLL principales, India can perhaps become a knowledge economy, but becoming a 'knowledge society' needs more holistic approach (e.g. Amhrast).

These opinions and analysis of the recent changed and their relation with LLL and education policies, reveals a situation which is complex, and somewhat unclear as many subjective opinions are used to analyze the complexities. It seems however, quite justified as the research initially indicated that the perception of the changing dimensions of LLL is changing. Nevertheless, the responses do provide important insights. The study therefore continues with the discussion and uses the interview responses throughout the analysis sections.

Overall, the contrasting stands show the presence of tensions between the global and the traditional Indian perspectives of LLL. This 'tension' is a very important factor here in this discussion and recognized by Jarvis (2008) and many others (e.g. Appadirai, 2001). This omnipresence of the 'tension' and 'dilemma' demand further discussion. Therefore, the next section explores these issues based on the findings from the analysis done so far. There, it attempts to look even a step deeper to investigate the issue of the changing dimensions of LLL in India further, to reveal the complexities, tensions and dilemmas associated with it, which are in turn reshaping it in the present changing context.

[This page is intentionally left blank]

chapter

8

Chapter 8 Transition Phase - A Complex Dynamics of LLL in India

Chapter 8

Transition Phase- A Complex Dynamics of LLL in India

Introduction

The previous chapters discuss various issues on lifelong learning (LLL) in India based on four selected factors. Form the discussion so far, it seems that the dominant aim of the policies is to develop an educational system to meet the challenges of the 21st century, which eventually supports the global perspectives of LLL. However, it can also be seen that along with this major dominant aim, there are various other aims, especially for India. Some of them are as old as the history of education in India. Moving one-step ahead, this chapter attempts to analyze how this major transition in the conceptualization of LLL is happening in India, in contemporary time.

However, to go deeper into the discussion, it seems important to go through several key points and findings briefly. After this, it analyzes the issue with the help of the main theoretical framework provided by Jarvis (2007, 2008). It also takes other scholarly works into the discussion and analysis of factors and issues. With the help of the analysis of the interviews (in previous chapter), and the analysis of this chapter, it comes to the conclusion that there are more than one dimensions of LLL in India at present, running in parallel. The chapter ends with concluding the major findings and opening up the discussion for the next section. Here, to initiate the analysis, it begins with a brief recap of the development of LLL in India based on the discussion so far.

Background

It can be seen from the discussion so far, that the first major change in the perception of LLL started to take place after the pre-Vedic time, when women and people from low castes were excluded from the contemporary institutional educational systems. Later, the revolt against this discriminating approach prepared the way for the golden age of Indian education. The formal education system, especially higher education, became one of the best in the whole world. However, this period did not last for so long, and repetitive foreign attack destroyed the balance in Indian society and the culture of formal and non-formal learning (Dutta, 1986; Shah, 1993). The situation continued until the initial period of the British rule in India. However, later, the education and learning surged up in rural and urban areas. English was introduced as the main language of instruction. However, revolt against this British dominated education system influenced to grow several non-governmental learning centers across the country. Mother tongues

were given higher priority over English. Several non-governmental organizations started the initiative of upgrading India from the very basic level of literacy. This effort of eradicating illiteracy continues, and even after over sixty year of independence, and India still houses the largest number of illiterates in the world. Later, this eradication of illiteracy initiatives had been connected with several other learning and socio-economic developmental programs (explained in chapter 4).

After Independence, most of the efforts to upgrade learning remained less successful and failed in fulfilling the targets. However, the improvement in the formal education sector was somewhat satisfactory. Non-formal education, on the other hand, remained confined, mainly within the boundary of literacy, which popularly became synonymous with lifelong education or LLL in many parts of the country. It took long time before a major change was observed in India.

Finally, a major breakthrough came in 1990s, after the economic restructuring. The education policies were also revised during this period. This issue is discussed in detail in the earlier chapters. However, in short, it can be said that the economic restructuring brought some major changes to India in its socio-economic scenario. Along with, it also bought some challenges. They spread beyond the boundaries of economy and touched the education sector. The challenges increasingly become interdependent, and relate itself with economy, poverty, health, technological advancement and so on. Moreover, it is related with the international political changes and changing transnational political hue. It can be seen through the discussion in the earlier chapters (chapter 6), that transnational policies have an enormous effect on influencing the dimensions of LLL and especially promote certain ideologies through their policies. These political agencies also have potential power to influence Indian policies in a profound way. Here, it is important to note that these policies are backed up by one or a group of nations. Jarvis (2007, 2008), Rizvi and Lingard (2010) explain that, this power structure spreads beyond the national boundaries and often spread all over the country or aspires to do so. Moreover, this power structure is enormously complex since several factors and sub-factors are intertwined with them, such as political stands, economic forecast, global-political balance, etc. Education sector is a major part of these since it has been, for centuries, used by the political minds. The difference is that, now, these political minds are global and more complex.

The study of the changing dimensions of LLL, would be, therefore, incomplete without the discussion of the power structure and globalization. It could also help us to understand the links between the global and national political agendas, international and national economic and social outlooks and finally the changing dimensions of LLL in India. To portray the complex situation in a focused and understandable structured way, this study uses the theoretical framework of Peter Jarvis (2007, 2008) and Bhola (2006) where they explained how the power structure, infused with globalization play a decisive role in determining the route and direction of LLL in any specific context.

Setting the Scene: globalization and LLL in India

In order to understand the complexity of the contemporary dimensions of LLL ranging from international to national levels, it is important to understand something of the process of globalization. In this study, it is argued that the dominant forces in the global economy stem from those, who control the economic and technological institutions (Jarvis, 2008:20). Contrary to the Marxist's theory, where the power lies within each society, Jarvis says that, with globalization, this simple formation of individual power structure has changed into a more complex, interconnected one. "It is now the substructure of the whole world'' (Jarvis 2007:42). It mainly refers to the economic power spread across the countries uninterruptedly, and consists of private capital, multinational corporations and often, political power of powerful nations, (such as the USA, according to Jarvis 2007, 2008). By recalling the theory, it can be seen that this power structure is omnipresent and puts notable pressure to each society (layers) to confront to the common goal set by them. This power, however, is not immune from resistance and faces contrary pressure from several sections and levels of the societies. However, this study discusses the issue of resistance in detail, later.

Jarvis named this power structure as the 'sub-structure' (Jarvis 2008) and it practices its power in each society through market mechanisms. This concept is related with several other concepts, such as neo-liberalism and market capitalism. Nevertheless, it is important to mention that the presence of an open and competitive market in the core, opens up the possibility of exploring other markets, encourage smaller to grow bigger, helps to increase production and initiate innovation in order to meet the increasing demand of the global market. This also means it encourages new learning, which could invent, innovate and produce new commodities to the market, constantly. However, by doing so, it mostly encourages only certain kinds of scientific and other forms of knowledge, which are required for the market. In the Indian changing economy, which in the post 90s period, leaning towards the market economy, the presence of this sub-structure is increasingly making its marks. As mentioned in the discussion of the four selected factors (economy, ICT, demography and language- see chapter 7) that, this new economic policy of India has opened doors for many. Since then, not only big multinational corporations are entering India, but also several Indian companies are able to expand their business in India and abroad. These companies, who are using India as their production centre, to initiate and expand their market in India and elsewhere, are using Indian human resources. Hence, some claim that, nowadays, "there is hardly any job left that can be considered as pure blue-collared. Input in terms of knowledge and information have become a part and parcel of every job" (Das & Lahiri, 2007:VII). However, looking carefully, it can be seen that there is a demand for technologically skilled people and not just people with any knowledge (e.g. knowledge of poetry). There are high demands of people with management skills to administer the businesses and invent new solutions to make the business thriving, constantly. It is, in fact, not just limited to making the business growing. It involves a pressure from the sub-structure to produce more equipped human resource for the domestic and global markets.

The demand for the human resources is not limited for the Indian market only. There is a large number of people migrating to the West, mostly in USA each year. A report shows that 45 percent of the H-1B (working visa for US) holder are Indians and among them, 53 percent are computer professionals (Basu, 2007). According to Basu (2007) that roughly 50,000 computer professionals leave India to the US each year. Some of these Indians help building the link stronger between the Silicon Valley and Indian software and ICT hubs. Thus, NASSCOM predicts that the larger the number of Indian knowledge immigrants to the US, the greater will be the demand for software exports from India. Therefore, in spite of the danger of losing a considerable number of brains each year, India can perhaps treat this as a blessing, and work hard to educate even more people appropriately.

These enormous pressures on educational systems are not just limited to educate young people, but also to align the content and direction of this education with the alleged requirements of the global economy. As a result, the education and allied policies of India have taken a path of 'marketization' of not just the formal education, but also all kinds of learning activities, so that they can be compatible to the demands of globalization and market. The work of Rizvi and Lingard (2010) shows that this is not a unique phenomenon. Around the world, the public resources on education have decreased and a growing emphasis is given on private sector and user-pays approaches. Moreover, in spite of having the diverse needs that an educational systems have, based on its socio-economic and temporal spaces, they have seemingly mimicked each other, pursuing a common set of solutions to their problems and challenges and interpreted the requirements of reforms in a broadly similar fashion (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010:80). This desperate urge for an educated and dynamic workforce demanded a better and more equipped education system form the nation. It is almost obvious for the government to recognize that Indian public education system alone cannot support this huge demand and neither they can be so dynamic in nature, so quickly. The possible solution is to allow private providers of educational services, which are varied in nature and more customized to the demands of the market. This emergence of market leads the way to make learners responsible for their own choice, since they have the right to choose what they study, where they study and so on. This concept is also related with the concept 'individualization' and one prime aspect of the global concept of LLL. However, this individualistic, more liberated approach to education is sometimes against the concept of equity and social justice, which needs identification and prioritization from market and demands a balance with other complementary social and individual needs. It is discussed in the later sections of this chapter.

These pressures, according to Jarvis, are the result of the active sub-structure, which promotes the concept of a level ground to operate, which is similar to the concept of 'one-worldness' (O'Meara et. al., 2000; United Nations, 2002a-c in Bhola, 2006:50) mentioned earlier. However, this sub-structure does not limit itself within the boundary of influencing transnational or national governments. The mechanism is well equipped to influence individuals, in various ways. The main mechanism is related with economic rewards, which is compared to the traditional public system, overwhelming. The reward of working in these privatized knowledge sectors is high and professional growth is

rapid. At an individual level, one obvious consequence is a popular tendency of favoring the market mechanism over any other system. Hence, it also brings good news for the company, the economic sector and to the market.

This view of a bright future and lifestyle bring the hope of free society. The idea is that a society of active citizens, would be a learning society and could eventually lead to a knowledge society, where citizens are lifelong learners and responsible for their own accords. Moreover, the hope is that the civil society will become stronger and irrespective of the political, religious identity, citizens will protest for the wrongs or injustices. However, paradoxically, this 'noble' idea of active citizenship in an open market economy operates rather differently in an unequal society. Here, it is possible to refer Jarvis's work, which is also the theoretical base of the thesis. His argument indicates that the concept of active citizenship or the society of active citizens is somewhat misleading. The reason is that although occasionally, the civil society can protest against the wrongs (e.g. unjustified harassment, unjustified salary, overtime work pressure, firing someone without valid reasons etc.), but they face resistance from an enormously organized, strong 'sub structure' controlling the 'power' in the different societies. Since only few jobs are 'lifelong', people are in a constant pressure of upgrading their skills to keep them employable. In these circumstances, "LLL is valuable because it provide opportunities for people to be employable and to be active citizens" (Jarvis 2008:46). However, in a country like India, where even the tech graduates are plenty, employers have more chances to bargain. That means, in this uncertain and flexible job conditions, employees are at a risk of losing their jobs if they confront against the common good of those who exercise power. Jarvis (2008:48) points out that often the 'whistle blowers' are forced to leave their employment as a 'reward' of being an 'active citizen'(following the concept of active citizenship, mentioned above). On the other hand, for the sub-structure, it works as a mechanism to minimize threats and set examples in front of others to secure the seamless growth of the market.

This above brief discussion shows that the influence of the substructure is spread from international to individual levels and it works in a multidimensional way. One thing, which comes up repeatedly, is a mechanism of creating a pool of equipped human resource. This issue is partly discussed in the study before. However, it seems that there is a need to go deeper into this issue to explore different sides of human resource development. Along with that, another issue is underline in the discussion, which is human as a consumer. In a rather industrial term, shall we call human (brain) as a raw material and as a market for the commodities produced by the market? The complexity and the linkages of these, raise a common ground for discussion, which could also be helpful to understand the dimensions of LLL in contemporary India.

Human as Resource and Human as Consumers

Like other parts of the world, in India also, human beings are considered as the most valuable resource in today's society. Through their knowledge and experience, they contribute to contemporary economic progress. Therefore, proper education, learning, training etc. of individuals are very crucial for the success of a nation, especially in this era of knowledge and globalization. The theory of human capital (Becker, 1964) supports this by considering spending on education as an investment as it provides returns. The

neo human capitalists, according to the analysis of Rijvi and Lingard (2010), expands this claim to the requirements of the global economy and to the competitive advantage of individuals, corporations and nations within the transnational context. It considers that like the economic market, individuals are also free to choose and education provides this power to them. The theory continues to suggest that in this modern economy, performance is increasingly being linked with people's knowledge stocks, skills, competences, and adaptability. Therefore, to be able to provide the freedom of choice, the government should not only, open the market but also reform the system of education and training, which will align them with the changing globalized world. However, in the previous section, it is mentioned that the actual situation is perhaps much more complex than the simplistic explanation of the theories, depicting a 'perfect world'. In addition, the power of the sub-structure now plays an important role in the contemporary society. Hence, the understanding of the complex dynamics of the present economy related to human resources perhaps demand much more than a theory, which is based on an ideal situation. The following section briefly highlights the complexities, needed for this study.

Talking about the complexities, Checchi (2006) shows that the owner, who controls the physical capital, can be termed as capitalist since the person is in control or either employing it in a production process or converting it into a liquid asset. On the contrary, "an educated person, who owns his/her own human capital, cannot employ it in production process unless hired as a dependent worker, thus becoming a wage earner" (Checchi, 2006:20). Therefore, human capital does not demand the same market power as the economical capital. However, this study recognizes that these are arguments supporting and/or opposing the notion of human capital and this issue is a rather debatable one. Since whether or not human capital is a right term, is not the main topic of this research, it moves on. The study rather focuses on the aspect of human capital in the contemporary Indian situation. There, the potential human resources are many and sometimes more than the demand. Hence, the economic value of the human resource is lower, simply because the supply is greater than the demand. This, on the one hand provides the employers a unique opportunity to shift jobs to India and on the other hand, maximize their profits by providing low wedges. However, even through by the amount of money, it is often far lower than that of an worker in the West, but considering it with the purchase power parity, Indians working in multinational farms get a decent salary as per Indian living standards. Hence, apparently this seems as a win-win situation for the companies and for the workers as well. As a consequence, it creates an increasing demand for education and training, which could enable the students to increase their chances of employability.

Meanwhile, the education system is also flooded with multiple private providers (increasing learning cost for individuals) and most of them claim to provide modern job-oriented education. Students (mostly from higher and middle class, mentioned in chapter 7) are rushing to these institutes to be able to make themselves saleable human resources. It further increases the supply of human resources to the market and the companies gain even more power to choose the best from so many. This means more competition to get and remain employed. This indicates towards the increasing power of the market and sub-structure on, not only to the national states, but also to the

individual level as well. However, it is to mention that the quality of the human resources in India are not yet satisfactory, and hence the companies face a problem of hiring the properly skilled once needed for the job, even though they are ready to economically recognize the knowledge the worker posses. This issue is discussed in detailed in the second part of the research, i.e. higher education. Nevertheless, these companies are constantly complaining to the government about the low qualities of the students and demand for better knowledge, quality, innovativeness and work creativity, flexibility, mobility and overall, lifelong learners.

By summarizing the above paragraph, it can be implied that a major implication of the new economy is the urge to change the existing education for the changing work culture. Jarvis (2008:46-47) mentions this as a major shift from the classical concept of work to labor and links it with the rise of capitalism and market economy. It has several implications apart from the once mentioned above. One of the main features is that the increased demand influences people to learn continuously and update them as and when required. It places the focus on the individuals and as the individuals are also welcoming the learning as it helps to improve their life standards. Interestingly, this increased life standard helps to make them better consumers. This brings the discussion to its second part, i.e. human as consumers.

With the advent of globalization, it can be seen that the markets are flooded with commodities of various kinds. Through advertising etcetera, these products are launched and promoted in the market. This constant promotion of the commodities, most of which are related with brand values, are stimulating the customers to buy them. This desire to buy new kinds of things continuously also helps them to learn to live with changes (Jarvis, 2008: 19-21). This constant urge to consume newer products, create an 'infinite or regenerating' loop of desire to the society which lives on ever-renewing commodities. Moreover, as the people are getting into this loop, it will be "difficult – often impossible" for them to help their children to stand back and consider the process more critically (Jarvis, 2010: 101). Nevertheless, human who is a resource as well as consumers helps the market in two major ways. On the one hand, the consumerist nature works as incentives for the companies to produce more and invent newer products, constantly. On the other hand however, it helps retreating part of the money back, which the companies spend as production cost (e.g. salary). For the market, it brings a faster and dynamic economy, where the capital rolls and increases rapidly. Therefore, no matter how strongly it is believed that the market or the capitalist system depends on the consumptions and the ultimate power lies within the consumers, it can be seen that the sub-structure, through its complex direct and indirect market principles, balancing the situation in different contexts to make a level ground to grow at a steady pace.

At this point, it seems worth remembering that the sub-structure cannot produce laws, legislations or form government. However, as we have discussed and will discuss more in later section, that the sub-structure, with their complex mechanisms, influence and sometimes forces the governments to from laws and regulations which can support them to operate. It can be seen through bilateral and multilateral diplomatic meetings where the benefits of open market principles are discussed with higher importance.

Government delegates often travel to other countries and pressures are given at diplomatic levels to open the door for the global market. Many international business treaties are therefore, mostly direct towards one direction and advocating for an open market policy. Economic restructurings are being done to cope with the changing situation and make room for the market. This network between the sub-structure and the superstructures and between the different layers of the society is well depicted in Jarvis's (2007) theory. According to the theory, the superstructure tries to get close to the sub-structure as much as possible to able to get a share of the market. It happens also from the fear of being left out and worsen their economy. Since the economy today is considered as knowledge economy, the utmost importance thus, falls on LLL and it happens in its formal, non formal and informal domains.

Jarvis's theory explains that, why the basic and primary demand of the sub-structure and superstructure is LLL. This dimension of learning demands a different setup for education than that of the traditional or existing one. Sir Ken Robinson (2010) helps explaining it better. For instance, in traditional formal education system, the learning model is designed based on an industrial set up. The students are given education in 'sections' of classrooms, which is similar to the model of division of labor in a factory. Moreover, the students are identified as 'batches' (e.g. batch 2000, 2002 etc.) which is similar to the industrial labeling of commodities. This education system is often been accused to destroy the natural creativity of the learner and instead focus on the desired returns from the 'investment in education' (Robinson, 2010) and train the learners to be proficient in certain specific works which they are supposed to do in industrial work setups. However, there are exceptions and different models of formal education. Here, it only focuses on the general and widely practiced pattern of formal education. Nevertheless, it could be identified that the work pattern has changed or changing very fast in this post-industrial, knowledge driven world. This new age work demand flexibility, innovativeness, team work, as well as ability to work independently. More than anything, it demands multitasking, which was largely missing in the old system of education.

The intention of the present dimensions of LLL then, seems quite clear: to create an organized system to produce learners as effective human resources and acquire the knowledge, useful for the changing knowledge economy. This trend does reflect in the informal learning as well. In the workplace, employees go through several trainings, exercises, etc. which help them to train them to be able to work in a knowledge based service sector. They are trained to work in groups and given a sense of ownership of the corporation or of the project they are involved in. However, they are also encouraged of being individualized competitor and offered with high rewards. Interestingly, the learning in the modern workspace also helps to conform to the norms and regulations of the corporation and as mentioned earlier, one who protests ('whistle blower') is not being tolerated. Moreover, it is publicized in a way, which can convey a message to the other employees and make them learn not to be 'whistle blowers' (Jarvis, 2008: 108).

In India, all of these features can be observed, sometimes quite clearly. For instance, after 90s, the market has been liberated in steps. Numerous diplomatic meetings, meeting

between the governments and corporation heads have been organized at a regular basis. The result is that the governments (central and state) are seeking for foreign investment, decentralizing public owned corporations and advocate to open the market for competitive advantages. From the corporate level, the demand is also being raised for a much more efficient human resource development policy. That means an overhaul of the exiting traditional education paradigm towards the international dimensions of LLL. It is no wonder that in these circumstances, all the stakeholders are arguing for investing regularly in developing proper human resource for the economy. This gives this Indian market a hope and the companies, a better edge for perfection. It also provides an opportunity to choose from the many Indian job seekers, and hence giving the corporations a power to bargain. In addition, without waiting for the government to take steps to upgrade the existing education and training systems, the companies invests a large amount of money and effort to train their employees before and during their employment. These partly secure the desired quality of the human resource and overall conform to the modus operandi of the sub-structure. In addition, the consumer economy is growing at a rapid pace, especially in cities and towns. The advertising of commodities through ICTs is also influencing people in villages. Indians, especially youths, with a moderate income by Indian standards, now prefer branded multinational commodities more than local one. Thus, the life style (including culture) is also changing and a constant effort is being put to make it in line with the developed West. This profound effect of globalization and the mechanisms of the sub-structure are helping to level the ground as much as possible and clearing up diversified providers. Hence, in a way, the substructure seems to be directly and indirectly influencing the way people should learn, what they should learn, why they should learn and what they should do with the money they earn. In other words, it links learning and consumption in a single yet complex loop.

Further Analysis – major trends/ patterns of LLL in contemporary India

It could be seen from the discussion so far, that one of the prime force is globalization, which is present in the discussion of all these factors. In this chapter as well, it sometimes indicate towards making a unified and similar system, where neo-liberal ideas can be thrived easily. This 'one-worldness' nature of globalization seems carrying a message of a shared vision of a shared future for the common good for all (O'Meara et al 2000; United Nations 2002a-c in Bhola, 2006:50). However, sometime, it also asks for more localization and caters to various local needs (e.g. websites in regional languages, discussed in 'language' section of chapter 7). LLL even argues for 'glocalization', a popular concept, which demonstrates to 'think globally and act locally'. Overall, these differences and dilemmas in approaches are providing LLL a complex nature. It becomes even more complex in India, since India, is one of the most diverse countries by ethnicity, languages, religions, etc. The democratic government has to take care of all the sections of the society as well as foster economic development in a certain direction. They are also responsible for the educational development of the country and in the era of economic globalization, these things are becoming very complex in nature as compared to the pre-globalization era.

Nevertheless, one thing is obvious; that these changes due to the influence of the economy, demography, ICT, language, and sub-structure did not happen overnight. The influence of globalization has started earlier in 90s and effected different economic sectors in different ways. Hence, it cannot be considered equally fruitful for all the sectors of the economy. Due to the unequal development, unprecedented gaps also increased in the society. We have seen and will continue to see that, this unequal development has profoundly affected the learning paradigm of the country and has helped to create a resistance to the global sub-structure. Accordingly, the government is also taking steps to balance the situation. However, the way the government is trying to balance the situation between open market economy, knowledge society on the one hand and illiteracy and poverty on the other, is a matter of debate. Nevertheless, this opens up another area of discussion of how the resistance to the sub-structure is working in India. The discussion may help us to know the process, in which the resistance to the global dimension of LLL surged up and in turn, influenced the overall dimensions of LLL in India. It encourages the discussion to go back once again and trace the roots on which today's globalization, sub and superstructures are based on, which in turn are influencing the changing paradigms of LLL in India.

Looking Back, Looking ahead – An analysis of the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors and learning opportunities

The restructuring of the new India roughly gained pace since early 90s with the abolition of the 'license[42]e raj'. It was the official beginning of the end of red tapes. However, it took quite a long time before things could really pace up and even today, the abyssal power of red tapes in Indian bureaucratic systems could not be waived entirely. Nonetheless, by the end of 90s, foreign investments started coming to India and new age Indian companies started flourishing. These changes happened due to the new economic policy by the contemporary ruling party, the National Congress. In 1996, the Congress government lost the election and their economic renovation plan halted. By the time it took pace again, China's overwhelming economic progress in the world economy injected a crude sense of backwardness and competition to India. The East Asians developing countries joined the race too. Soon after, following the ICT revolution; banking, insurance, hotel, leisure based companies grew rapidly in India. To run their business, all of these service-based companies needed a huge number of educated white-collar workforces who are capable of working in a hi-tech and highly dynamic environment (Bagchi, 2005).

Unfortunately, unlike the tertiary or service sector, the secondary economic sector was not blessed with rapid growth. There are certain reasons for that. Whereas in 1990s, as soon as the License Raj was demolished and markets were opened up, things stated to move faster for the tech-based companies, the secondary sector took almost another decade to speed-up. Yet their growth is not as fast as that of the service sectors. ICT

[42] License Raj - A term used to describe the regulation of the private sector in India between 1947 and the early 1990s. In India at that time, one needed the approval of numerous agencies in order to set up a business legally. Manufacturing in particular was heavily regulated. The Licence Raj was the result of a mixed economy that used a government planning commission established after India's independence (source- the Free Dictionary, Farlex, 2013).

based industries could use the existing webs, cables, satellite links as infrastructure and local educated workforce as raw materials. They do not necessarily need a very good geographic location, road, port and other common conditions to thrive. Moreover, another possibility of the remarkable growth of the ICT industry is probably that, it was too rapid for the bureaucratic Indian system to form regulations for the ICT based sector (Meredith, 2007:89). On the other hand, progress in the secondary economic sectors depends on the availability of well-developed roads, railways, ports and other physical infrastructures including full government cooperation. In India, the roads are still bumpy and congested, power cut is common and ports are poorly maintained.

However, despite all of the drawbacks, secondary sector is also booming in a rather new way. As more money is pouring from the service sector, people are consuming more. It is creating a new age consumer society in India. For example, India is one of the fastest growing automobile markets in the world and the pace did not slow down much even in the time of the global recession. However, for the secondary sector, the immediate threat is coming, not from inside, rather form outside of the country.

China, among other countries, is a well known player in manufacturing market in the world. It, with mass production capabilities is dominating the manufacturing market of the world. Once the cotton and cloths of India were world famous, but now being replaced with cheaper products from other countries, including China. The situation is alarming for other manufacturing sectors as well. Moreover, big multinational companies are branding the consumers with their multinational images. The result is that medium and small-scale companies are closing down and workers are losing jobs. The companies, which evolve constantly, adopt with the new environment, train, and retrain their employees, are the survivors, irrespective of their service or non-service oriented nature. In this situations, not just the workers but also the companies need to be constantly learning new things, technologies, new business solutions, new adjustments and innovative solutions and growth trajectories. The traditional system is by and large, gone or about to be replaced (Meredith, 2007).

The primary economic sector is, perhaps in a worse situation. The growth rate is low. Agriculture, in India, depends mostly on the natural climatic situations as the infrastructure of irrigation etc. are not so much developed and not well spread throughout the country. The effect of the 'green revolution' did not bring the benefit to all and apart from some states like Punjab, West Bengal or Gujarat to some extent; all the other states were unable to upgrade their agricultural situation up to a considerable level. Moreover, the over-dependency on the climate often takes its toll. Droughts and floods are common phenomenon in India, which destroy the crops and affects the livelihood. These, coupled with the low educational levels of the agricultural laborers prevent improving the situation much. However, there are efforts to improve the educational level of the labors and to improve agriculture as a subject of higher education, but the efforts are too less than required. Moreover, it can be seen that many cannot avail the opportunities of trainings instead of the availability of the facilities (Shah, 2009). They are often bound to work more due to extreme poverty. The result is an unequal agricultural developmental situation in the country and overall a poor educational and learning

scenario. Recently however, the Indian government has allowed FDI in retail sector. It is predicted that several national and international business conglomerates will soon be interested in the agricultural sector, as India itself is a huge market for food and related by products. It could offer a new set of learning opportunities for the farmers to deal with the companies. In addition, for the companies, it offers several layers of challenges, and hence have to avail the learning opportunities while dealing with numerous small landholders (unlike the big landholders of the West), intermediaries, local government (Panchayet) and political vicissitudes.

These challenges also pose a demand in front of the education sectors and to the government in general. From learning business tricks, management solutions to effective basic education and literacy, the demand is overwhelming. In this challenging and dynamic situation, practical learning, skills and competences work more effectively than theoretical degrees (see chapter 7 for more discussion on how the socio-economic situation exercises pressure on government). The experience pays more than obtaining a higher education diploma and consequently, applicable knowledge gets higher value than theoretical knowledge. There, multiple providers of multiple learning opportunities seem better than a single provider (public) with some traditional learning opportunities, which are largely unfit for these new kinds of economic dynamics and demand an overhaul in the trajectories of LLL. UGC clearly mentions that:

> With the explosive growth of knowledge in the past century and with the development of handy tools of information and communication technologies as well as of other scientific innovations, competition has become a hallmark of growth all over the World. As a result, knowledge is not only going to be the driver of Indian economy, but also, it is going to permeate into all the strata of Indian society for a better quality of life and living conditions' (UGC, 2003:1).

In conferences and seminars, the NKC is promoting the notion of learning, especially LLL in the context of globalization and the competitive market economy. According to the chairman of NKC, Sam Pitroda; "the learning paradigm has changed", which is a "fundamental shift" and Indian education system should focus on the massive number of youth it has (Pitroda, 2009). For India, NKC brings a new way of looking at learning, which is quite different from the traditional ways of looking at it, or at education in general. It focuses on building human capital and a labor force capable of dealing with this changing demanding situation. This notion seems very close to the dimension of LLL, harnessed in the developed West. This issue is discussed in the later sections of this study.

Analysis using Jarvis's theoretical framework-

The above discussion helps depicting that the recent policy orientations in India are highly influenced by the present socio-economic situation, both global and national. This can be analyzed through Jarvis's model (Jarvis, 2008). One of the main arguments of that model is "LLL opportunities emanating from different parts of the global social structures will result in different forms of LLL. It is, therefore, perhaps over-simple to regard LLL as a single entity within the educational context" (Jarvis 2008: 32). It is seen in

the previous chapters (see chapter 5) that globally, there is no neutral or standard dimension of LLL. In the developed West, LLL is linked with economic growth, but in developing countries, it is also related with basic educational attainment of a wide part of society, such as literacy and basic education. Even in the discussion of the transnational organizations, we have seen that there are differences regarding LLL. In India as well, the situation is not at all indicating towards a single form of LLL, rather it gives an impression of having layers of concepts, facets of complexities and dynamics and understanding regarding of LLL and within LLL.

In the previous discussion on 'globalization' and 'human as resource and human as consumers', we see how the sub-structure is exercising its power form an international level to individual levels. According to Newman (2006:122; Habermas, 1972 and Lukes, 2005 in Jarvis, 2007:30), this exercise of power is subjective and it is a combination of political, economic and persuasive powers. Therefore, the exercise of power depends on who is practicing it and more importantly, it is not limited by controlling the political agenda or by the traditional local power owners. Rather it is well spread in the form of advertizing, consumerism, modifying production system, learning materials, curriculums and so on. Since, the dominant change of the concept of LLL is considered as neo-liberal and championed by the capitalist minds, it faces considerable resistance, which may come from various sections. It can also come from various levels, starting form a transnational to individual and can appear in the form of political movement, protection of cultural identity to religious resistance etc. Therefore, the issue of resistance is as complex as the issue of the influence of the sub-structure.

In response to all these complex forces, the policies in India are largely trying to promote the market as a means of fast development and a way to achieve the ambitious knowledge society. Since the main resource is human capital, learning gets all the limelight and traditional systems are put under analytical microscopes to make it better. In other words, a constant effort is being made to make LLL, market friendly. However, there are problems and constrains. The differences in the society, the increasing economic gaps, the thrust for knowledge society and the needs for food to survive at the same time making this situation immensely complicated, sometimes contradictory. Moreover, the enormous power of the sub-structure also posses challenges in front of the traditional education and learning systems of India and in front of national and local population needs. However, it is noteworthy that in spite of many contradictory socio-economic-educational situations and challenges, the concept of LLL has changed from the historic definition of the same depicted in 'Veda'[43]. The modern dimensions of LLL, overall, ask for more pragmatism. However, the popular concept of LLL dominated by the economic connotations, has not entirely overwhelmed the Indian perception of it. The resistance and extreme opposing situations of development and underdevelopment (e.g. ICT boom vs. the illiterates, Western modernization vs. the cultural conservativeness, fast changes vs. the slow bureaucratic setups, globalised education vs. the traditional academic practices) work as mechanisms for checks and balances, and sometimes against the pace of sub-structure, to penetrate in the Indian society and

[43] The ancient Indian text.

change its exiting dimensions of LLL entirely (Shah, 2009, 2012; Rajesh, 2012, Jarvis, 2008).

These complex and unequal socio economic situation contradicts with the vision of 'one-worldness' of globalization in India and as of now, it seems that this lies as a very distant future, if it is conserved true at the first hand. At present, globalization, (at least in India), is a muddle of multiple worlds of discordant realities, bound together by the manipulation of market and the corporate media using the magic of new realities, which are capable of creating mega fantasies (O'Meara et al 2000; United Nations 2002a-c in Bhola 2006:50). In the midst of this complex situation, not one, but several dimensions of LLL could be present in India supporting various needs of the different layers of the societies. It is, however, difficult to pin-point at all the different dimensions of LLL persisting in India at various levels, as the study focuses on the national level policies only. Nevertheless, the tension between the market forces, neo-liberalism and socialism, and welfare ideologies; the clash between the rich and the poor, the service and the agricultural sector, the economically oriented and the populist governments, the radical and the traditional administrations overall, have given birth to at least two main extreme perspectives of LLL in India. They can broadly be classified as;

- **The Welfare perspective**: This perspective argues for keeping a more traditional role of LLL, and up-gradation of the deprived sections of the society. It also supports more state control over LLL.
- **The Neo-Liberal Perspective**: It supports the new perspective of LLL. In India, it could be one political stand, which promotes the open market economy, privatization etc. Here, lifelong learning for economic growth is much in line with the global perspective.

Apart from these two broad classifications, there is a third perspective as well. This third one overlaps the boundaries of these two, and at the same time poses some of the distinctive elements, which are outside the common boundaries. The study explains it as:

- **The Integrative / fragmented perspective of LLL** :It tries to balance between the two extreme perspectives (the previous two) and at the same time, tries to incorporate very many other aspects of LLL. By doing so, it sometimes loses its tracks, fails to provide any direction, and remains as a fragmented one.

The next sections discuss these three perspectives of LLL in turns. It could open up several smaller aspects of the ongoing discourse of the Indian dimensions of LLL.

The Welfare perspective of LLL and globalization

The discussion in this section is mainly related to the dominance of welfare outlooks of the Indian perspective of LLL. The discussion of this perspective seems important, since in India there is still strong presence of this perspective in the renewing context of learning. In the initial chapters, we have seen that both Shah (2008:15) and Mohanthi (1999:395) have agreed upon one point that the discourse of LLL is not new and it was there in India since long ago. What is then the present understanding of LLL in relation to its past approaches and stands?

If we go back to the beginning of the ancient understanding of LLL and take that as a point of departure, then it is possible to find out that LLL was mainly seen as a way to achieve an ultimate position of personal knowledge. Later on during British period, it has been used to promote literacy because the literacy rate was very poor at that time. The understanding of LLL, during that time, was mainly related to mass education and societal development. From the ancient times until the post British era, the shift of the perspective of LLL roughly shifted from acquiring the highest level of knowledge to acquiring a basic level of knowledge, or just getting literate. Nevertheless, there was another shift too. While on the ancient times, the LLL was only for the elites and for some exceptionally brilliant students, during and after the British period, the focus was shifted to community level and up gradation of the illiterate community to a literate one. This indicates a shift of focus from a more individualistic level to a more community level. In 1964, the Education Commission report highlights the importance of personal and professional development. One of the focuses of that report was to increase the basic education and training with a community development approach.

The changes in the international level policies also influence the Indian perspectives of LLL and it can be seen through the changes in the UNESCO's policies at international level. In 1997, UNESCO organized CONFINTEA V in Hamburg, Germany. There, they come up with the term, 'adult learning' instead of using 'adult education'. This shift created a division of using this term and a conflict emerged regarding the ideology of adult education and ideology of learning. As Bhola explains that, the idea of 'adult education' is divided into two sections. One is adult education 'as culture' and another is adult education 'as sector' (Bhola 2008:5-6). The first one, which is mostly seen as a mix of charity and social work, claims to meet the felt needs of the suffering communities. Its pedagogy also claims to respect the learner. It is seen 'as culture' and as an inter-generational transfer of knowledge, which is woven into the indigenous traditions of all human communities, collectivities and cultures. On the other hand Adult Education 'as sector' is related to a structured way of articulating community needs, motivating and mobilizing learners and other resources and inclusion of non-government organizations, but under a government structure (Bhola 2008:6). On the other hand, the global ideology of 'learning' is related more with market, neo-liberalism, globalization and so on. This ideological conflict perhaps led UNESCO to change their term to 'Adult Education and learning' (Bhola, 2008) in the changing situation.

Along with the International changes, this global scenario helps changing the UNECSO's perspective of LLL as well. In India, UNESCO came up with their two statements of LLL. According to Shah (2009:21) these two important statements, namely the Mumbai Statement and the Hyderabad Statement on LLL in 1998 and 2002 respectively, influenced the country to view LLL as a 'guiding principle' and 'overarching vision' of today's society. In the Mumbai statement (1998) it says-

> Adult education thus becomes more than a right; it is a key to the twenty-first century […] Learning throughout life implies rethinking of content to reflect such factors as age, gender equality, disability, language, culture and economic disparities (UNESCO, 1998).

In the same document, UNESCO highlighted many arguments for LLL in a changing society and tried to make a balance between the two (old and the new) approaches (in Bhola 2008). UNESCO mentions the importance of having two values of LLL side by side by saying-

> LLL can be based on both instrumental values such as the need to maintain professional currency and to have an internationally competitive workforce, and on more liberal and humane considerations such as the enrichment of society and people's fulfillment as individual citizens (UNESCO 1998).

Later on in the Hyderabad statement (2002) UNESCO tried to promote the idea of a 'learning society' and' learning community'. The aim was to 'empower people, expand their capacities and choices in life, and enable individuals and societies to cope with the new challenges of the 21st century' (UNESCO, 2002:1). The context was the fast changing global economy, which is a phenomenon related to neo-liberal ideologies and market principles. UNESCO mentions about this economic globalization, but still holds its stand of poverty reduction, democracy and justice etc. as some of the main important elements of LLL (UNESCO, 1998:1).

In the above discussion, the conflict seems present at a wider level. It is a conflict between two giant concepts: the free market economy and the welfare state in the context of globalization (Bhola, 2008:17). However, the dilemma is not only at that ideological level. At a very practical level, the welfare perspective has much acceptance, as it is traditional and well known and there is apparently no threat attached with it. The welfare perspective of LLL also appeal for 'development of all' and views the society as a whole and not as a conglomeration of individuals. In addition, it would take a massive effort and money to initiate a program of changing a whole setup of something in a huge and diverse country like India, consisting of several layers of bureaucracy and governments. Bhola claims that "LLL is impossible without institutional structures of lifelong education'' in India" (Bhola, 2003: *23*). Nevertheless, it is to remember that this rather noble approach persists in India for so long but in practice, it could not help much to make remarkable changes in the educational attainments or even to achieve literacy for all.

The poor output of the welfare perspective also makes way for the new approach. Therefore, it is not just economy, or globalization or some external forces, which plays major role here. Internal factors are also accountable, including the underperformance of the traditional LLL. Although, apparently this welfare approach seems without any threat, but its smaller effectiveness in practice comes as a threat to a nation, which aspires to be a knowledge society. Moreover, the neo-liberal perspective argues for promoting capacity for adaptation to free market, as a strategy for equity promotion. Hence, the urge to look beyond the welfare perspective, within the country, is quite evident. The next section explores the new perspective of neo-liberal ideas in relation to the perspective of LLL in India.

The neo-liberal perspective of LLL and globalization

This section discusses how the neo-liberal ideas influence Indian traditional perspective of LLL to a more market oriented one. It ends up highlighting that neo-liberal ideas are

unable to change the traditional perspective of LLL completely to a market-oriented one at national policy levels and more so, in its general understanding and practices.

In India, globalization entered in 1990s with the national level economic reforms. However, there are debates regarding this issue. Some argue that there are two types of globalization, both 'old' and 'new'(see chapter 3). The 'old' is related with the continuation of the objectives and structures of the global colonization of the world and followed by the global neo-colonization of new nations during the latter half of the 20th century. It is 'new' in the sense that the advancement in science and technology(especially ICT) in recent years have virtually diluted the distance between the states, leading to an accelerated world history and an intensification of processes (economic, social, cultural and political) within, between and among nations (Bhola, 2006:50). If we consider Jarvis's model, we see that he mentions the dominance of the global world and pointed it as a 'center of power' of globalization (Jarvis 2007; Bhola, 2006). Jarvis also mentions about the enormous power of some of the nation(s) (especially America, according to Jarvis), multinational corporations and companies in controlling the economic substructure. So, if the centre of power is in west and the corporations (almost all of them are for-profit organizations), are being operated by capitalist market oriented principals; then where does India stand in terms of its present economy oriented educational approach, which could eventually influence the present Indian perspective of LLL in this globalized world? In other words, how India perceives education in general, as an economic sector or as a social one?

The analysis of Indian economy and education by Kapur and Mahta (2004) could shed some light on this issue. Their study shows that officially there is an enormous reluctance to see education as an industry or business. As per the Supreme Court's[44] mandate, education can still not be a 'for profit enterprise'. The court is very strict on selection of students based only on their merits. However, this is only in case of public institutions. In case of private institutions, the situation is 'murky' (Kapur & Mahta, 2004:13), where the court has tried to 'compromise' between pure merit and ability to pay. It is an adjustment where half of the seats are reserved for the merit and the rest for the ability to pay. This step signifies the following things:

- Public institutions are restricted to use 'private resources' available in the market, or in other words, not allowed to follow the market principles;
- Private institutes are however allowed to make profit from tuitions and can (depending on the setup, situation etc.) avail public support.
- The ideology of equity is being hampered due to this double nature of the order. Make sure this conclusions are precise, references

In the meantime, private institutions (most of which are for profit, in practice) are mushrooming where they can charge huge amount of tuition and other fees. In reality, they are providing educational service only to those who can afford, mostly neglecting their social responsibilities to provide the services to all, irrespective of their paying

[44] The supreme court is the highest court in India, capable of dealing with any educational related issue and/or provide clarifications.

abilities. Many of these institutions try to create a market niche. However, the free play of the market mechanism is restricted in another way. Most institutions are under any of the state institutions (by legislation), where they have to follow the same curriculum and cannot provide the innovative education or change it swiftly. The major consequence of this are:

- Private education became a trend but not being able to upgrade the educational scenario for the nation.
- Those who can afford even higher, are going abroad for better educational services and those who cannot, are suffering under this over regulated and under governed public education system.

Market here, plays a complex role by occasionally advertising the alluring opportunities but the regulations are restricting it to spread beyond a certain limit.

These, according to Kapur & Mahta (2004:13; Tilak, 2012; Jairam, 2006) is creating a dilemma inside the Indian education sector to either respond to the call of the market or to remain static with its traditional below-quality education system which in many cases could prove fatal if India has to compete in a globalized world. Thus, the vision of a competitive market and education as an enabler of better future is being highlighted repeatedly by the ministers, policy makers and other stakeholders across the academia, economy and government, which eventually supporting the global perspective of LLL in India. The latest National Five Years Plans (e.g. XIIth Plan) confirm this. However, it can also be claimed that the neo-liberal perspective is not yet in its full swing in shaping the Indian perspective of LLL especially after these dilemmas at the government level considering the historical trends and far from perfect socio-economic-educational situation. Nonetheless, it seems that the Indian perspective of LLL is dependent on both welfare and neo-liberal perspectives. The next section explores more on this issue.

The Integrative / fragmented perspective of LLL Globalization in the Indian context

Based on the analysis of these two perspectives (welfare and neo-liberal) another perspective might be identified, which can be termed as the 'integrative and fragmented perspective of LLL'. This perspective seems to try to balance between these two ends (welfare and neo-liberal) and put itself somewhere in the middle, which could be justified to all. The political stands of UGC , XIth planning Commission show a clear indication for that, where they are trying to take the benefit of economic globalization in India and at the same time maintaining the traditional perspective of LLL in the form of adult education, continuing education and so on. However, trying to be everywhere could also lead to a confused state where lack of focus and integration increases the problems for both. It is however, interesting to see, how this issue is taken care of in India, in relation to its changing dimensions of LLL.

The dilemma of whether to keep the Welfare perspective or the neo-liberal one brings new challenges within Indian education policies and to its understanding of LLL. After spending 40 years with a 'socialist pattern' and 'mixed economy' (since independence. 1947), there are new terms coming into play. These are 'liberalization', 'privatization', 'globalization' and 'market friendliness' (Kumar, 1998:1391) and the latest addition is the new LLL. This new approach seems more prone to lean towards the West. However, in

Indian democracy, there is a long legacy of dilemma in policy implementation and keeping the Indian society almost static or with a few fragmented growth in some pockets (Raghavan, 2003:49-51). Contrastingly, however, the present era of globalization demands faster policy changes, and interdependence on the competitive global economy.

This new demands of flexible policy approaches also bring hopes for economic reliance. According to the World Bank, the FDIs and improved economy would eventually diminish the problem of unemployment and poverty with its flow of increased productivity. It is however difficult to completely agree with WB since there are prevalence of increasing inequalities in the societies. That is why; the policies seem find it too risky to open its education sector to the market alone. If we look at the education planning periods and the results, we might find the existence of the following trends, which could be useful to understand the present perspective of LLL in India.

- The education is still in many ways subsidized with a view to facilitate greater accessibility to the people from the economically poorer sections.

- In state regulated education system, there are reservation for Girls, Scheduled Castes (SC), Scheduled Tribes (ST), Other Backward Classes (OBC) and religious minorities. This trend shows an opposite picture than that, which is followed by the market principles. However, on the other hand, this is important in order to upgrade these disadvantageous sections for long-term returns.

- The Union Human Resource Development Ministry, thus seems supporting the market economy but only within a strong unified public regulatory framework. It shows the tendency of centrality in education. The initiation of a uniform educational structure, system, grading scale, closer to the global structure, can be considered as parts of this effort.

Moreover, India perhaps cannot welcome all-out neo-liberal approach in LLL; because there are considerable amounts of resistance to the vision of 'knowledge society', since it seems unachievable in near future with India's present socio-economic-educational context. The threats are twofold-

- One, India could find itself in a difficult situation, where its young population may not find jobs, which eventually could create major social problems. This might happen if job moves to cheaper countries, economic recession occurs/ continues etc.

- Second, if economic reforms are not well thought and non-sustainable for India, then it could create a huge risk of a centrifugal vicious circle of poverty, where the new perspectives of LLL and making India a knowledge society would remain as utopia.

These possible threats are compelling Indian policy makers to take calculated steps, which might prevent the country from getting poorer in the long run. Even OECD agrees

that the market perspective has not worked well enough in all regions (in Bhola, 2006:15). The UGC guideline for LLL (2008:3) could shed some more light on this issue. In the introduction part, it mentions about the effect of globalization, rapid technological development of ICT, the need to create more employability etc. This seems similar to that of the economic perspective of LLL. However, later on, it mentions about subsuming the existing programs under LLL, which are still now, mostly considered as literacy, adult and continuing educational programs. This trend of recognizing the present situation and need; and reacting based on the existing infrastructure might indicate towards a practical strategy for development. However, the question is, where is the balance between these two different stands? Are they mixed properly? From the way UGC puts all the bits and pieces of the globalizing and traditional perspectives of LLL in one document may also convey the impression of an amalgamation of all existing dimensions under a new umbrella term of LLL.

This could also indicate to a position, which is neither market centered nor welfare centered. The XIth and XIIth Planning Commissions also explain the need to revamp the Indian formal-non-formal education system looking at the demands and the challenges posed by globalization, especially economic globalization (Govt. of India, 2007, 2012). It could be the influence of the global discourse of LLL. The policies, however, mention the importance of multidimensional ability of a student, but do not specify what kind of multidimensionality they are referring to, especially suitable for the Indian situation. The confusions are roughly the following:

- The NKC mentions about this multidimensional skills but it is more narrowed down to the skills needed for the labor market.
- The XIth and XIIth planning commissions mentions about the skill, but the stress is more than just on economy and it also emphasizes on society, moral character etc.
- The UGC mentions both, but rather more separately.

It is the same about the 'English' language issue, where KNC strongly supports the use of English. The XIth Planning Commission and UGC guideline for LLL put importance on learning English, but it seems quite general and theoretical while mentioning the importance of English side by side with other languages. It seems that the understanding related to LLL has been metamorphosed in different documents. The integrative perspective is somehow trying to balance between the economy it has and the goals it want to achieve. Based on these they are making educational restructuring, which are more prone to welcome the global perspective of LLL, but have less intention to completely embrace it. Probably therefore, the policies are coming out as a mechanism to address the issues differently with different point of views and with different levels of solutions. Here, it seems as an emerging trend of a polycentric arrangement involving both public and private interests (Rizvi and Lingard, 2010:117).

Conclusion

At a glance, the current situation seems quite in bits and pieces. Nonetheless, a closer examination shows that the traditional perspective of LLL is being questioned already. It

is questioned from the pragmatic point of view situated in the present post-modernist context coupled with the neo-liberal ideologies. This question seems related with different layers of 'powers in each society' (Jarvis 2008:30). Due to globalization, the economic sub-structure, which runs through national boundaries, became stronger and thus controlling much of the global economy. It has major implication for the learning society. "The complexity of power structures and the negotiation between the various parties reflect some of the issues of contemporary politics'' (Jarvis, 2008: 30). However, the fact is, this 'economic core', which mainly consists of multinational companies, cannot produce national or international level policies. However, they can influence the other sections or layers (according to Jarvis 2007). The policies and laws, which are produced by the international and national bodies are often not only influenced by the 'substructure', but also by other factors like its socio-economic situation, political will, nature of democracy etc. Therefore, instead of an all-out support for the sub structure (i.e. full market control over things), national policies try to balance the situation. These balancing acts create a kind of 'cushioning' effect (Habermas, 2006:81 in Jarvis 2008:30) which protects the deprived from the harsh competition promoted by the market. It also provides the government a space to balance between the old and the new, instead of making a drastic change.

This power structure is playing an immensely complex role since India has a complex political, social, democratic structure and a complex economic nature. The global sub-structure is probably influencing the perspective of LLL in India and trying to make it closer to that of the developed west. One simple reason could be to create a uniform ground for economic activities (Bhola, 2008). On the other hand, in India, another power structure plays an active role to resist these forces of global–substructure. The 'pro-people' (supporting the common people) nature of the government, the massive burden of the poor and illiterates and protest of different political, non-political and religious organizations are acting as opposing forces to this substructure (e.g. recent protests by political parties, NGOs against the inclusion of direct FDI in retail business in India). The government of India has to react to all these forces keeping in mind the Indian nature of democracy. It is working here as a 'cushioning' effect. Therefore, no matter how clearly the OECD says that India has shifted from its former 'dirigiste' model and has become a market-based economy (OECD 2007:3); India still represents a mix of capitalism and socialism.

The consequence of this so-called 'mixed' nature is creating a kind of imbalance between different sections of learning and education. The lack of synergy in economic activities has its clear impact on the education policies of India. The understanding of LLL, therefore, remains different in practice and in major public policies. However, in spite of all these integrative and/or fragmented ideas and understandings, the present perspective of LLL seems to be moving towards the understanding provided by the global perspective, since the policies seems to be getting closer to the sub-structure. This nature of following the substructure seems similar to the 'catch up efforts' mentioned by Jarvis (2007, 2008). The market principles are certainly playing a more dominating role in defining and modifying the perspective of LLL in India. At the same time, it is also true that these policies are trying to balance between the past and present or even the future perspectives of LLL, depending on the economic roadmap of the country and the world

around. The economic recession has strengthened this 'cushioning' nature since major countries (e.g. USA) are trying to regain control over the economic substructure by making laws and regulating markets. In India, as the present situation is concerned in promoting the economic perspectives of LLL, it is going to be more and more influenced by the nature of global one and supportive to the neo-liberal ideas of market capitalism. It seems very important to mention that this Indian perspective of LLL most-probably cannot turn into a full-fledged economically oriented one, since the effect of India's political nature, diversity and some indigenous factors always work as counter forces. Nevertheless, it could be confidently said that the present concept of LLL has shifted form just 'adult and continuing education' and seeing it as a voluntary effort mostly practices outside formal education system. LLL, in its present guise, appears more like an educational-economic-framework (Shah, 2012, in the personal interview) than a synonym of adult and continuing education.

This mixture of facts and predictions gives an impression that the situation of Indian LLL is somewhat divided into segments and not yet coherent (indicating the three broad perspectives of LLL, mentioned above). It could also be seen that LLL in India is a mix of both ideologies, trying to be integrative by focusing on all sides. Bhola mentioned that, "it is India's good fortune that India seems today to have developed a happy mix of free market and pro-people regulation" (Bhola, 2006:20). However, is it so for LLL as well; especially when we see a lack of coordination between the 'market centered' approach and the 'welfare approach' to define the perspectives of LLL? Or, when we see that one understanding of LLL is similar to that of the global one, trying to build a knowledge economy and the other one is far opposite, talking about literacy and some rudimentary educational development, which is much closer to the Indian traditional way of defining it? These dilemmas indicate that it is, at present, somewhere in the middle of welfare outlook and neo-liberal one, much similar to the concept of the ''half baked socialism to half baked capitalism'' (Kapur and Mehta, 2004). Its prominent features indicate less coherence among these major perspectives, both in policy and practice and sometimes, even in policy alone. One still holds back the traditional approach, which by its span, is limited to certain ideologies (Neo-liberal or Welfare). However, the global perspective is penetrating in India with its neo-liberal and pragmatic approaches. This mainly focuses towards using learning as a tool for economic benefit. Interestingly, both welfare and neo-liberal perspectives persist quite strongly in different layers of Indian society and thus reflect in respective policies.

Summarizing the above analysis, it can be said that the Indian perspective of LLL is not at its present state, a 'happy' mix of the neo-liberal and the traditional one; rather these two perspectives are present quite strongly and running in parallel in different policies focusing towards LLL from different standpoints. These two perspectives (welfare and neo-liberal) are constantly being shaped by a changing tension depending on the global and national socio-economic and political situations. In other words, one approach seeks ways to utilize the present resources and opportunity to develop India and another is focusing on the basic issues before taking a leap forward. However, the stress is present of these two rather opposing views and a gap is prevailing as well. Hence, the metamorphosis of LLL from the pre-Vedic time to present changes in the NKC to UGC is

still unable to establish a standard dimension of LLL in India. Meanwhile, it is trying to be integrative, however, there is less success still now, as India is rapidly embracing the neo-liberal market principles, but cannot ignore the importance of the welfare approach of LLL. Interestingly, the debate helps to focus more on the new dimensions of LLL. More importantly, it is going through a transition phase and most probably leaning towards the economic and neoliberal discourse of LLL and by doing so; it also faces resistance from the other end which tries to keep a more welfare outlook and supports the 'not so prosperous' side of India.

chapter

9

Chapter 9 Consequences of the Changing Dimensions of LLL on Indian Higher Education Policies – A Prelude to the Next Section of study

Chapter 9

Consequences of the Changing Dimensions of LLL on Indian Higher Education Policies – A Prelude to the Next Section of Study

This chapter of the thesis works as a bridge between the first and the second part (i.e. LLL and higher education) of the study. Hence, it does not have the common attributes of a standard chapter. In size, it is much smaller than a conventional thesis chapter too. Nevertheless, it seems important to include this chapter in this study, as it is perhaps necessary to guide the research to its new part, by providing links from its previous analysis. It also seems necessary, as this chapter would be difficult to fit in the conclusion section of the previous chapter and the beginning of the next part of the study, yet important to include in the thesis. It therefore, claims its own space and a precise discussion about the findings so far and the direction of the research is likely to help to follow the arguments, discussions and analytical links with the coming chapters.

Background

The research on the present dimensions of lifelong learning (LLL) in India draws out several interesting findings. The main is the 'integrative and fragmented' perspective of it. In this perspective, two major perspectives, namely the welfare and neo-liberal are running in parallel. This means, it is able to influence different parts of the society and educational systems rather differently. The discussion of higher education in India obtains its importance at this point. It is getting the maximum importance in the era of knowledge Economy (KE), as the present nature of economy mostly depends on knowledge and it is often seen that higher knowledge comes from higher levels of learning. For formal sector of education, it refers to higher education. Thus, globalization and KE could influence LLL and together, they can have consequences on higher education which could relate it back with the changing dimensions of LLL, as it involves all sections of learning (e.g. formal, non-formal and informal). Moreover, we have seen how economy, ICT, demography, language and the supporting and opposing forces within these factors help shaping the dimension of LLL in India. As a next step to understand the influence of LLL in a specific educational context, HE could be a valid choice since it is globally, one of the most influenced sectors by LLL. As a next step to the discussion on the Indian dimension of LLL and higher education policies can be considered as the key official documents to reflect on this issue.

We have discussed in the introduction chapter of the research, that, higher education is considered as one of the most important tool to achieve the desired knowledge society. Moreover, this sector is considered as the final level of the formal conventional education. According to the traditional structure, during the tenure of higher education, an individual is expected to acquire the necessary knowledge. The completion of higher education, therefore, signifies the beginning of a post-student life, or working life. However, there is a change in this belief in recent times. Nowadays, it is not always guaranteed that a higher education degree secures the job for the candidate, or the job will last for life. Moreover, the importance has shifted from getting the degree to acquiring the skills and competences and accruing them constantly according to the changing needs of the market. Even in India, this dimension is prominent, where only a degree from a higher education institute is not enough to get a job. Therefore, these traditional beliefs of education equals to earnings are being overtrumped by the modern belief of learning equals to employability. Along with this, the very concept of LLL, comes to the forefront of the discussion.

Secondly, India is now among the top three higher education systems in the world, along with USA and China. The total number of students enrolled in higher education is huge and the enrolments are increasing each year. Therefore, it is a constantly increasing market of educational services. Not only this, there is a huge potential to increase it, as the Gross Enrolment Ration (GER) in Indian higher education is lower than desired or the world average of it. This provides the opportunity of a market and provides the market mechanism to enter in the higher education arena.

However, there are diversities inside the higher education domain as well, and sometimes they are so prominent that the welfare perspective might have to play the dominant role there. Moreover an important question would be how to make sure that the mushrooming higher education institutes are of good qualities? How to make sure that the money spent on higher education is actually benefitting the students? Moreover, what about the students who are from poorer economic backgrounds? Would they be left out of higher education because they are unable to afford huge fees and someone who is of similar or with low merit will get admission, as his/her ability to pay is higher? There are many more questions like this.

Thirdly, the Indian higher education system is becoming global. More and more linkages are being established between Indian and foreign higher education institutes, countries, continents and international organizations. However, the market demands more. It wants an intense linkage between the higher education sector and the world of work, i.e. with the new age industries. It seems that India has lot to do in this area to establish a well-built system, which serves this demand. However, there are some issues, which are important to highlight here. Firstly, how to do it efficiently and for the entire nation? Which educational domains to include? Would the government take the initiative, regulate and control it, or would it be left to the hand of the market to initiate, operate and regulate? These questions are in fact related to the policies regarding higher education. They are relevant, not only because of the demands of the market but also because there are urges form the people for these, especially in the age of globalization,

where the awareness in increasing about the relation of university education and employability as well as social promotion.

Among all these three major issues, there are several sub-issues and in most cases, all the issues are interlinked. They seem also interconnected with the dimensions of LLL and sometimes represent the dimensions quite prominently. Therefore, the analysis of the influence of the dimensions of the LLL in recent Indian higher education policies is in fact, helpful to understand the changing dimensions of LLL with a practical example, including policy analysis. This part of the study is therefore, strongly linked with the previous part of the research and together, they represent a better, lucid picture of LLL in India.

Organization of the following chapters

To explore the issue, this study takes the help of previously analyzed the sub-dimensions under the major dimensions of LLL in India. Here in this chapter it takes the references form the first part of the study (i.e. LLL) and discusses the major outcomes by pointing out the important features of the present discourse of LLL in India. Next in chapter 10, it describes the higher education system of India in detail, which is an extended analysis of the education systems in India, including a discussion of the major higher education policies. This discussion sets the background to advance the discussion to the second part, which deals with the recent changes in the Indian higher education domain, including the changes in the policy orientation(s). This part is a combination of description and analysis, which provides the research an edge to analyze the core issues of the influence of dimensions of LLL on the Indian higher education policies. In chapter 11, it takes the analysis forward and in accordance with the discussion in the LLL section, discusses the influence of economy, ICT, demography and language on the Indian higher education in recent times. This provides a better understanding and an initial conceptualization of the influence of LLL on it. This initial understanding is then studied further with the help the theoretical models, frameworks, in chapter 12, the last part of analysis of the higher education section. The last chapter is the general conclusion chapter for the entire research, where it highlights the major findings, links them and explains their contributions to knowledge. It also indicates the possible areas of future research, related to the issues discussed in this study.

Nevertheless, to initiate the discussion of this 'higher education' part of the study, it starts explaining the main points/ features found from the previous part of the research, i.e. the dimensions of the LLL in India. In spite of being a concise recurrence of the previous findings, it might help to initiate the study in an organized manner.

Lifelong Learning in India- Key Findings

From the analysis of the present dimensions of LLL in India, several points can be identified. The points can be divided into two segments, LLL supporting the global perspective or the neo-liberal dimension of LLL and LLL supporting the traditional Indian perspectives or the welfare dimension. Together, these two dimensions form the main or the fragmented dimension of LLL in India. However, it is perhaps important to

note that these are not absolute features of LLL, i.e. not fully exclusive of one or both dimensions. Yet, a summary of them provides a clearer picture of the present situation, related to LLL in India.

Features of the neo-liberal perspective of LLL in India

- Importance of useful (in economy) knowledge.
- Considers learning as a service, which can be sold.
- Considers formal, non-formal and informal learning under the umbrella term of LLL mostly oriented towards economic development and claims to have positive effect on equity.
- Supports open market mechanism.
- Supports outcome oriented learning.
- Supports flexible education / learning time/courses and fast changes.
- Promotes mentor and learners, more than teacher and students .
- Promotes skills and competences development.
- Promote individualization .
- Promotes employability over employment.
- Promotes competitive learning system.
- Advocates for privatization.
- Advocates for common credit structure/ credit transfer/ uniform education structure throughout the nation.
- Promotes more use of ICT.
- Promotes networking (academia-research-industry-market).
- Focuses on the human resource development to support the market and economy.
- Value/culture/traditions get less priority.

Features of the Welfare perspective of LLL in India -

- Equity oriented, expecting positive effects on economic development as well and improvement of community standard.
- Strong sense of cumulative development (opposed to the individualized one on the neo-liberal perspectives).
- Stress on literacy, post-literacy, basic education.
- Intended for education for all, compulsory education.
- Mainly devoted to adult and non-formal education.
- Engaged in population education (especially relevant in a thickly populated country).

- Recent stress on women's education.
- Incorporates awareness generation programs (health, sanitation etc.).
- Self employment programs, different in focus than that of the neo-liberal once. Focuses more on basic livelihood improvement and self sufficiency and not necessarily on profit maximization.
- Formal education gets lower priority.

It can be seen that the neo-liberal perspective or the global dimension of LLL outnumbers the LLL, which practices the welfare perspective by the number of features. At a first glance, it seems that the literacy, post-literacy and basic educational initiatives supported by the welfare perspective cannot enter in the discussion of the higher education domain. However, we might as well explore that all of these attributes are present even in the discussion of higher education and LLL. It is somewhat related with the UGC's idea of a new department of LLL, which focuses on extension activities; but also related with the concept of an overall educational and economic development, championed in the age of globalizing India.

Conceptual Clarifications

At this point, before beginning the main discussion of this section, it seems important to clearify the stand of the study regarding some of the similar yet 'confusing' terms, which are fairly used throughout the next chapters. They are 'globalization', 'internationalization' and 'multinationalization'. It is to note that the conceptual clarifications are provided keeping only this part (higher education) of the research in mind[45].

The discussion of LLL mentions the influence of globalization and it can be seen that globalization is one factor, which is omnipresent but influences each factor and layers differently. However, there are decent degrees of confusion and debate related to the question: among globalization, internationalization and multinationalization which is predominant in higher education today? These terms, by their very concepts, are close, yet different, and so as their features. "Globalization, according to some, is everything. [...] It is defined as the broad economic, technological and scientific trend, that directly affect higher education and is inevitable in the contemporary world." (Altbach, 2006: 123). However, Altbach (2006) argues that globalization is by no means is a new phenomenon in higher education and even the medieval universities were affected by global trends of that period. The difference is in the interdependent world of 21st century, the influence of globalization increased salience, which corresponds with the dimension of globalization affecting the dimension of LLL discussed previously.

In addition to this, internationalization is another phenomenon, which is predominantly influencing the higher education domain all around the world. It refers to specific policies and programs undertaken by governments, academic systems, institutions etc.

[45] The conceptual discussion about globalization and LLL can be found in chapter 3.

to support student or faculty exchange, encourage collaborative research, and nexus that are more international. "Internationalism constitutes the way that contemporary academics deals with globalization" (Altbach, 2006: 123) and thus makes this trend more relevant in today's globalized world. Another new trend, according to the study of Altbach (2006) is the multinationalization in higher education, which refers to multinationalizing academic institutions or in other words building campuses overseas and/or offering degrees in collaboration with a local institute, franchisee and so on. This off-shoring of higher education services are common in a globalised educational scenario nowadays and influencing India as well. However, as we have seen in the discussion of the dimensions of LLL that, there is not one, single dimension; it is also applicable in case of the higher educational practices as well. There are exceptions, considerable amount of differences among institutions, educational practices and many still follow the traditional ways whereas some are changing gradually. Hence, there are layers of complexities related to the changes and magnitudes of influences from different angles and can be analyzed from different points of views as well.

Epilogue

Overall, it can be seen that, globalization has brought many changes in the dimensions of LLL in India. Tremendous technological improvements, increased mobility of people, ideas and capital across borders have influenced the developed world to adopt LLL. The ideological value of 'learning throughout life' has been overturned by the pragmatic value of learning. This pragmatic value is related to skills and competency development, increased flexibility of people, their willingness to learn and update themselves, development of economy at different levels, which together, have created a massive force to make policies supporting the new dimension of LLL all around the world. Thus, education policies are being reformed constantly in USA, UK, EU countries, China and many other countries in order to meet the demands and be benefited in this globalized world. In this very issue of preparing the education system to meet the challenges and tap the maximum benefit out of it, higher Education (HE) plays a very significant role and it has a tremendous impact worldwide.

The dynamism of HE is now driven by skill drives for the knowledge economy. However, while in contrast to the development in above mentioned countries, India is still basking in in the glory of some of its initial success centring on the Information Technology (IT) sector (Agarwal 2006:2). Only recently, several new age policies have been put forward to improve the Indian HE in order to meet these global demands. Here, it seems important to mention that "hegemonic ideological, political and economic forces are associated with globalization and the knowledge economy have positioned higher education in developing countries as a crucial site for social and economic development'' (Naidoo 2007:248).

It also seems that almost all the discussed factors have the potential to modify the higher education in India. However, it can be seen that some of them have better priority and power over the others. The contrasting situation, described in the previous part (LLL), is still present in this part, but in a rather different way. There are few issues, which are

new and the study discusses them in detail as it progresses. Moreover, the influences of the factors vary between sectors of higher education. Therefore, in a nutshell, these dynamic perspectives are also very complex and gets even more complex in this era of globalization. To understand the process better, it is therefore important to go through the organizational structure, development and a history of major policies of the Indian higher education, before plunging into the main analysis. The next chapter discusses these issues in detail.

chapter

10

A Discussion on the Structure, Development and Policies of Indian Higher Education

Chapter 10

A Discussion on the Structure, Development and Policies of Indian Higher Education

Introduction

This chapter explains the higher education system in India, its development and major policies. It also highlights some of the issues related to Indian higher education, which are worth discussing, as they appear repeatedly in the next chapters. This chapter works as a background study for this section of the study (i.e. higher education), and may help to initially understand some of the unique features, issues and changes in the national higher educational domain.

The chapter is divided into three major sections, followed by the chapter conclusion. The first section explains the higher education system in India, its structure and expansion. The second section briefly highlights the development of higher education in pre and post-independent India, which leads to the discussion in section three. There some of the major national level policies in this domain are briefly discussed which is followed by an elaborate discussion of the policies in the post 2000 period. The conclusion section helps to understand some of the major issues prevailing both in the Indian higher education and LLL parts of the study. This issues are then discussed further in the following chapters.

Here, it seems important to note that it could apparently seem that the discussions in these three different sections are perhaps loosely linked and less coherent. This is because the main aim of this chapter is to provide a brief understanding of the higher education in India, its structure, expansion, policies and so on to open up the issues for further critical analysis.

Section I

This discussion starts with a brief introduction of the structure of the formal higher educational setups in India.

Indian Formal Higher Education System – Structure

Higher education in India, generally starts after 12 schooling years. Any education above that level falls into different categories of higher education. The higher education is, itself divided into several categories. In general, the higher education in India is based on the pattern of 3-2-3 year cycle of academic qualification adopted by most European countries under the Bologna process (Agarwal, 2011:7). The most common is the undergraduate

level, which starts soon after the 12th year of schooling. This under graduate course lasts for three years[46], and consists of all academic subjects. The other forms of higher education are 'open university', Bachelor of Engineering (B.E/ B.Tech), Medicine (M.B.B.S), Pre-teacher training etc. There are however, even more forms of higher education, which shares mixed timeline between secondary education to higher education. 'Polytechnics' is a very common form of education which starts after the grade 10 and continues for five years. Coming back to the general under graduate level, it can be observed that there after the completion of 3 years bachelor degree, there are further provision of a two years of bachelor and masters degree in education (B.Ed and M.Ed) specially designed as teacher training courses. On the other hand, the universities also offer degrees beyond the graduation level. It is possible to pursue masters level education there and some even offer degrees even beyond masters level. Unlike the three years general undergraduate level, the B.E/ B.Tech, is four years long. After that, there are possibilities of pursuing masters degrees (M.Tech). For Medical students, the graduation course of five years long followed by the M.D or MS course, which is a specialization on top of the M.B.B.S degree. Except polytechnics and teachers training courses, all the others offer the possibility to pursue doctorate studies. Sometimes, there could be another one/two years M.Phil courses prior to the doctorate studies. The diagram below can represent the structure, which is helpful to understand the system at a glance.

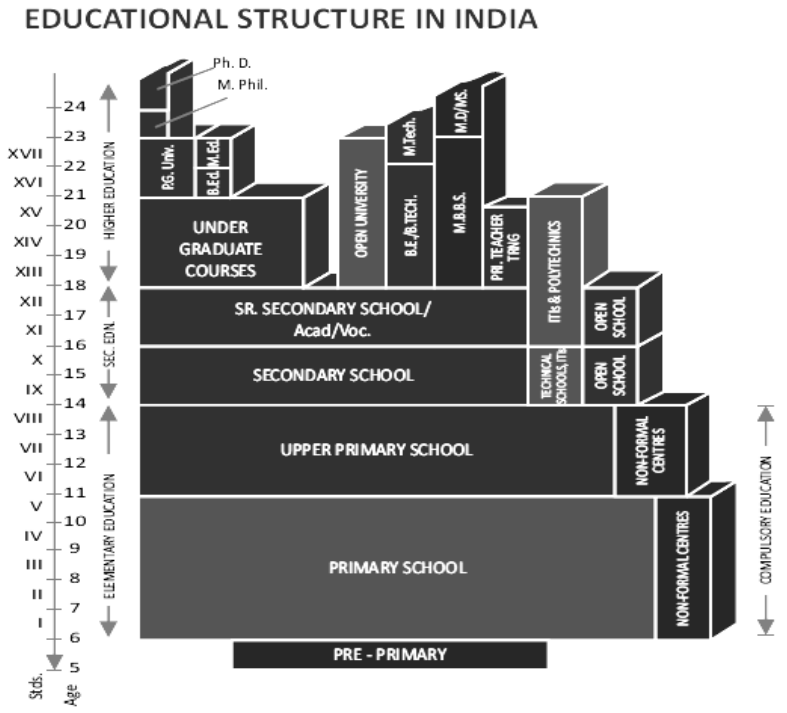


Figure 16: Educational Structure in India. Source - UGC 2012

[46] Exception- the University of Delhi has started a 4 years bachelor degree, instead of the traditional 3 year one, from the academic year 2013.

Expansion of Higher Education in India

This section briefly discusses the issue of expansion of the Indian higher education since independence and tries to highlight the three points mentioned in introduction. During independence, the total number of universities were 20. From that, today India has 634 universities and 33, 023 colleges (UGC, 2012). This is 30-fold increase in numbers of universities in little more than 60 years (since 1947). Here, few things are important to take into consideration. First, it is important to recognize that this rapid expansion of higher education has taken place in the context, where a huge number of illiterates are residing. Second, the increase in the number of universities and colleges were not gradual and mostly happen in the last two decades. Therefore, there seems a clear link with the national socio-economic changes and economic restructuring. Third, it is important to take into consideration the inclusion of the number of private universities and colleges in the Indian higher education system and the period when they started to grow at a rapid and dynamic pace.

Figure 17: Growth of Higher Education Institute in India since 1950. Source- Ministry of Human Resource Development, India in UGC 2012.helps to explain the growth trajectory of higher education institutions in India. It can be seen that since 1950s to 1990, both the universities and the colleges followed a steady rate of growth. However, it increased quite profoundly after 1990s and especially since 2000. The growth rate in 2000-2011 periods is more than double, and when we compare the growth since 1990 (the time of economic restructuring), it is more than threefold for the universities and more than fourfold in the number colleges. This is unprecedented in the history of the growth of higher education institutes in India. At this point, it can be easily understood that there is perhaps a link between the country's national economic restructuring and the upsurge in the number of higher educational institutions. This study will explore this issue in detail, in later chapters.

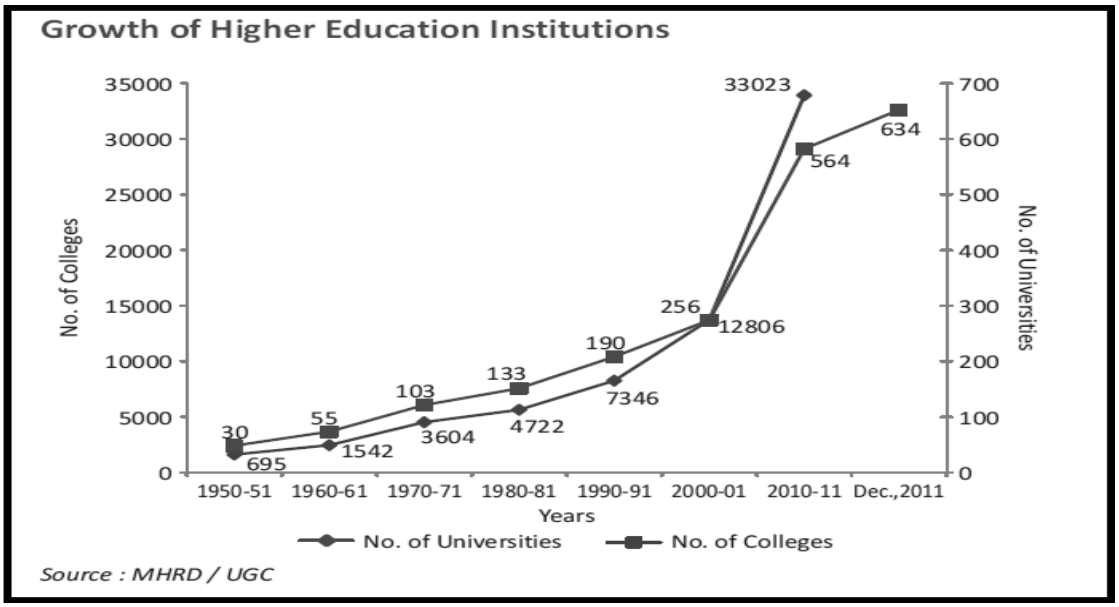


Figure 17: Growth of Higher Education Institute in India since 1950. Source- Ministry of Human Resource Development, India in UGC 2012.

Growth of Private institutes

Interestingly, the growth of private institutes has also gone through a very significant development over the past few decades. They grew in numbers after the economic restructuring and are growing each year. Now, there are 112 private universities in India (2011). The interesting thing is that most of the private universities are established in post 2000 period and a large proportion of them are set up only recently, after 2005. This means, there is a sudden increase in numbers of the institutes during the last decade. But why? This thesis will come to this point later on and explain the relation with the growth of private higher education institutions, economic restructuring and its consequences in the post 2000 period in relation to the consequences of the changing dimensions of LLL on the national higher education policies in India. Nevertheless, as of now, it can be said that, until the late 90s, private colleges had been established under the affiliation of the exiting universities. However, later this system was questioned form various sides, as the public or state control system became a barrier to fully exploit the market potential for the newly formed private higher education institutes. The result was to find alternative ways to use the market, which was growing. Many institutes got the degree granting power and other pursued the government to set up special laws to set up private universities. The sign of increasing market can be guessed from the data that, at present, private institutions contribute as much as eighty percent enrolment in professional programs (Agarwal, 2009:22-23).

Along with the increase in the number of higher educational institutes (both public and private), the number of enrolment also increased profoundly. From 100 thousands in 1947, it has gone up to 16 million and still growing. The provisional figures of a UGC study shows that at present (2010-11), the enrolment is more than 16.97 million (UGC, 2012). However, in spite of the growth, India's GER, compared to other developed and many developing countries, is poor. At present, the GER for higher education (percentage of the 18-23 age group enrolled in higher education) is around 17.9 percent (estimated, 2011-12, Planning Commission 2013c: 91), which is low compare to the world average of 21 percent, 36.5 percent for the countries in transition, and 54.6 percent for the developed countries. Even in Asia, India is far behind China, in terms of its GER. China has increased its GER in higher education form 10 percent in 1998 to 21 percent in 2005. The progress of China has not only put a sense of competition, but also provided a sense of inspiration to India's policy makers to set a higher target of GER. As a consequence, the government put increased priorities on higher education in the XIth (2007-2012) Five Year Plan where the target of GER in higher education was set at 21 percent by the end of 2012. This target, however, could not be achieved. However, this does not demoralize the ambition of the XIIth (2012-2017) plan, which aims to improve the GER to 25.2 percent by 2017. Nevertheless, the underperformance in the Indian higher education is a great concern, along with the issue of quality. Some of the other issues related to the Indian higher education are also raised in section four.

Issues Related to Expansion

However, the growth of India's higher education has not benefitted all, equally. Broadly, the disparities can be classified in the following section.

- Social disparities-
    - Inter-religious group disparities
    - Disparities among the social groups within religion
    - Inter Caste and Inter-Tribe disparities
- Rural-Urban disparities
- Inter-State disparities
- Gender Disparities
- Disparities across different income groups
- Disparities across people with different occupation

These social, regional, rural-urban, gender and other disparities are very prominent and can be observed through the GER in higher education. The XIth five year plan shows that, the GER among the socially deprived classes (SC, ST and OBC[47]) are 6.57, 6.52 and 8.77 percent respectively compared to the general GER of 17.22 percent. On the one hand, where the GER in the urban areas is as high as 19.90 percent, the same for the rural areas, on the other hand, is as low as 6.70 percent. The same trend of unequal rate of GER can be observed in the gender wise distribution of GER as well. In absolute numbers from a merely 43 thousand in 1950-51, the enrolment of female students in higher education has gone up to 7 million, which is good news. However, the enrolment of boys in higher education has gone up from 397 thousand in 1950 to a massive 16 million in 2010-11 (provisional data- Source MHRD and UGC in UGC, 2012). According to 2007 XIth plan the GER, was 12.40 and 9.10 for male and female respectively. One main reason is the lack of higher educational institutes in the states. Moreover, there are inequalities in the distribution of higher educational institutions. The diagrams below (Figure 18, Figure 19) show the distribution of universities and colleges in India, which gives an overview of the distribution of the higher educational institutes in India.

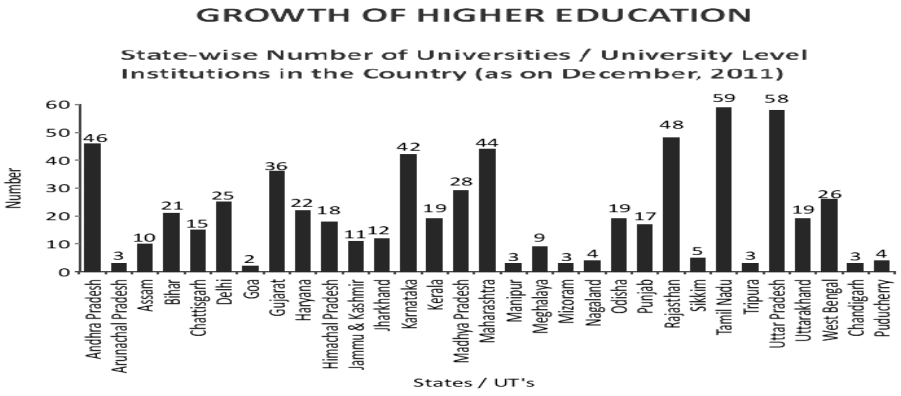


Figure 18:Growth of State-wise Number of Universities/ University Level Institutions in India (2011). Source - MHRD/UGC (in UGC 2012) * Provisional:

[47] SC- Scheduled Caste, ST- Scheduled Tribes and OBC- Other Backward Classes

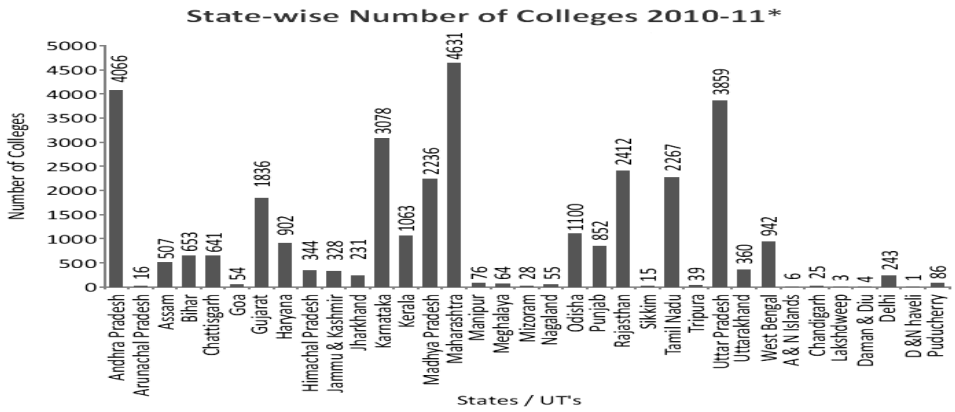


Figure 19: State wise Number of Colleges in India. Source- MHRD, UGC (in UGC 2012) * Provisional

It can be argued that there are variations in size, both in term of population and among the states and union territories of India. Therefore, the imbalance in the number of higher educational institutes can be justified by some. However, Agarwal's (2009) study shows that even if all these factors are taken into account, the spatial distributions of the higher education institutions are highly uneven across states. The common feature is the clustering of higher education institutions in the metropolitan cities. This issue is related with unbalanced educational development, lack of planning and so on. Some of which, related to the research, are discussed in detailed in later chapters. However, it can be seen that the problem is not only the low GER, but also an uneven distribution of GER. The issue of access is very much related with it, since access of higher education depends on who can access it.

Section II

This section briefly discusses the development of higher education in India and relate this section with the following section, which discusses some of the significant policies, relevant for this study.

Development of Higher Education in India

There are several historical studies on the development of higher education in India from various points of views. Among them, the works of Albatch (1982), Raja & Malhotra, (1991), Ram, (1990), Chauhan, (1990) have laid the foundation of the analysis of the development of higher education in India. Later, Philip G. Albatch, J B G Tilak, Pawan Agarwal provide important insights and help analyzing it further. This section relies mainly on the works of Jayram (2006, 2007) and Agarwal (2011) along with other scholarly works to describe the development of higher education in India.

Pre Independence Period (pre- 1947)

The foundation of India's present system of higher education was laid by the British (Ashby & Anderson, 1966) and the during the colonized period, universities ware modeled after the University of London. The language of study was English and it was the exclusive mode of instruction in higher education. The result was a poor enrolment

of Indian students. However, increasing enrolment was not the main aim. It was meant only for the elites. Later, in the early 20th century, some significant efforts were made to change the higher education out of the elitist culture and narrowness. However, these efforts ware not so successful (Tickoo, 1980). Therefore, the higher education system, from the beginning, was crisis ridden. It followed the legacy of colonial underdevelopments, was 'anemic, distorted and dysfunctional' with low levels of enrolment (Raza et. al., 1985: 100-109 in Jairam, 2007: 748). During independence, in 1947, there were merely 20 universities and 496 colleges.

The first commission on higher education in free India was the Radhakrishnan Commission (1950). Its recommendations covered all aspects of higher education and still, it is considered as one of the quality reports on higher education. Upon the recommendation, the University Grants Commission (UGC) was established in 1953, as a statutory organization to regulate and monitor the higher education in India. In 1964, the Education commission was established under the chairmanship of D.S.Kothari, popularly known as the Kothari Commission. It argues for better coordination between different disciplines and coordination between different councils of UGC. It strongly suggested that six percent of the national income should be devoted to education. Followed by the Kothari Commission, several commission and committees were set up. All of them supported the expansion of universities and colleges, vocational and technical education, focusing at the industrial development of the country.

Post independence to 1980

However, from post-independence period to 1980s, the higher education was largely confined within language courses and the humanities, apart from few professional institutions. Indian Institute of Technologies (IIT) and Indian Institute of Management (IIM) were two most important among them. They soon became the pinnacle of quality higher education in India offering the best educational services. Unfortunately, the richness of these institutes could not trickle down to the rest of the system (Agarwal, 2011:20). Today, there are seven IITs and six IIMs in India and the overall enrolment, compared to the overall higher educational enrolment, is very small. Few private colleges however, started to rise up during this period. Agarwal (2011) shows that by 1980s, there were 132 universities and 4,738 colleges enrolling about 5 percent of the eligible age group. There, almost one third of all the colleges were private. UGC was the main basic regulatory and quality assurance body during that time.

1980 and Beyond

1980s was a productive period for Indian higher education. The demand for quality higher education focusing at the business and industry surged up. The demand for quality education in general rose up, due to the growing number of middle class population in India. However, the government could not expand fast enough to match the demand. This was, according to Tilak (2005), the landmark, when government restrained itself from taking additional responsibilities, mostly in terms of investment. As a result, private institutes proliferated, distance education got wider acceptance and private institutions started self-financing programs. The entire higher education landscape started to change and got transformed in the next 25 years (Agarwal, 2011:21).

In 1985, the Ministry of Education (later known as the Ministry of Human Resource Development or MHRD) published a document titled '*Challenges of Education: A Policy Perspective*', This document placed increased importance on higher education. Several important policy measures were taken, e.g. delinking the degrees from jobs, introducing diversified courses etc. Emphasis was put on decentralization of higher educational planning, administration and depoliticization of academia.

In 1986, the National Policy on Education was published and revised in 1992 (discussed in detail, later in this chapter). This, as mentioned before in the LLL section, was the major all encompassing education policy, which India still follows in many ways. The concept of autonomy was encouraged by developing autonomous colleges and universities. It also supported the idea of greater flexibility to the courses along with a considerable change in the teaching style, methods, and teachers' orientation. However, an important thing is to note that the policy treats higher education as a non-commercial and social activity. Today also, there are considerable debate with the issue of commercialization of higher education in India (Bhushan, 2009: 22).

However, there were numerous committees on Indian higher education before and after the NPE 1992. There were policies, plans and several interim reports to upgrade the higher education of India. This research, is however, interested in the recent changes in the Indian higher education arena, and therefore considers the recent policies and plans for through discussion. Nevertheless, to explore the focused area better, it seems important to get an overview of the major plans and policies of the higher education in India. Therefore, the following section briefly discusses some of the most important among them.

Section III

This section begins with a brief overview of all the major national level policy reports in the post independence period, which are mostly focused on various issues, related to higher education including education in general

Major Policies in Indian Higher Education-

It seems relevant to understand the changing policy discourse of the Indian higher education chronologically. The policies for the discussion are selected based on their impact on the Indian higher education system highlighted by the scholarly works of Albatch (1982, 2002), Raja & Malhotra (1991), Tilak (1999, 2004), Agarwal (2011), Jayram (2006, 2007) among others. It however, does not discuss all of them in detail and rather focuses on critically discussing the recent higher education policies published in the post 2000 period. Particularly, it emphasizes on the discussion of the XIth and XIIth National Five Year Plans along with a major policy document popularly known as the Yaspal Committee Report (2009) on Indian higher education. In this section, it tries to highlight some of the major elements, areas of interests or issues, which are then discussed in the next section of this chapter.

Radhakrishnan Commission (1948-49)

The major committee on Indian higher education was the Radhakrishnan Commission (1948-49), appointed by the Government of India. The commission was appointed to review the Indian University Education and provide suggestion on how to upgrade it, based on the status and aims of the country. Because it was the first commission after independence, it was also supposed to suggest necessary changes in the constitution. Below is a list of things on which the commission provided its recommendations.

- The aims and objects of Indian higher education
- The recommendations for necessary changes in the constitutions, functions etc.
- The issue of finance
- The issue of improving quality
- The course of studies in higher education
- The standards of admission to the higher education institutions
- The medium of instructions for universities
- The direction and future of research
- The qualification, conditions of services, salaries and rights of university professionals
- Other administrative recommendations
- Disciplines of students
- Recommendations regarding some selected universities of India (e.g. University of Delhi). (Jaypalan, 2005:100).

Overall, the aim of higher education in India in the early post-independence period was to build a self sufficient nation by building complete human beings. In this regard, the commission (1949) mentions-

> We must train people not merely to be citizens but also to be individuals. The aim of education should be to break ground for new values and make them possible. (Govt. of India, 1949).

It considers the versatility and individuality of learners, who are by very nature, are different and have different capabilities. Therefore it focuses on the ability of teachers to understand and react accordingly to the diversified nature of the learners.

> Human beings, are not all built in the same way. They are of different types, reflective, emotional or active […] The true educator should understand the psychological make-up […] of the pupil and adapt his teaching to the mind of the pupil. (Govt. of India, 1949)

In the same line of thought, it puts high priority on social responsibilities of the teachers and learners. It considers that everyone should contribute in societal progress. This view is reflected frequently in this very document where the aims of higher education is not merely to earn or to get economic benefit, but to focus on social upbringing. Therefore, the aim was set to achieve knowledge and wisdom for the social benefit, unity of the nation and preserve the rich cultural heritage. To spread the benefits of higher education

the Commission proposed to increase the number of colleges and universities, including medical and technical higher education institutions.

The concept of lifelong learning (LLL) also matches with the social welfare outlook of the commission. It takes a very clear stand that learning should be lifelong and people learn not only from formally, but also informally and non-formally. According to the Commission-

> The process of education is continuous and lifelong. […] Experience is a great teacher. We learn daily and hourly from our home, from our community, from the press, the radio and the movies. All life is experience and therefore education. (Govt. of India, 1949)

Overall, as the first commission on higher education of the independent India, the Radhakrishnan Commission did remarkably well and that is why it is still being mentioned as a point of reference and also as a pioneering Indian higher education document.

Kothari Commission (1964-66)

1966 was considered as one of the most significant milestones in the Indian history of education. Because in this year, one of the most significant report on education, the Kothari Commission Report was published. This report, by far, touched all aspects of the Indian higher education and suggested a blue print of educational reforms, which can lead for the next twenty years. Certainly then, this has a great significance in determining the course of the Indian higher education and thus, important for this study, to have a deeper look.

The report, with a subtitle of 'Education and National Development' started with a very rhetoric note-

> The destiny of India is now being shaped in our classrooms. [...] In a world based on science and technology, it is education that determines the level of prosperity, welfare and security of people" (Govt. of India, 1966).

It also ended with a rather important note, which shows the presence of a competitive situation, India recognized during that period.

> We must either build a sound, balanced, effective and imagined educational system to meet our developing needs and respond to the challenging aspirations or to be content to be swept aside by the strong current of history (Govt. of India, 1966).

This was, certainly a very loaded statement. It shows that Indian higher education wanted to make the system efficient and competent. However, it recognized that the competition is needed to build a self-sufficient nation, and hence, the issue of international competition was not in the forefront. Overall, the commission identified three areas to 'kick-start' the much-needed 'educational revolution'.

- Internal transformations to relate the education systems to real life, need and aspirations of India

- Improvement of the quality and make it an efficient system so that the quality rises continually.
- Other internal transformations

There were certain goals mentioned in the report which represent these above mentioned broad ambitions. These are:

- Education for increased productivity
    - Importance on science and technology
    - Importance on vocational education and training
    - Improving research in science and technology

- Modernizing Education System
    - New teaching methods
    - Efforts to build essential skills
    - Educating all from all sections of the society
    - Emphasising on vocational subjects
    - Establishing model quality higher education institutions, mainly universities
- Education to promote national integration
- Education to promote values (moral, social and spiritual)
- Promoting social justice

The commission provided very detailed guideline on how to improve the quality and size of the Indian higher education. Therefore, it received great attention and created the base for the next National Policy on Education (1968) and fourth, fifth and sixth five year plans (Aggarwal, 2010). However, the efforts to bring the recommended changes in the higher education arena were not satisfactory. Several sectors have been neglected and lack of follow up ended some other in the halfway (Raja & Malhotra, 1991).

Nonetheless, the Kothari Commission recommended forming a committee for the National Policy on Education. This idea of bringing a common minimum policy for all the states was nevertheless, revolutionary. It helped to kindle a consensus and the Government of India passed the resolution on the National Policy on Education in 1968. It was understood that a single broad education structure is the initial requirement to employ the required further changes in the Indian education system. As per the recommendation of the Commission, the government agreed to adopt the 10+2+3 year education structure (10 years of secondary schooling, 2 years of higher secondary schooling, before entering into the university system and 3 years of bachelor degree). By the end of 1976-77, this structure was accepted in almost all the member states and Union Territories[48].

National Policy on Education (1968)

The National Policy on Education (NPE) contributed in many aspects of the Indian education. However, one of the biggest contributions of the NPE (1968) on higher

[48] Union Territories- Political region under the direct administration of the President of India.

education was that it had laid down a strong recommendation that to truly upgrade the Indian education, the public investment has to be reached at least six (6) percent of the national income as early as possible (Govt. of India, 1968: 49-50). The NPE also suggested that a three language formula (Regional Language/ Mother tongue , Hindi and English) as a language policy for the entire country, which is considered useful for the integration of the nation.

However, the several recommendations of NPE could not be achieved fully, especially related to increase investment on higher educational development (Ram, 1990). Partly because the Government was reluctant to invest more on the public education, and there were some drawbacks in the policy (Raza, Aggarwal, & Hasan, 1985). Nonetheless, it was able to provide some major pathways for the educational development of the country, some of which were quite radical. The idea to transform the system and link it more closely to the people's life was noteworthy. This helped to lay the foundation of more vocational education and training and encouraged a continuous up-gradation of the system, for the people. This sustainable approach leads to the decision of reviewing the education policy at a regular interval. The ideas of constructing moral and social values were carried forward along with the strengthened idea of national integration.

In 1977, there was a change in the national Government. 'Janata' Government came to the power and ordered a review on the NPE. The Government appointed two committees, popularly known as the 'Ishwaribhai Patel Committee' and the 'Adiseshiah Committee' to review the education and UGC to review all their programs. These helped to publish the revised draft of the NPE in 1979. However, the 'Janata Government' was short lived and the draft of NPE could not be transformed into a proper policy document.

National Policy on Education (NPE 1986) Modified in 1992

The Ministry of Education was changed into the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD) in 1985 by then, the newly formed Congress Government. This brought several other changes. The then Prime Minister Mr. Rajiv Gandhi, declared that an education policy would be formulated, which would be scientifically sound and make broadways to enter the twenty-first century. The statement resulted in the NPE (Aggarwal, 2010).

The formation of the MHRD[49] and the NPE can be marked as two significant milestones in the development of the modern Indian education. There were twelve parts of this policy document, all of which demanded some sort of changes in the existing system. Twenty-three task-forces were made and were assigned to different sectors covered by the NPE.

In the 1989 parliamentary election, the Congress Party Government lost majority and the National Front Government (a coalition government) came into power. This new government appointed a committee to review the exiting NPE(1986) under the chairmanship of Mr. A. Rammurti. In December, 1990, the committee submitted its

[49] Ministry of Human Resource and Development

report to the MHRD. However, before any possible changes could have happened, the central government again faced another change as some of the parties in the coalition withdraw their support. The next government lasted for a period of just four months. During this political turmoil, no significant change in any sector of education was possible.

In June 1991, the Congress Party again came back to power and P.V.Narasimha Rao became the Prime minister. Significantly enough, the Congress Government scrapped the report by Mr. A. Rammurti. Rather, another new committee was formed to review the old NPE and also the Rammurti report. This new committee, i.e. Janardhana Committee, submitted its recommendation in January 1992. Later in May 1992, the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) finalized the revised NPE. The report did make major changes to the original NPE of 1986. It recommended for taking measures to reduce gender inequality, caste discriminations in education. Based on the new NPE (1992), several policy recommendations were made.

The NPE1992 carried forward the goals of education form it predecessor policies. To mention the goal, NPE 1992 mentions-

> Education has an acculturating role. It refines sensitivities and perceptions that contribute to national cohesion, a scientific temper and independence of mind and spirit - thus furthering the goals of socialism, secularism and democracy enshrined in our Constitution (Govt. of India, 1992).

Significantly, similar to the previous NPE 1968, it started considering the use of the human resources. It says:

> Education develops manpower for different levels of the economy. It is also the substrate on which research and development flourish, being the ultimate guarantee of national self-reliance. [...] In sum, Education is a unique investment in the present and the future (Govt. of India, 1992).

It continues to mention-

> A critical development issue today is the continuous up gradation of skills so as to produce manpower resources of the kind and the number required by the society (Govt. of India, 1992).

This urge to use education for development of citizens is however, not new. The difference is, this NPE (1992) relates the human resource with national economic development. Nevertheless, it was still at a basic level and that reflects in the first paragraphs of the Higher Education section of the policy. To mention the aims of higher education, it stresses on the social and moral aspects of higher education more than the economic one. It states-

> 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 specialised knowledge and skills. It is therefore a crucial factor for survival (Govt. of India, 1992).

It reflects the same line of thought describing the future of Indian education. The main emphasis is on the social aspects including the national integrity. However, there were considerable amount of efforts being put to reconstruct the education system. In the area

of Higher Education alone, several committees and sub-committees published numerous reports. The NPE, as one of the main, suggested that for the development of the higher education of India, colleges should be given autonomy; vocational educations should flourish and should be based on contemporary subjects. Several other strategies are also taken. Some important of them are-

- Consolidation and expansion of higher education institutions, development of Autonomous colleges and departments, redesigning higher educational courses, Training of teachers, development of research, improving efficiency, creation of structures for co-operation at the state and national levels, mobility, strengthening distance education, strengthening vocational education and training, education of SC, ST and OBC and the minorities, education of Women and importance on national integration (Govt of India, 1992).

These aims or important aspects of the NPE 1992, perhaps indicates a beginning of a shift from the traditional educational policy discourse. It started to project education in a rather more pragmatic manner to achieve national socio-economic development. Looking outside the education policy, it could perhaps be found quite easily, that this change did not happen in a vacuum. During early 90s, several changes were happening in the Indian societies. As mentioned throughout the study, that 1990 was the era of major changes in the independent India. By reviewing, it could be seen that 1990s was the era where Indian economic policy was refurbished. Along with that, the stress on economy, international investment, skill development and improvement of science and technology started to come to the forefront of the policy documents. This can be seen by analyzing the policy documents in the posy 1990 period. Therefore the policies and/ or related documents since 1990 has been given an extra attention in this study. To continue, the next section briefly explains the part of the National Five Year plans and other major policy documents, related to higher education. This helps to get a deeper understanding of the situation, before a thorough analysis of the policy documents in the post 2000 period.

Post NPE, 1992

In the same year (1992) of the publication of the NPE, the Eighth (VIII) National Five-Year Plan (1992-97) was made. The basic objective of this plan was the modernization of the industrial and technological sector (Economy Watch, 2010). Among other important aspects there were concern for the agricultural sector and repaying the foreign debts. Therefore, from the very first sections of the report; it focuses on the economic development and growth using the resources available in the country. It clearly mentions-

> The Eighth Plan will thus have to reorient some of the development paradigms, since its objective is to lay a sound foundation for higher growth and to achieve the most significant goals, namely, improvement in the levels of living, health and education of the people, full employment, elimination of poverty and a planned growth in population (Govt. of India, 1992) .

Previous plans also put importance on the national economic development and growth. However, this plan is different as it was prepared in the context of economic

restructuring and deregulations, following the global trend of the same. Hence, the plan clearly shows a different roadmap to achieve its desired targets of development. It recognizes the global changes and expresses-

> The Eighth Plan is being launched at a time, which marks a turning point in both international and domestic economic environment. All over the world, centralised economies are disintegrating. On the other hand, economies of several regions are getting integrated under a common philosophy of growth, guided by the market forces and liberal policies. The emphasis is on autonomy and efficiency induced by competition. We cannot remain untouched by these trends. We have to draw lessons from the development experience of other nations during the last four decades (Govt. of India, 1992).

This immense importance on competitiveness at an international level was unprecedented. The recognition that India cannot rely solely on its own resources and cannot be immune from the globalization shows the necessity, over mere willingness to change. Moreover, the long haul economic crisis pointed out the less effectiveness of the previous policy mechanism for development. The enormous international debt of $72 billion, made India, world's third largest debtor after Brazil and Mexico. In fact, India only had enough currency reserve for just two weeks of import (Weinraub, 1991). This critical situation made India to realize that policy changes are required and needed immediately. Moreover, India needed international assistance to get out of its debt.

According to the reports, India needed $5 to $7 billion to meet the emergency and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) came up with the solution (Weinraub, 1991). However, it came with conditions where India had to made several changes in its economic policies. The then Indian prime minister Mr. Narasimha Rao and the finance minister Mr. Mammohan Singh (who is the present prime minister of India, 2013) initiated several changes, like diminishing the license raj, opening the domestic market to foreign investment and overall, liberalizing investment. Therefore, the changes in the Indian national level policies and document of that period could be considered as the beginning of a paradigm shift from its previous one. However, this was not yet a complete paradigm shift, as the policy did not modify radically and kept the previous policy unchanged in many aspects. Nonetheless, it was clear that India was entering in a new era and welcoming the neo-liberal principles.

It was noticed that the GDP[50] in agricultural sector is declining, whereas it is increasing in the service sector even in the crisis period. It did not take long to realize that service sector can bring new fortune for the problem-ridden India. To initiate a base to enjoy the growth, the way was to invest in education. The 8th plan clearly mentions that 'the basis for this advance lies in the rapid expansion of higher and technical education' (Govt. of India, 1992). It recognizes that-

> Higher education needs to be extended in an equitable and cost effective manner mainly by large-scale expansion of distance education system and increased involvement of voluntary and private agencies (Govt. of India, 1992) .

[50] GDP- Gross Domestic Production

This policy statement perhaps has an effect on LLL as well, as it mentions LLL opportunities in the higher education domain in the form of distance education. Moreover, it put increased importance on the creation of a skilled (technical and with managerial skills) manpower required for the developmental task. However, there was not any clear plan on how to achieve the targets. Overall, higher education has been ignored (Agarwal, 2011: xxix) in post reform India.

Several reports have been published afterwards highlighting several issues related to higher education. The 1993, Report of the Committee on Vocationalisation of Higher Education (UGC, 1993), for instance, promoted more vocationalisation or professionally oriented higher education, as it is required to create a stronger base for the economy and the country. In addition, it could provide employment opportunities to many.

Ninth Five Year Plan (1997- 2002)

The Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002) published in the year India was celebrating its 50th anniversary of freedom under the newly formed United Front, a coalition government which came into power after the 1996 general election. The plan starts with an oath-

> The Ninth Plan recognises the integral link between rapid economic growth and the quality of life of the mass of the people. It also recognises the need to combine high growth policies with the pursuit of our ultimate objective of improving policies, which are pro-poor and are aimed at the correction of historical inequalities. Thus the focus of the Ninth Plan can be described as : "Growth with Social Justice and Equity" (Govt. of India, 1997).

The emphasis of this plan was on the elementary education and higher education was neglected. The result was a poor Gross Enrolment Ratio or GER (8.85 percent according to the NSS[51]). The influence of the economic reform undertaken in the early 90s, on the development of higher education was largely ignored. However, the demand for higher education was growing rapidly along with the growing demand from the business and industries. The study of Dr. Geeta Rani shows that "the growth rates are doubled among the students enrolled in post-graduate and research, while the number of institutions for post-graduate and research studies has grown at a slower rate in 1990s than in 1980s" (Rani, 2003: 5). The Table 5 below shows it rather clearly.

However, this mismatch of demand for higher education and less institutions and less public funding provided the opportunity to the private sector to flourish. Two factors work here simultaneously. First, the financial constrains of the government made it difficult to invest huge amount of money for new colleges and universities. Secondly, the growing middle class, who were able and ready to finance their own education. These two factors, according to Tilak (2005) marked the withdrawal of the government from taking over additional responsibilities for the growing higher education sector. (Tilak, 2005). As a result, the market for higher education started to expand in India with blooming private higher education-providers.

[51] NSS- National Sample Survey, India

PUBLIC HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AND STUDENTS ENROLLED THEREIN IN INDIA

Year	Institutions			Enrolment (in 000, 000)		
	Colleges[8]	Univ & Research[9]	Higher Education	Colleges[10]	Research & PG[11]	Higher Education
1980-81	4152	206	4358	21.25	3.17	27.59
1985-86	4815	228	5043	29.66	3.56	33.22
1990-91	6008	281	6289	39.21	4.12	43.33
1993-94	6764	309	7073	42.07	3.95	46.02
1996-97	8529	327	8856	54.37	5.01	59.38
1999-00	9906	349	10255	71.31	5.95	77.26
Growth rates						
80-81 to 89-90	3.33	2.96	3.52	7.19	2.70	5.50
90-91 to 99-00	6.56	2.37	6.39	7.30	4.89	7.09
80-81 to 99-00	4.86	2.99	4.85	6.02	3.24	5.40

Source: Based on Selected Educational Statistics, various issues.

Table 5: Public Higher Education Institutions and Student Enrolled There - in India (Source - Based on Selected Educational Statistics, Various Source, in Rani, G 2003)

However, the bureaucratic red tape made it difficult for them to make a quick entry. Nonetheless, because of all these interrelated issues in post 80s period, "the entire higher education landscape started to change rapidly and transformed over the past 25 years" (Agarwal, 2011: 21).

Recent Development: post 2000 period-

This section discusses the major higher education aspects of the National Five Years Plans in the post 2000 period and the Yashpal Committee Report on Higher Education (2009) in detail.

Tenth Five Year Plan (2002 – 2007)

Before the publication of the Tenth Plan, the Government of India published an Approach Paper to the Tenth Five Year Plan (Govt. of India, 2001). An urge to reform policies to support the market could clearly be found in the document. The document laid the foundation of the plan, which follows the same path. For the higher education sector, it clearly mentions that-

> Since budget resources are limited, and such resources as are available, need to be allocated to expanding primary education, it is important to recognize that the universities must make greater efforts to supplement resources from the Government (Govt. of India, 2002: 17).

The public funding for higher education was reduced further. The government realized that it could not support the entire demand for the higher education of the nation. Due to the monumental demands for the higher education and lack of public providers of the service, the private higher education started to expand rapidly. By the time of the Plan (i.e. 2002-2007), the number of private universities rose, the tuitions fees continued to be raised, students are gradually encouraged to find the course suitable for them and pay for it. The institutions, on the other hand, are encouraged to get cost recovery from the

students' money. Student loans were encouraged as the options for scholarships were decreasing (Tilak, 2011: 37). Clearly, the economic means started to overshadow the higher education landscape of the country.

In the midst of this privatization of higher education, many aspiring students were now able to enroll in the institutes of their desire. However, all of these this newly proliferated private higher education institutions were not of high quality. The government, in the tenth plan, expressed its concern for the deteriorating qualities of the higher education-

> The University and Higher Education Sector also need attention. Although the number of universities has increased, and many universities continue to maintain high standards of education, it is a matter of serious concern that on the whole, the expansion in quantity has been accompanied by a fall in quality (Govt. of India, 2002: 17).

One the one hand, the private higher education institutions were growing rapidly. On the other hand, the issue of decreasing quality was becoming a serious concern. Moreover, the decreasing funding in higher education brought more inequality and several other problems. One of which is highlighted by Tilak (2011). According to him, although the primary and elementary education provides the skills to read and write simple things (3Rs), these skills are surely incapable of making someone skilled enough for today's knowledge economy. Moreover, the results of the elementary education and literacy initiatives are often not sustainable. Therefore, although these efforts help to bring people out of the poverty line, there is always a high risk of falling below the line again. On the other hand, higher education is based on the solid ground of primary, elementary and secondary education and it provides necessary skills for today's labor market. It also provides a better sustainability to keep people out of the poverty trap and works as a poverty alleviating mechanism (Tilak, 2011: 37). Therefore, the decreasing public funding in the higher education could result unsatisfactory. With clearly visible rate of low GER in the Indian higher education, India could barely dream to become a knowledge superpower in near future. To improve the size with quality in the Indian higher education, some actions were needed.

Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007 – 2012)-

The Eleventh Plan came up with some promising solutions. First, it budget allocation to higher education scaled up and the policy seriously focused on the expansion. It recognizes-

> Higher education will be a key driver in an increasingly globalized and knowledge-driven world and we need to increase the enrolment rate in higher education from around 11% at present to 21% over a ten annum period. This will require a massive expansion in the university system, which must be combined with efforts to create competitive world class institutions of higher education. Given the scarcity of resources, private sector initiatives in higher education and various forms of public–private partnerships (PPPs) must be encouraged (Govt. of India, 2007: ix).

Several new universities were planned to be set up, including setting up of six new Indian Institute of Management (IIM), seven Indian Institute of Technology (IIT), four

Indian Institute of Information Technology, almost two thousand new colleges of engineering and technology, more than a thousand polytechnics, and many other higher educational institutes. The policy also emphasized on the recruitment of the vacant teaching posts in the universities. The policy improved the scholarship funds to promote research and development in various sectors of higher education. Moreover, the government considered of setting up of fourteen excellent 'innovation' universities. The plan proudly mentions that-

> Our long-term goal is to set India as a nation in which all those who aspire good quality higher education can access it, irrespective of their paying capacity (Govt. of India, 2007).

After a long time, this Plan has made some positive changes in the policy directions. In fact, prime minister Dr. Manmohan Singh, termed the Eleventh Plan as the 'Education Plan' (Tilak, 2011:37), and described it as 'second wave' in the development of higher education (UGC, 2011: 1). Therefore, several other commissions were set up back up the plan. The Yaspal Committee on Higher Education (2009) is one of them and plays a major part in determining the roadmap of the Indian higher education. The next section focuses on the report to get a better insight of the policy orientation and its facets relating to higher education and LLL.

Yashpal Committee on Renovation and Rejuvenation of Higher Education (2009) –

The Yashpal Committee Report (2009) is considered as an important document, which adds new perspectives of knowledge management in higher education (Bhusan, 2009: 161). It is one of the key reports to guide the trajectories of higher education in India in the near future. Because of its special nature, dedicated to higher education only, which is unlike the national Five-Year Plans, it perhaps demands through discussion. Therefore, the important features of the report is discussed below, which may help to understand the next plan better and helps them to link it with the gradual development of Indian higher education policy.

The report is prepared under the leadership of Dr. Yash Pal, who is a famous educationist and a doctorate from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT). The said report provides its perspectives of a modern learning university. According to it, the universities should provide ample opportunities for the creative minds and proactively support the creation of specialized knowledge. For these, research and teaching are two most important pillars. It promotes Institutes, which can support innovation and creativity. The diverse nature of universities can ensure freedom in research and training and provide integrated space of teaching. It continues with promoting an all inclusive higher education system which opts for a versatile, job oriented and responsible system which caters to the students keeping in mind the changing need of the society.

The Yash Pal committee report mentions its worries regarding the less flexible structure of the Indian higher education. It clearly mentions that the universal approach to knowledge demands porous inter-disciplinary study, which prevents the fragmentation of knowledge. The dissemination of knowledge across disciplines, geographical and socio-economic space looking at the present scenario and future predication and need

towards the market, society are the main ideas of the present day Indian universities (Yash Pal Committee Report, 2009: 10).

The report not only mentions about the erosion of autonomy, growing distances between the theoretical and practical knowledge and isolation of universities form the real world as profound challenges of the Indian higher education, but also highlights about the threat of "crass commercialization" (Yash Pal Committee Report, 2009:12) and undermining graduate education in this regard. With great importance, the report mentions these problems as the 'invisible walls'. The suggestion to overcome these invisible walls can only happen if the universities open up, build networks with the practical world, become research and skill oriented, says the report. Even for IITs and IIMs, the brightest institutes of India, the report suggests them to find innovative and autonomous solutions to move forward.

Perhaps the core of the report lays, in terms of understanding the influence of the changing dimensions of LLL in the Indian higher education, in its subsection, 'architecture of learning'. There it mentions that with the present system of higher education, learners are unable to solve real-life problems, which are dynamic in nature. This lack of usable knowledge and skill reflect when learners cannot analyze situations or fail to have an integrated understanding of the different branches of knowledge. It seems that the lack of learning is present in Indian higher education, which is, in many cases, merely working as a degree awarding body and not preparing the learners for today's world. The report goes deeper to find out the reason and mentions the problems in the curriculum and syllabus making, which in most cases follows a traditional, outdated pattern. It criticizes the traditional evaluation systems as well, which are incompatible with the present needs and changing global educational scenarios. The report strongly recommends the need for immediate changes in these areas, and urges to relate them with the real world, problem-solving skills and with the world of work.

> This is required simply because engaging with the world surrounding us – both local and international- is an important aspect of learning, both as a means as well as an end (Yash Pal Committee Report, 2009: 19).

The report not just mentions the need for an upgraded, more practically orientated evaluation method of the learners; it opts for the same for the higher educational institutions. It recommends to set up certain performance criteria to ensure the accountability of the institutes, in the same way it used to happen in any organization. This evaluation method should be, according to the committee, divided in three parameters; namely, the socio-cultural aims of higher education, academic excellence and institutional self-reform. The first one aims to secure that the institutions should work against the inequalities in the country, persist in various forms. Gender discrimination, caste and economic discriminations are with high priority among others. The second factor, i.e. academic excellence is encouraged to go beyond its common understanding of producing quality material for the world of knowledge, or producing good learners and teachers. It asks to break the barrier of staying isolated and encourages the universities to embrace the social world that surrounds them and to preserve or sample anything that contributes to the knowledge, and could be useful for

further evaluation. The third criteria, i.e. self-reform insists the insists the institutions to find their own strengths and weaknesses, find suitable solutions and apply them in an autonomous way. By doing these, the institutions can self-evaluate in a transparent way and establish them among the other excellent higher educational institutes globally. These steps seem driven by the needs of the present and looking the strengths and weaknesses India have, such as economic and social disparities. It could also be a part of making the universities more accountable and competitive.

To move a step further form the evaluation criteria, the report promotes the idea of establishing new professional higher educational institutes, which will provide necessary knowledge and skills in several professional, vocational subjects and links them with research and development. Here, it mentions about the accreditation of prior learning. This certainly focuses on the necessary reforms needed for the national economic development. However, in the same section, it mentions about another factor, which points towards the general attitude towards vocational subjects. It can be seen that vocational subjects, including polytechnic degrees are largely given a lower status in the Indian higher education system. The report urges to include them in the same strata as the other degrees and break this barrier for the sake of development.

Noticeably enough, the report encourages private initiatives in establishing institutes, but also reminds a word of caution. It expresses its worries that ungoverned liberalization to the private providers could result negative, as many of the educational service providers do not have the experience of the responsibilities. "It is also important that private initiatives in the field of higher education are not driven by the sole motive of profit. They should not confine themselves only to 'commercially viable' sectors of education, such as management, accountancy and medicine etc. but should also encompass areas of social and natural sciences by establishing comprehensive universities" (Yash Pal Committee Report, 2009: 35). The same line of thought can be found in case of networking with foreign universities. It recommends a system of strong governance, which regulates the aforesaid networking for profit-making purposes only.

> Profit, however, cannot be the sole motive of establishing a private higher education institutes and while the state cannot walk away from its responsibilities of financing higher education, imaginative ways will have to be devised to find the source of funds (Yash Pal Committee Report, 2009)

The report accepts the fact that there are those who cannot pay for their higher education but also there are those, who can afford. It, then suggests a mix system where scholarships and bank loans will back-up those who cannot pay. It can be considered as an effective way to manage the human resources, especially looking at the massive number of youth in India. The report clearly mentions that to make all skilled and competitive, it is part of the government's inclusive policy to an inclusive approach. However, there are further contradictions, as Tilak (2011) mentions-

> Quite paradoxically, government aims at realizing the promised expansion of higher education with the active involvement of private sector and through

> various modes of public-private partnership. These strategies seem to be conflicting with the goals of inclusive growth in higher education (Tilak, 2011:40)

Nevertheless, throughout the Yashpal Committee report, it goes into different trajectories of higher education and contributes with its analysis and suggestions. One of the most significant aspect is its suggestion to create an apex body of higher education, to be called as 'The National Commission for Higher Education and Research' (NCHER). The NCHER would be the only one centralized body regarding the higher education of the nation, subsuming all the existing bodies such as UGC, AICTE etc. According to the report, this centralized body would help to make the higher education institutions to progress faster, ensures autonomy, accountability and less bureaucratic delays. It would also work as a catalyst for reforms and helps to connects with the industry and other economic sectors. This is similar to the suggestion by the XIth planning commission to bring the higher education authorities under one umbrella organization (in that case, XIth plan suggests UGC). The same trend of making the higher education as homogeneous as possible seems to be reflected here as well, but in a more revolutionary way by proposing a completely new organization. Interestingly enough, the proposed NCHER has not yet been formed and the bill is still in the parliament (as of 17 December, 2012).

It can be seen by reviewing the Yash Pal Committee report that it somewhat echoes the targets set by the XIth Plan, and in some cases follows the NKC's recommendations. The report however, tries to balance between the market orientation and welfare orientations by counter acting against the mushrooming of private institutes, foreign tie-ups and so on and by promoting bank loans and scholarships for many. However, in India, like in many other countries, bank loans are available based on some kinds of mortgage and for poor Indian's living below or near the poverty line, this seems to be very difficult to avail the opportunity in reality. The presence of these dilemmas can be found in almost all the major documents. Nevertheless, it seems that these policies and plans are pro-change. This trend can be followed in the discussion of the latest report, the XIIth plan approach paper. After the discussion of the report, the study attempts to discuss some of the major issues in its third and final section of this chapter.

Twelfth Five Year Plan, (2012-2017) [draft][52]-

The latest Twelfth Plan, (draft paper) makes it quite clear from the very beginning that the present needs are going to direct the future pathways for higher education in India. Skills and competences needed for the present era are going to take the leading positions in providing India an edge for economic development. The draft paper recognizes that "Higher education is also essential to build a workforce capable of underpinning a modern, competitive economy" (Government of India, 2013). Therefore, the focus during the Twelfth Plan period would be to create effective human resources. In addition, the paper brings up the concept of a 'meta-university', which aims at collaborative learning that redefines knowledge-creation and knowledge sharing in the twenty-first century.

[52] The final version is not yet available. Only the draft version is published, as of 1 May 2013.

These, at a glance, seem as clear consequences of the changes in the concept of LLL. However, in depth analysis explores the issue critically.

The policy propositions made during the XIth plan and in the Yash Pal committee report are echoed here as well. Increased importance is placed on vocational education, mobility, flexibility, inclusiveness and employability. Reforms are promised in the methods of evaluation, accreditation and so on. Moreover, it clearly mentions the importance to go beyond the skills of acquiring '3Rs' and proposes the **'4Cs'**, which stands for '*critical thinking, communication, collaboration and creativity*'. Along with it, special emphasis is given on the communication skills in 'English'. The report also mentions the importance of innovative public-private-partnerships (PPP) and an effective policy to manage the private institutions. It also stresses on the use of ICT and technology enabled learning. However, the report also emphasizes on the issue of equity and access of higher education and claims to take an inclusive approach for the development of higher education for the nation.

It is clear that the Twelfth Plan wants to change several key elements of higher education and that, in turn changes the directions. Previously, where higher education was considered as a mode of gaining wisdom and viewed as a social sector, it is now increasingly becoming a 'global enterprise' (Government of India, 2011: 103). Therefore, embracing internationalization for optimizing opportunities is welcomed by the policies as it seems needed to tap its resources and create a pool of graduates with internationally competitive skills and competences. The bull's-eye here seems to be a global superpower among the emerging market economies and hence, the report clearly points out the need to build a robust higher education system, which could sustain the rapid economic growth, promote international competitiveness, and while at the same time meet the rising expectations of the young enterprising Indians (Government of India, 2011: 103).

From the above report, it seems clear that the policy wants to aim at the economic development and sees its opportunity by giving higher education a more specific direction. However, it does not neglect the issue of equity either. However, this is the draft paper and the main document is yet to be published. It will then be possible to get a better insight of the different aspects of the policy. Nevertheless, this initial policy report shows a direction, which helps to analyze the issue better.

Conclusion

After the discussion of several issues of Indian higher education, roughly, it seems possible to distinguish some common elements between higher education and the previous discussion of LLL. The element of 'change' or 'urge for up gradation' is very much present and at a glance, it seems that higher education in India is more prone to change than that of the traditional dimension of LLL. The next element comes with a question. Why change? This is partly answered in the discussion of LLL. However, the discussion of the consequences of the dimensions of LLL on the Indian higher education policy may reveal a deeper and focused understanding about the whole issue.

The next element is perhaps the issue of expansion, which is also an omnipresent issue in both the discussions of LLL and higher education. It can be seen that, like that of the LLL, there are different layers and segments of expansions in the higher education domain. The expansion of institutes, subjects of study, vocational subjects, higher educational service providers and expansion of skills and competences are some of the main focus areas there. Along with these, the issues of disparity and inequity are also present coupled with some of the issues, which are constantly debated (e.g. caste based reservation).

These major changes in the policy direction however raise some of the basic question. Why is there an increased importance of the market economy? Or why has higher education now become a 'global enterprise'? Why is India opting for pro-globalized-change in higher education in spite of having problems related to the entire educational development? Why are these changes taking place? Who are influencing these changes and who are getting benefits? Who else are left behind? There are, literally, numerous possibilities of investigating these interconnected issues from various vantage points. This research however, takes an analytical stance and uses Jarvis's (2007, 2008) and Bhola's (2003) theories and Rizvi and Lingard's (2010) scholarly works (among others) to analyze some of the main issues, which are related with the consequences of the changing dimensions of LLL on the recent Indian higher education policies.

The study therefore, is more focused towards the issue of higher education and more specifically on higher education policy in India. Nonetheless, the issue is complex as many stakeholders are involved, and the complexity has significantly increased due to the immense effect of globalization and global economy. All these issues are also related with the power structure, and this makes the situation even more complex as the power structure is present in different layers of the society and they actively modify, interact and influence each other. This research therefore considers this obvious complexities into account and delimits into the discussion of national level policies and does not go further into smaller (regional and local) policy analysis. However, for the sake of the analysis, it takes examples and discusses issues, which might be of regional levels. These help to explore the main issue in detail and provide better analytical insights.

[This page is intentionally left blank]

chapter

11

Factors Influencing the Renewing Dimension of LLL on the Recent Higher Education in India

Chapter 11

Factors Influencing the Renewing Dimension of LLL on the Recent Higher Education in India

Introduction

This chapter is the one of the two main analytical chapters of the part of the study (higher education) and together, these two consecutive chapters discuss about the influence of the changing dimensions of lifelong learning (LLL) on the recent national level higher education policies in India. Hence, it is important to consider these two chapters (11 and 12) as sections of a unified analysis.

In the previous chapters, the present status and the development of the Indian higher education policy are studied. They show considerable amount of assortment in terms of prioritizing, financing higher education of the country over time. However, recent policy trends clearly show that the focus is now on higher education. The urge to change the system in spite of having several problems and drawbacks are omnipresent in recent policies and related documents. The aim, at least what is stated in the policy level, is clear though; to improve the higher education of the country to help achieving the target of making India a 'knowledge society'. Nonetheless, it is worth remembering that in India the policies have to cater various needs of the diverse country, and has to cope up with the global changes simultaneously. These make the situation complex.

The following two chapters therefore try to analyze the complexities associated with the higher education of India. It analyzes how the global neo-liberal forces on the one hand and the welfare-oriented forces on the other are also influencing the higher education domain and create tensions and conflicts of interests; giving it a changed roadmap. To explore this issue in detail based on the previous discussion and analysis, these chapters tries to answer the three following questions.

How is the changing dimension of LLL influencing the recent higher education policies?

What are the major consequences?

What do they mean for India? Or in other words, what are the significance of the influence of the consequences of the changing dimensions of LLL on the changing higher education policies (recent) in India?

The chapters are helpful to explore the linkages between the changing dimensions of LLL and the changing higher education policies. In addition, they try to explore the significance of the influence, which in turn help to understand the situation better and possibly raise more issues for future studies. In addition, the chapters wrap the whole

discussion, provide the final findings and open the discussion for its very last chapter, the general conclusion. Overall, the main aim of these chapters is to contribute in the field of knowledge in relation to Indian dimensions of LLL its consequences on the national higher education policies.

To do a systematic analysis, it is firstly divided into two separate chapters for better understanding of the issues discussed. This specific chapter (chapter 11) is divided into the following parts. The first part draws the focal points from the previous chapter. This helps to set the platform to begin the discussion with proper continuation. In the next section, it takes the same factors of analysis as it did in the analysis of the dimensions of LLL in India. Hence, it analyzes four factors, namely economy, ICT, demography and language and discusses their influence on the recent national higher education scenario.

Here, it recognizes that there are possibly other equally relevant issues in this regard. Therefore, although outside the major focus of this study, it highlights some of the issues, which are capable of influencing the Indian higher educational domain up to a great extent. Hence, after the discussion of the four selected factors, it includes a separate sub section titled- 'other critical factors', where some of the major issues are mentioned and discussed briefly. Later, they are used as reference in the later chapters.

After the first level of analysis, it briefly wraps of the discussion to proceed to the next chapter for the second and final level of analysis. The next chapter (chapter 12) further analyzes the issue form different levels, namely, global, international and national as it did in the previous discussion of LLL. This provides the necessary association with the previous analysis and works as a building block on the base analysis done on LLL. Finally, it analyzes the findings from the entire study to try to find out the main research objectives and answer the questions. The steps are discussed in detail in the concerned chapter. However, overall the chapters continue to follow the similar patterns of analysis that of LLL.

The reason to take the same factors for analysis (economy, ICT, demography and language), used in the discussion of the dimensions of LLL, is to maintain a strong relation between what has been analyzed previously (discussion of LLL) and to show that the factors, which are relevant to determine the dimensions of LLL are also relevant here. Like the previous analysis, it tries to show the existing dilemmas, contradictions and tensions associated with each factor. Therefore, depending on the need, it tries to show it in different sections (e.g. factor supporting or opposing to the global dimensions), similar to the factor analysis done in the LLL section. Here it is perhaps important to mention that, although the same factors have been chosen to discuss LLL and higher education, they do not necessarily influence the dimensions in the same way. Therefore, the sub-headings of this section (analysis of higher education) are slightly different than that of the previous one (of LLL). To examine critically, it takes the help of the scholarly works of many educational analysts like Altbach (2006, 2003), Tilak (1999, 2003, 2004, 2006, 2011, 2012), Agarwal (2009), Bhushan (2009) among others. It extensively uses the theoretical models provided by Jarvis (2007, 2008) and implicitly and explicitly (depends on the need) asks the questions of policy analysis raised by Bhola (2006). It also uses the responses from the interviews to explore the issues better.

The study here uses the cumulative analysis of the interviews as well as the individual responses, depending on the need of the analysis.

To begin with, the chapter starts by recapping the main findings from the two previous chapters.

Recap

In terms of the overall educational development, "India started almost from scratch" (Tilak, 2004: 2159) in its post-independence period. Initially, the immediate need was to get rid of the colonial dependency as much as possible and to make the education system a self-sufficient one. This need for self-sufficiency was conveyed through the urge of increasing the productivity of the country and national integration. Later on (during the NPE 1968), a lack of investment on higher education could be found, which continued for long and Indian higher education continued to receive poor attention. This trend did not change much even soon after the economic restructuring in early 90s. However, it took a rather 'sudden' change only recently (Tilak, 2012: 37). However, since 90s, the focus of higher education shifted from national integration to development in science and technology, human resource development and skills up gradation, which, in recent years covers the most of the higher education policy documents (e.g. the Xth XIth and XIIth five year plans). The increased importance on the market economy came recently, along with the idea of the knowledge society, privatization, public-private partnerships, pro-market solutions followed by the concept of knowledge economy and LLL. The major emphasis is now on 4Cs (XIIth five year plan), namely critical thinking, communication skills, collaboration in changing circumstances and creativity. The XIIth plan (approach paper) also specifically points out that higher education is now a global enterprise.

These major changes, popularized in the past decade have changed the landscape of the Indian higher education, which is the major issue of analysis here, in this study. How these factors are in turn, influencing the government to alter its system, are discussed in the next main section after highlighting the issues related with the four selected factors (economy, demography, ICT and language). Only then, it would be possible to get a complete picture to analyze it further. The study, therefore, goes straight into the discussion using the factor analysis used in the discussion of the changing dimension of LLL earlier.

Factors influencing the changing dimensions of LLL, influencing the changing higher education policies

The major factors influencing the changing dimensions of LLL are economy, ICT, demography and Language. It is shown in the analysis that these factors influence by either supporting the global or the traditional dimensions of LLL in India. In the discussion of the changes related to the recent higher education policies, it seems that here also these opposing forces and/or dilemmas are very much present. The previous discussions regarding higher education in India indicate towards these factors. However, only in depth analysis could reveal the actual levels of dichotomies present in different layers. By acknowledging the presence of associated complexities, the following

sections attempts to analyze 'economy' as one of the main factor for changing the higher educational scenarios in general and higher education scenarios in India in particular.

Economy as a changing agent of the recent higher education policy in India-

It is, perhaps, not so difficult to understand that economy has an immense influence on changing the educational landscape of a country, especially in the age of globalization. In this sense, India is not an exception, especially when India is opening up to the global economy and embraces the dream to become the knowledge society. However, it perhaps needs rigorous studies to go deeper to know why and how economy is influencing different sectors of education diversely in varied contexts. In the discussion of the dimensions of LLL, we have seen that for a growing economy like India, educational reform becomes a next step to the new open economic policy, and the integration between the education sectors with the labor market and industry are getting stronger than ever (see chapter 7). This seems even more evident in case of the recent changes in the higher education domain in India. However, similarly, what we have also observed in the discussion of LLL, that along with the picture of a globalizing, economically developed India, there is a contrasting side to it. Still, India's enrolment scenario in higher education is not satisfactory. Moreover, education is becoming ever more expensive for the millions of poor in India, especially due to increased privatizations and so forth. There are several other contradicting features in Indian educational scenarios related with economy, which are directly and/or indirectly effecting the recent changes in the higher educational domain. Hence, like in the discussion of the LLL section, the dilemmas and tensions are also playing a major role in shaping and reshaping the higher educational landscape of India. The following paragraphs try to explore these issues from a critical standpoint.

Economy as a supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education in India

"We are now in a new era of power and influence. Politics and ideology have been taken a subordinate role to profits and market-driven politics" (Altbach, 2006:126). This observation about the changing economy and society seems relevant for India as well, as the nation is moving forward and entering the global market economy leaving its old economic practices, which were largely closed and resistant to large-scale foreign investments. "Now, in this era of market economy, education is a part of the agenda of WTO, that also means education is a commodity, which can be purchased or sold" (Rajesh, 2012[53]). This means, within the educational market, there are different sub-markets (secondary education, higher education, vocational education etc.) based on the value of the different educational sectors, similar to that of the other economic sectors. This claim validates itself as, according to the observations of Altbach (2006) and Tilak (2004, 2012) (among many) multinational organizations and some governments, mostly from developed countries, but also from developing countries (e.g. India, according to Tilak, 2012) are seeking to integrate higher education into the legal structure of world trade through WTO. Given this market centrality to education, higher education has

[53] Personal interview

assumed a higher profile both within countries and internationally, because of its increasingly important role in preparing human resource for the new knowledge economy (Altbach, 1998).

It also indicates how important the educational sector has become to the market, to individual aspiring countries and in the contemporary world (Altbach, 2002, Knight, 2002). Here, it is perhaps worth remembering that the economic importance of higher education was once ignored by the Indian policy makers by saying that "the unmet demand for higher education is not considered economically viable" (Government of India, 1994), which was after the economic restructuring in 1992. It perhaps indicates how the recent changes in economy to its market predominant avatar initiates changing the perception of a government from perceiving higher education as a common good to higher education as an important tool to pursue the knowledge economy. It also shows the pace in which changes are taking place in recent times. According to Shamsu (2012)[54], 2004-05 was the time, when the major wave of change started influencing India, but form 2000, it was possible to find the clues for the coming changes. Nevertheless, it is perhaps not enough to establish the government's claim that higher education has increasingly becoming a 'global enterprise'. To understand it fully, and in the context of India, it is necessary to unfold the layers of analysis further, related to the ongoing economic changes and their linkages with higher education.

The change of perception about higher education is followed by many other interlinked changes. Since knowledge is a product and higher education brings the students closest to be ready for the knowledge economy (Tilak, 2012) compare that of the primary or secondary education, it is in great demand among the aspiring Indians. However, with the existing public higher education facilities, it is impossible to cater to the massive number of students India have. For the economy and to the government it brings two major implications. First, since higher education is a commodity, it can be sold to the aspiring students, who are, by modern definitions, the customers of that commodity. Secondly, and rather more importantly, by allowing students to turn into customers, a new door opened in front of the private corporations to establish educational institutes to market their services. This again has several implications. In general, it opens up another economic ground for the market to thrive, one-step before the fully developed knowledge economy. Form the government's perspective, now it does not have to invest heavily on the higher education, as it would have been the case in the absence of the private higher educational service providers. Moreover, since there are multiple service providers and of various kinds, the government is less responsible, in case there is a negative impact on any educational courses, future career opportunities and so on. Furthermore, the long aspirated goal to increase the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) in higher education will have the possibility to go up, with lesser government efforts. "Perhaps, it is also realized that sustaining a recently realized high rates of economic growth in a globalized world, requires a strong and well-distributed higher education system" (Tilak, 2012: 37). From a mere theoretical perspective, it can be argued that since the economy is largely in the hand of the market, the laws of checks and balance,

[54] Personal interview

demands and supply can also take care of its own and determine the pathways for higher education in near future. However, in a reality, market cannot perform without the assistance of the government since government makes the laws, provide legal stability and are in charge of the rules and regulations (Jarvis, 2007, 2008). Therefore, clearly, market needs the government to function, even if it considered as globalized or termed as free market. How the government gets influence and makes new adjustments, is discussed later. However, we need to look more closely at several areas in which commercialization, internationalization and globalization opportunities have arisen and question the old and well established traditions of higher education systems.

The supremacy of the market over the traditional public higher education, which was a common good, can be understood by looking at the increased number of private institutions in India, in recent times. There is a scrupulous discussion about it on the previous chapter (chapter 10). However, a quick review indicates that in professional higher education sectors (e.g. engineering, medical, nursing, business administration, pharmaceuticals, IT and so on) the number of private institutions increased many fold and in almost all sectors, they have overtrumped that of the public sector by large numbers. "On the other hand, the demand for the conventional courses has tapered off" (Jayram, 2006: 760). Most of these private insititutions are for profit in practice (Jairam, 2006). These private educational institutions charge tuition fees and sometimes, they are much more than that of their public counterparts, where the education is highly subsidized. This issue of tuition fees is discussed later as it is both directly and indirectly linked with LLL and higher education policies in India. Here, it is to recognize that, although the increased numbers of private institutions can show something important on the dominance of the market and reducing public share in the higher educational arena, it is certainly not enough to understand the complexities of the changing discourse of the higher education in India, especially in the age of globalization. Interestingly, it opens up several other sides which are relevant and worth discussing.

The increased number of higher education institutes did not happen in vacuum. There are demands of versatile courses, specialized disciplines and upgraded teaching learning to cope with the global changes and for the knowledge economy. This demand of creativity, innovation and flexibility was difficult to meet by the largely outdated, and rigid public system (Agarwal, 2009, Tilak 2004, 2006, 2011, 2012, Jayram, 2006, Altbach 2006). As a result, "too many of our universities are producing graduates in subjects that are not required by the changing job market, and the quality is also not what it should be" (Planning Commission, 2013a:11). Moreover, the numbers of public universities with professional courses are too few in response to the overwhelming demands. Therefore, in this sense, the increased importance of knowledge economy, intertwined with the lack of public higher educational infrastructure helped the market of higher education to thrive in India. This, in turn, helped the private higher education to mushroom and target the professional courses over others based on their market values. This study, however, recognizes the fact that this sudden upsurge of demand for professional education, market forces and at the same time the lack of public infrastructure have helped (and perhaps still helping) the private sector to grow uncontrolled in some cases and often there are wrong practices for mere economic profit. Nevertheless, these cannot

deny the fact that market forces and the increased demand for a knowledge economy have injected the sense to change the existing higher educational practices. Moreover, in the midst of debates over the issues of privatization of higher education and their adverse effects on the Indian society, some private institutes have earned a niche for themselves (Jayram, 2006: 756-761).

At this point, this study puts aside the debate and controversies (over the ethics, implications on social justice, reduction of social inequalities and lack of promotion possibilities, due to social differences) of marketization of higher education for some time, and concentrates on the influence of economy (both global and national) on the changing landscape of higher education in India. It starts with the issue of change in the age of knowledge economy. In the previous paragraph, it initiates the argument about the drive for the changes the marketization has brought into. More in-depth study in the same line, would reveal that the new age higher educational institutes (mostly private) are extremely sensitive to the variety of knowledge and skills demanded by the changing knowledge economy. They are also flexible about what they offer and how they offer. In fact, "it is important to note that in spite of (or reasonably because of) the fact that they are outside the orbit of the traditional university system, such institutions of higher education have not only survived, but even thrived" (Jayram, 2006:760).

This emergence of marketplace in national higher educational arena, coupled with the impact of globalization started to exhibit variety of educational initiatives. Starting form flexible, demand oriented programs to program developed together with industry. Often, these institutions provide the opportunity to gain work experience (internships) and/or provide campus recruitment facilities where students are given the opportunities to meet the employer to be hired. These can also be termed as advertising strategies, however, students, irrespective of their religion; castes, economic status etc. prefer to enroll in institutions, which provide better employment opportunities. Probably that is why, looking at this issue, Shamshu, joint advisor of the Planning Commission of India (PCI), says, "it is ultimately boiling down to economics, just economics." (Shamshu, 2012[55]).

In addition to these, multinationalization is thriving in the form of twinning programs (Altbach 2006, Jayram 2006), inter university linkages, academic exchange and so on. "Such international educational collaboration is not, however, confined to professional education" (Jayram, 2006:763). There are several types of international collaboration as well, like the one between two institutions, or the one between groups of institutions (consortiums). However, there are other types, which involve the institutions with governments of different countries and sometimes, transnational governments as well. For example, the Erasmus Mundus Action 2 – Strand 1 – Partnership program (previously, the Erasmus Mundus External Cooperation Window) is a leading program to connect universities of South Asia with European universities, increase student and academic exchange in the higher education arena. In this networking event, India has a

special place, termed as Lot-13 under the EURINDIA program (SASNET, 2011). The Association of Indian Universities (AIU) has increased their effort to improve collaboration among universities and other international networks, to keep pace with the globalization and internationalization of higher education (AIU, 2013).

These collaborations help improving international mobility for students, academics and as Altbach (2006) shows, it also introduces to a global marketplaces for students and scholars. The academic flow is mainly from developing countries to developed countries and most of the international students pay for their own studies, and producing significant income for the host countries (Altbach, 2006:128). Many of these students never come back to their countries, or do not come back soon after their studies, which are associated with the issue of permanent or temporary 'brain drain'. According to a survey, between 2000 and 2009, the number of Indian students in foreign countries increased by 256% or three and half fold. The report also says that there is a steady rise of 7% Indians travelling overseas for degrees, which shows that there has been a steady increase of demand for foreign higher education in India (Mukherjee & Chanda, 2012:14), which also make India a key marketplace. For almost a decade (2001-02 to 2008-09), India held the leading place of origin for international students' in the US. In 2011-12, Indian ranks second, after China, sending more than one hundred thousand students to the US alone (Institute of International Education, 2013) of which, more than 60% students are enrolled in science, engineering and mathematics. UK and Australia are not far behind either and the European countries (mainly in Germany, France and now some Scandinavian countries) are catching up quickly (UNESCO, 2012 in Mukherjee & Chanda, 2012:14-15). However, it is noteworthy that Indian students prefer mostly English-speaking countries (and/or courses) as their destinations, which relates this issue with the issue of language. Thus, this is further analyzed in the 'language' section of this chapter. Nevertheless, this issue of migration of students opens up several possibilities. Apart from highlighting the demand for higher education in India, it shows the potential of fee-paying students in the country and hence a possibility of a profitable marketplace of higher education in India. However, to tap to these resources, it needs excellent higher education institutions. This drive to enhance quality and quantity coupled with the mushrooming of private higher education institutions are all prominent signs of this trend.

Interestingly, there is a counter trend as well. Foreigners are increasingly coming to India for studying (Shields & Edwards, 2010: 235). Indian universities are increasingly becoming important in providing higher education at a fraction of the cost to that of the West. However, there seems a hierarchy, as the incoming students are less from USA, UK and EU countries and more from developing countries (mostly from South and South-East Asian, and African countries). Nevertheless, international student migration has kindled academic exchange, better collaboration between Indian and foreign universities, joint programs, consortiums and cultural exchanges. These are common in European countries, or between Europe and USA. However, this new dynamics due to the improved economic linkages, ICT, popularity of English as lingua franca etc. are new in Indian higher education domain. It is important to note that some public universities also attract many foreign students. For instance, Central universities like the Jawaharlal

Nehru University (JNU), among others, are increasingly facilitating international student exchange. Over the years, students from not only neighboring countries like Nepal and Bhutan, but also students form African and European countries are now coming for short and long-term courses. There are now around 400 international students from 50 countries in JNU ((JNU, 2013).

Here, it seems also important to note that along with students, the international flow of highly educated academics form India has also increased in recent years. Study shows that a significant 'pull' factor is salaries and scholarships and the increased facilities provided by the host countries. On the contrary, limited academic freedom in their own countries, restrictions, favoritism and corruptions in academic appointments and in promotions work as 'push' factors (Altbach, 2003:1-22). Although Altbach, does not mention these factors as especially applicable for India, but in general for developing countries. However, several other studies related to Indian higher education indicates towards similar trends (e.g. Agarwal, 2011; Jayram, 2006). The main point here is that, with the increase in the 'pull' factors and marginally improved (or unchanged in many cases) 'push' factors, there is a huge challenge in front of India to retain its teachers and talents in the country. However, there is a counter trend as well. Due to the economic development, increased pay scales of Indian academics (see recent pay commission's reports, Govt. of India) and development in modern ICTs; many academics now keep in close contact with India. They either come back to India permanently and/or accept visiting professorships (Altbach, 2006: 130). These new dynamics are directly and/or indirectly influenced by economy and various other factors, which are constantly redefining the traditional boundaries of higher education in the country and so of its policies.

So far, it can be observed that the emergence of market economy is helping to change the overall higher education up to a great extent. To emphasize on this recent phenomenon of more linkages between economy and higher education sectors at various levels, Shamsu, during the interview, mentions that-

> Education is one of the sectors, which is part of the whole economy, and you cannot have changes taking place in the economy and the education system not being able to adapt to those changing needs. Now for a substantial period of time there has been an irrelevance between what education was imparting to the students and what the economy was actually expecting from those successful students who came out. This gap is now being increasingly bridged (Shamsu, 2012).

The long haul demand from the economy, coupled with the increased importance and demands of higher education, with penetrating privatization, which considers higher education as a profitable goods increased its value enormously in recent times. At the same time, increased internationalization and multinationalization helped increased mobility and networking at a global level. These features of the 21st century higher education in India could possibly be described as increased influence of globalization, as very similar trends can be found in many developing countries (and some features in some of the developed countries as well) worldwide. However, to

understand why it is influenced by the dimensions of LLL, it seems that we need to go even deeper and look into the area of the political adjustments, changes in policy orientations, direct linkages with the new dimensions of LLL and relate them with the discussion done so far. However, before going into this discussion, it is also important to see the other sides of the economic influences on higher education in India. It is somewhat similar to the type of discussion of factors influencing LLL, where it can be seen that there are two sides of one factor, often supporting or opposing the global dimensions of LLL. Therefore, the section below examines the other side of the economic influence on Indian higher education, which are not so promising for various reasons.

Economy as a less-supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education-

It could be seen in the discussion of LLL that often, the same factor has relatively different and sometimes contradicting consequences. In the higher education sector, as an important part of the overall LLL domain, it retains its genetic resemblance in its characteristics. This sub-section discusses these in detail.

The recent economic receptiveness towards market raises several questions. Since the market depends on the laws of economics; then who would take care of those who do not have the economic capabilities to avail the services provided by the market economies? This includes education in general and higher education in particular, especially looking at the issue of mounting demands and cost of higher education in India. At this point, if it is assumed that the state would take care of the economically poor once, then it also seems true that "the cost and risks are shared by the public and the profits by the private partners" (Tilak, 2012:39). Hence, there seems a dilemma related to how to make sure that there is a balance between selecting student based on merit and on paying capacity, especially in the private higher educational institutes. There are, however, several solutions proposed and bills are placed in the parliaments. However, still, there is no clear and justifiable guideline on finding a suitable solution. However, irrespective of the regulations, new universities are being formed and some are doing well along with many below quality institutes.

In the advent of increasing cost of availing higher education, these are some of the relevant dilemmas to a country, where the dream is to take the level of GER form 17.9 (2011-12, estimated[56]) to 25.2 (by 2016-17[57]) by the end of the twelfth plan period. This constitutes a total increase of 10 million more students in higher education alone, let alone even more aspirants for it. According to the projections of the XIIth Planning Commission, most of these students will be enrolled in private higher education systems (Planning Commission, 2013). However, at the same time, none can forget that the poverty level in India, which is still high and many hundreds of millions still cannot pay for their general education. It is perhaps a distant dream for them to afford the expensive private higher education.

[56] According to the estimates by the Planning Commission, Govt.of India, mentioned in the draft of the Twelfth plan 2012-217. P. 96. Depending on the way of measurement it can vary in other reports.
[57] Same as the above footnote.

In addition to the issue of diversity in economic abilities to avail higher education in an increasingly privatized environment, there is another issue related to the influence of the market economy to higher education. It is seen in the previous sub-section that the demands of the types of courses are rapidly changing and leaning towards professional one leaving the non-professional one aside. This raises two important questions. First, what would happen to the existing students in terms of their usability in the market, since still a massive number of people study general courses in spite of its lowering demands[ii]? Secondly, would the higher education be available mainly to the people who can pay, since the professional higher education is largely (or going to be) dominated by the private providers? As per the current trend[58], the fees are high and most of these providers do not run on welfare ideologies and hence do not provide enough subsidies to considerable numbers of economically disadvantageous students. Hence, there seems certainly a high risk of increased inequality, based on purchasing power of higher educational services.

Another, debatable issue is related to this is the increasing and unidirectional dependency on market economy. As described in the analysis of LLL, that this lack of diversity and 'one-worldness' championed by the market mechanism is often termed as the TINA (There Is No Alternative). This trend seems even more dominant in the domain of higher education as Altbach (2006) shows that-

> We are now in a new era of power and influence. Politics and ideology have taken a subordinate role to profits and market-driven policies. Now, multinational corporations, media conglomerates and even a few leading universities can be seen as the new-neocolonists seeking to dominate not for ideological or political reasons, but rather for commercial gain (Altbach 2006:126).

Although, these, rather strong observations by Altbach (2006) may not be fully applicable for India as "the markets in developing countries like India are 'incomplete' and 'imperfect' (Tilak 2004: 2164), but they certainly offer great incentives to re-examine the issue in Indian context in the age of globalization.

Indian scenario of higher education is largely dependent on its overall educational development. It is seen in the discussion of LLL, that the overall elementary education rate is not satisfactory yet, especially with a large numbers of dropouts. India still has the highest number of illiterates and several other problems like lack of awareness about education is still prominent in many parts of the country. A large portion of population is still engaged in farming in a rather rudimentary fashion[59]. In addition, the secondary economic sector could not be fully developed, before India plunged into its economic restructuring and welcomed the market economic principles. In this socio-political and economic situation, it is perhaps not difficult to understand that the society is highly diverse and unequal in many ways. Introducing market principles in higher education, which is supposed to cater this population, in which a majority of them are young

[58] According to the Draft of the Twelfth Five year plan "The bulk of growth would be in the private institutions" (Planning Commission, Govt. of India, 2012).

[59] Using rudimentary machinery, and manual power, unlike the farming sector in developed countries, where it is machine dependent and market oriented.

students aspiring to improve their life conditions up to a great extent, comes with its own downsides. On the one hand, private institutes are flexible, demand oriented while public institutes are largely traditional, extremely rigid and resistant to change (Jayram, 2006:765). On the other hand, however, private institutions charges large sums of money, whereas students has to pay nominal fees in a public setup. This, in many cases, means that even though all are aspirant, only those who are able to afford the flexible, demand driven private institutes are likely to have the benefits of the knowledge economy and others, who enrolled in the public institutes would have to deal with the bureaucracy, rigidity and conventional courses because they are less able to pay. The presence of this trend could also be seen in the final discussion of LLL. This divide then seems destined to grow wider. However, there are other factors involved and are more complex, indeed.

The risk of commercializing higher education, however not limited to its public-private debate or high fee structures only. It has its own risks of considering higher education (or in many cases education as a whole) as business enterprises, as Bok (2005) explains. The differences lie at a very basic level of the modus operandi. Normally, an enterprise operate thorough its cost-analysis among many, like change in stock price, cost per unit of production, inflation, changing market demand in small intervals etc. All of these are tangible and provide concrete results, and in turn, guide the organization to assess and progress. However, universities are far less able to measure, in absolute tangible terms, the value of its research output, learning outcome, efficiency of their teachers etc. Moreover, an organization periodically review its results (often weekly) based on short-term results obtained from the market. It helps to make necessary changes to reduce cost, increase productivity, correct mistakes and help the organization to learn constantly and stay flexible. On the contrary, these short-term measures are difficult to perform in a university system. It often takes longer (a semester or two in general) to evaluate and make necessary incremental changes. Moreover, there are middle and long-term results associated with higher education, which could take a very long time to measure. Therefore, “a simple cost-benefit analysis will often fail to yield clear answers about how universities should respond to tempting commercial opportunities” (Bok, 2005: 33) However, quality assurance and quality improvement processes do exist in the universities, although they are very limited. Often, universities, or a group of universities perform some standardize tests; quantitative measures etc to evaluate them. However, they are too crude to make sound prompt decisions (Bok, 2005: 20-34). At policy level, government follows the market trends and tries to make changes in its education policies to adjust with the changing demands, increase human resource in certain areas and so on. To do that, it often increases grants, focuses on certain areas of higher education (e.g. business courses), encourage private providers to collaborate, which, cumulatively influences what students should be learning. However, this gap (and limitations) of precise measures also cumulates form institutional level to the government level and could produce undesirable result. Following market principles with its own flaws could result in vague decisions, which could make the future of the learners uncertain and sometimes puts the future of the higher educational institutions in danger.

In practice, this over emphasis on cost-benefit model could also result in poor quality private higher educational institutes and could create trouble even for the students who are able to pay. Recently, according to the ASSOCHAM (Associated Chambers of Commerce and Industry of India) paper, more than 180 Business-schools have already been closed down in 2012 in the major cities in India, another 160 are expected to close this year and many more are struggling for survival. The major reasons are, according to the secretary general of ASSOCHAM, are mushrooming of several business schools across the country based on a business model to earn money, with no quality control, improper infrastructure, less competent faculty and high fee structures compared to the service provided. Most of these schools offer their courses based on the provision of campus interviews and expected salary packages their students can get after the completion of the study. They often lack from practical skills needed. The report continues to say, that the MBA (Masters of Business Administration) seats in India grew almost four-fold in last five years from about 95000 students in 2006-07 to a whopping 360000[60] in 2011-12, at a compounded annual growth rate of 30%. Unfortunately, the job opportunities for MBAs has not grown that much, which was build based on the 9-10 % economic growth rate (ASSOCHAM, 2013). The report also adds that nowadays students are more concerned about the placement opportunities, salary statistics and discount offers, and not much concerned about the actual quality of education, which has spoiled the entire education system (Secretary General, ASSOCHAM, 2013). However, Bok (2005: 167) counter argues the idea championed in the modern economic era of considering students as responsible buyers of educational services, as Bok explains that students are not like experienced corporate leaders and are often less prepared to judge the real value (both in economic and other terms) of the course they intend to take. Nevertheless, the mismatch and underprepared nature of students and institutions are causing serious tensions, even if it is seen from a purely economic terms. These instances are perhaps also applicable for many other types of professional courses in India, where ambitious higher education with the dream of rapid economic growth, based on free market principles are trapped under some of its own flaws and puts the future of the learners (or customers of the services) in risk.

Looking at these issues of decreasing quality and perhaps addressing to the loopholes of operating higher education with market principles, all recent policies and related documents express their concerns. The Yashpal committee (2009) warned about this and now the XIth and XIIth plan (draft) express it somewhat clearly. The recent draft of the XIIth plan mentions-

> Our higher education institutions also suffer from problems of quality. […] Higher education policy has to be driven by three 'E's: expansion, equity and excellence. Of these, the third E, 'excellence', is the most difficult to achieve. (Planning Commission, 2013a: 11).

From the above paragraphs, it could apparently seem that "quality higher education can only be achieved by the public or private institutions with philanthropic principles and is not possible by the for-profit higher educational institutions" (Tilak, 2012: 39).

[60] According to the ASSOCHAM (2013) report. See- http://www.assocham.org/prels/shownews.php?id=3877

However, in spite of its risks, it does not seem that achieving quality higher education is limited only by operating with philanthropic principles, as Jayram (2006) observes that there are some private for-profit higher educational institutes, which have found a niche in the midst of many more. Market, here, can also teach some productive measures, which help to make the higher education more accountable (Bok, 2005).

Moreover, is it practically feasible for the government; to either change its policy of market principles to stop (or regulate in a different ways) the private higher educational institutions and, build enough philanthropic institutions (both private and public with optimum quality and flexibility) to support the colossal demand for higher education, to sustain in a market-dominated globalised world, while keeping the dream of becoming a knowledge superpower? From the discussion so far, it is perhaps difficult to provide the answer in definite 'yes' or 'no'. Nevertheless, it can certainly be said that the challenge in front of the government is not just to improve excellence, but also improving the other two 'E's (Expansion and equity) and aim for a knowledge society while staying within its major economic pathways of neo-liberalism in a competitive globalized world. In addition, the situation of tertiary education in past, largely dominated by the public system, could not yield much satisfactory results in terms of improving the overall quality with quantitative advancement while being contemporary and respond to the changes, leaving its ivory tower rituals. Moreover, analyzing the present scenarios, it strongly seems that 'globalization is here to stay' (Altbach, 2004, 2006; jayram, 2006) so as its counterparts like market capitalism and neo-liberalism.

These advantages and risks of the changes in the economy and its influence on the higher education sector correspond with the previous discussion on economy influencing LLL paradigm in India. The influences of neo liberalism, privatization, FDI, competition in a globalised world and even the economic recession helped to promote the new dimensions of LLL. It focuses on skills and competences developments and urges to bring the education more complimentary to the market needs. Very similar trends can be observed here in the discussion of economy in higher education as well. Moreover, the presence of dilemma and tension is also present here. The main reason is in India, a very large section is still agriculture dependent, and has huge unorganized sectors. Moreover, the improvement of the economically and educationally disadvantageous people demand primary development before focusing on the knowledge economy or such things, which requires high level of education and/or skill, comes with paying capacity for the educational services and several money related factors. In addition, neglecting the disadvantaged would increase the risks of exploding inequalities. Nevertheless, overall, a trend can be perceived, which is indicating the presence of a tendency to support both the haves and have-nots, while moving towards the knowledge economy, by clinching on to the neo-liberal principles. The analysis of the interview also supports the presence of the contrasting perspectives. Some of them mentioned that education, as one of the major sector, has to respond to these changes of economy. Higher education, to some, is responding by changing rapidly, but to some, the change is still gradual, with different pace at different levels. It is therefore, could possibly be found that interviewees increasingly links economy, globalization and education in an integrated chain.

Standing in this juncture of several major changes and associated challenges, it seems clear that the situation is complex than it ever was. Moreover, many interlinked factors are playing simultaneously and there are new one adding up frequently. Nevertheless, after discussing the major factors related to economy and higher education, it seems that one of the prime requirements is not only qualitative development of higher education, but also quantitative development of higher education - for all.

Since it is most likely impossible for the government alone to cater to both of these qualitative and quantitative developments, which are of very large scales, it requires a framework, which involves different stakeholders and various techniques. To provide quality higher education to many, the government, thus, encourages finding innovative solutions, using ICT, consider changing the traditional pattern of teaching and learning, among many (Planning Commission, 2007, 2012, 2013, NKC, 2008 etc.). Since many of these innovative solutions are targeted for the mass, unlike the elitist higher education of the past, and based on the of modern development of ICT, the following sections extends its discussion on higher education with ICT and demography to analyze the influence of the changing dimensions of LLL on the recent Indian higher education policies. It however, recognize that, like previous discussions, there could be tensions and dilemmas related. In fact, pointing out these tensions and dilemmas is one of the major aims of these sections so that the study can further analyze them based on the theories selected.

ICT as a changing agent of the recent higher education policy in India-

The immense improvement of ICT helped India to take steps in its way to achieve the economic development. We have seen in the discussion of the ICT and LLL that the recent growth of the economy is largely contributed by the ICT sectors. It is even penetrated in everyday life, and hence helping to foster informal and non-formal learning opportunities. However, at the same time, there are resistance to ICT, but interestingly; it is not like resisting neo-economic principles or privatization in education. It came more in the form of several dilemmas and associated problems while everyone welcomes ICT and recognizes its importance for the development of the society, which in turn changes the dimensions of the LLL in India. Here in this sub-section, some of these issues are discussed in the context of higher education in India, and focuses more on to the policy level. To analyze the issue, it follows a similar structure of discussing advantages and risks. It starts with how ICT supports the global dimensions of higher education of India and shows that the changes in the ICT have several beneficial influences on higher education, which helps it to change and become more globally oriented. However, unlike the developed West, all these changes are not equally suitable for developing countries like India, which is explained in the next sub-section where it is discussed, how ICT related changes are not helping Indian dimensions of LLL much and influence less to impart changes in the national higher educational domain.

ICT as a supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education in India-

> Information and communications technology composes another global force affecting higher education everywhere. The impact of ICT on higher education and on society in general is still unfolding, but without question, this aspect of the revolution is one of the more powerful influences on higher education. The impact of technology on science and scholarship, teaching and learning in traditional universities, the possibilities for distance education, and even the internal management of universities has been particularly profound (Altbach et. al., 2009: 3)

The study agrees to the above and adds that, ICT also influences research, learning and management of learning. ICT in higher education, mostly indicates towards modern technologies, such as computers, internet and so on. However, as mentioned in the discussion of LLL, that there are other ICT tools as well, such as radio, television, DVD etc. By combining the traditional and modern ICT tools, it can provide higher education a great lead by facilitating learning anytime and anywhere through distance education. Thus it decreases cost per student and therefore making higher education more affordable (Ozdemir & Abrevaya, 2007), and importantly that could increase enrolment. It can also enhance flexibilities of programs based on the changing demands (Oliver, 2002), and creating competition among institutions to provide better programs (Bok, 2005) and increasing LLL (Bok, 2005, Ozdemir & Abrevaya, 2007, Altbach, 2006 among many). According to Castells (2000, 2010) the elements of the revolution in higher education related to the improvement in ICT includes communication, storage and retrieval of knowledge. Traditional roles of libraries have largely changed from providing books and study materials in manual forms, to providing e-books, online journals, access to databases, websites other ICT based products and importantly, internet access (Hawkins & Battin, 1998). The study of Altbach (2006) shows that, modern scholars are increasingly using internet to undertake research, analysis and disseminate their work. Ilon (2010) shows that -

> For the first time in history, technology is changing the nature of how researchers can collaborate across time, distance, and space on joint projects. This allows for more efficient and timely research but also allows for a type of research that was heretofore unimaginable. People who are trained and whose life experiences are diverse can begin to share ideas and create solutions that are more robust than those coming from homogenous populations of researchers (Ilon, 2010: 25)

It also increases the effectiveness by helping to find secondary data sources and research literatures. In addition to revolutionizing research and academic knowledge sharing, e-mail, online social-networking space provide avenue for even more academic collaborations, e-learning etc. (Altbach et. al., 2009). Modern higher educational institutes are also increasingly using the benefits of ICT by using software to analyze and represent data, local and wide area networks to access and share information, organize surveys, etc. Distance education has grown rapidly, online universities are coming up, and some are becoming increasingly popular. The 'open-educational-resource' movement has picked up significant momentum, and provides free access to courses, curricula and

other important learning opportunities, which are not available locally. In a nutshell, a wide range of ICT elements have been deployed in higher education over the last decade (Altbach et. al. 2009), and is increasingly becoming ubiquitous for higher education sector not just in developed economies, but also in developing one.

With the help of new technologies, the Indira Gandhi Open University (IGNOU) and National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) opened their own television and radio channels to broadcast educational programs. IGNOU is one of the first to open their virtual higher educational campus in India. The MHRD[61] opened a National Mission on Education through ICT (NME-ICT) with an "objective of providing the Distance Education Programs, Skill Enhancement Programs, Tailored Programs, Vocational & Value Added Programs, anytime, anywhere in flexible mode at door step for men & women along with open and virtual learning" (Directorate of Distance Education, 2013). Quality assurance is another main aim of the NME-ICT mission, where it plans to open national resource centers standardization and quality assurance of e-content for higher educational institutes (FCCI, 2009). It is an INR[62] 50 billion project aiming to cater 500 million Indians by scaling up the 'Sakshat Portal' to take care of the entire learning community and make education related decision making, generate new digital content for undergraduate(UG), postgraduate (PG) and doctoral courses, creating Virtual Technical Universities (VTU) for UG and PG students and new teachers. In addition to distance education via ICT, video conferencing or video streaming of lectures are increasingly on demand and universities are trying to provide higher internet speed and trying to make their campuses WiFi enabled. EDUSAT (India's own satellite dedicated to education) is functioning since its launch on September 20, 2004. This is focused on science, technology, management and other related fields. The initiatives from the public sectors are complimented by the increasingly advanced initiatives from the private sectors to leverage the potential of ICT for expanding their capacity. Corporations like HughesNet, Reliance World or Oracle are investing and trying to find innovative and effective use of ICT in educational institutes and beyond. Distance education is the main form of education in this respect, where it offers a cost-effective manner of enhancing higher education in India. Whereas in 2012, 21.7 million students are enrolled in 46430 classroom teaching higher education institutes, enrolment in the distance education is 4.2 million in just 197 institutes. Data shows that over the last three decades, there has been a steady increase in numbers of distance education institutes (from 22 in 1981-82 to 197 in 2011-12) and student enrolment there, which has increased at an annual rate of 11 percent in the same period. There has been a change in providers as well. There are now 183 providers (other than IGNOU -1 and state open universities -13), which are providing courses mostly in professional and skill-oriented disciplines[63] (FCCI 2012).

The spread of distance learning shows that sometimes, LLL and ICT together, goes faster than higher education and ICT together. It then becomes harder to differentiate between

[61] Ministry of Human Resource and Development, Govt. of India.
[62] INR- Indian Rupees (currency in India)
[63] Source: Twelfth Five Year Plan: Chapter on higher education, UGC report 'Higher education in India at a glance' 2012

educational industries and higher education in the context of ICT as, although today, higher education institutions controls education provision and competence certification, it is perhaps not guaranteed forever. Will higher education control only certification, or will have to compete with other education and competence certification providers, is an important are of future research.

The National Programme for Technology Enhanced Learning (NPTEL), approved in 2011, is another joint initiative of IITs[64] and IISc[65] to prepare and disseminate digital course through 'you tube' for 129 engineering/ science courses. This effort of various modes of delivery of contents is infused with enabling access of resources, which can be seen in the recent initiatives by the government and private sectors. Through the initiative of networking of higher education institutes, the Department of Information Technology (Govt. of India) provides communication infrastructure and services to academic research institutes in India. The UGC recently launched an educational networking program namely 'UGC-INFONET' to connect Indian universities and colleges through ICT for the progress of teaching, learning and educational management. ERNET, an autonomous inter university centre of UGC, India manages the networks along with interlinked library networks (INFLIBNET) and facilitating human resource development through training, e-content. learning material development. UGC signs Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) with companies such as 'Intel' to integrate and introduce ICT effectively in higher educational institutions (Snehi, 2009). The AICTE-INDEST is another of such programs, which is a consortium set up by the MHRD to enhance better access and annual savings of bibliographic databases. Several private institutes like the Amity University offer online MBA programs, or the Arihant Institute, which works in disseminating Charted Accountancy (CA) classes through ICT. There is McMillan India, which has collaborated with IIM (Indian Institute of Management) and IITs to offer online management development programs (FCCI, 2009). A special mention here is NIIT, which has recently opened the first 'cloud campus[66]' in India (NIIT, 2013). Apart from these rather distinctive initiatives, almost all private higher educational institutes offer ICT enhanced teaching, learning courses and provide modern ICT benefits to the students, teachers, and management staffs. The direction here is to make an education system, which is ICT oriented, an environment, which is ICT friendly and hence innovative and flexible.

It could be seen that India, as a developing country and aspiring to join the developed league, are investing highly in ICT in higher education. The improvement in ICT brings lots of economic gain for India as well and it is, itself one of the booming economic sectors in India. Detailed discussion of the ICT lead business and related data are provided in the discussion of ICT in LLL section. Therefore this sub-section does not, specifically, looks into the ICT as and industry and rather focuses on the higher education and ICT by looking at it from qualitative angles.

[64] IIT- Indian Institute of Technology
[65] IISc – Indian Institute of Science
[66] See NIIT website for more details on cloud campus. Based on the principle of 'cloud computing'.

Looking at the enormous potential of improving economy, it is perhaps predictable that there are several universities, institutes (both public and private) which are increasingly focusing on ICT, not just by investing on computer and internet connections, but also being members of online international academic journals, blogs and resources. For instance, the Jawaharlal Nehru University (JNU), the University of Delhi (DU) or the National University of Educational Planning and Administrations (NUEPA) among many, are the central universities and are considerably pioneering in extending memberships of foreign journals and resources. Private higher educational institutes are not far behind either. Interestingly, the major international journals and databases have their headquarters at West, especially in the United States and the United Kingdom, since scholarly journals are largely published in English (Altbach, 2006, 124-129). Moreover, many of these journals are owned by multinational companies and by few renowned universities, again, mostly from the West. In the Indian higher educational system, these international journals are highly valued and getting article published in these journals is considered prestigious in India and help in academic career developments. Hence, ICT is indirectly helping to influence the internationalization of higher education by promoting the western journals, writing styles etc. The thesis will get back to this issue in later in the 'language' sub-section of this chapter.

These new developments of ICT in higher education are providing opportunities to students to learn more and learn flexibly and hence promoting the modern philosophy of LLL. However, this new trend also brings several other changes in the higher educational domain, links it with market and brings new dynamics, which is different from the traditional way to perceive education. In this regard, Bok's (2005) studies, could be useful, where it can be seen that a successful ICT based course could play an important part in changing the traditional educational dimensions. Firstly, a successful course could reach to many, and hence increase competitors for this lucrative field. Secondly, not just institutions, but also departments and professors may also compete to reach to many. This may provide the online instructors a lead, compared to the traditional professors, as they can attract far larger audience compared to that of a professor could in a campus setting. This will provide obvious monetary gain for the individual professor(s), team(s) who prepare the study materials and to the online institutions, among other stakeholders. This increased competition can be seen in some parts of the world where ICT based higher education is in an advanced stage compare to that of India. However, because all online courses are struggling for the same market, i.e. students opt for professional courses mostly; they constantly try to change them to make their program more attractive than that of the others. To do that, they focus on the learner centric models, which is different from the teacher centric model of higher education.

The recent trend in online and in distant learning is therefore, seems to be a shift of focus form 'how to teach' to 'how students learn' (Bok, 2005:92). Moving a step further, some of the online educational institutes tend to develop their courses in collaboration with relevant industries and/or corporations, where it is much easier to make changes in this new field compared to that of a university administrative structure and educational ethos. Other incentives include discounts, lecture by famous professors etc., which are

rather conventional ways of staying competitive. Overall, this new field with its new dynamics with professors from traditional university setups could have the potential to build a new market mechanism and competitive environment where changes to facilitate learning are part of a routine to survive and succeed. Not only this; the increased importance in ICT based courses could inject a sense of competition among universities to retain their best scholars, as they can readily move to these new ICT based setups (Bok, 2005: 95)

Here, it is perhaps recognizable that, all of these trends are less likely to be seen in India very soon, as ICT based higher education in India, is still at its initial stages. Nevertheless, some of the trends confronts with the Indian scenario, where prospective students (regular students, part time students, working peoples etc.) tend to take flexible ICT based courses. In addition, flexible educational service providers are already providing industry-endorsed courses and often hire some of the best scholars to facilitate them. In a way, it is leaving its traditional ideologies of teaching towards learning and making it competitive and driven towards knowledge economy. At the same time, government is trying to build its own ICT strengths and pursuing universities to become more ICT oriented and flexible to retain their compatibility in this present changing higher educational landscape. This sector holds huge potential for future studies in terms of its changing directions and consequences, in relation to globalization and improvement of ICT.

The progress in ICT has surely helped Indian higher education to leap forward. The above discussion shows that it tries to embrace ICT to improve its educational standards, tap the benefit of new forms of knowledge, new demands focusing mostly at economic development. Many of the higher educational institutes highlights the industry-endorsed courses, which aim at making learners prepared for the respective industries/sectors. In public universities however, the focus is not entirely on job-oriented competence developments; rather they prefer a balanced approach to infuse knowledge and improves their educational system to contemporary levels. The new-age online educational providers, although at their initial stages, shows great potentials to grow and bring changes in this educational domain. There are different new networks, links and steps, which are beyond the conventional higher education practices in India. They mostly follow the international trend of academic practices and therefore, influenced by globalization, internationalization, commercialization and economic principles. However, as mentioned earlier, not all follow these trends in equal intensity, but there is distinctive trend to lean towards the general global practices related to ICT. Hence, all unanimously recognize that in today's world, ICT is a must and an essential component in nation building, as Shamsu (2012) in the interview, clearly states that-

> This power of technology is very well recognized to ensure that we empower, similarly we think technological-literacy as an empowering factor. We think that unless you are technologically empowered, you are as good as being illiterate. It is not just knowing reading, writing and arithmetic, you need to know the technology well (Shamsu, 2012).

However, as we have seen before, that in spite of having tremendous potentials to improve, there are risks of digital divides and less predictable and negative outcomes, largely undesired, associated with ICT, especially for a developing country like India. The section below discusses this side of ICT in higher education in India in detail, trying to show why ICT, being a useful tool and supported by many, could also lead to inequalities and hence, provide less support to the global dimensions of higher education in India.

ICT as a less-supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education-

In the discussion of ICT, in the LLL section, it could be seen that the main problems are related to its modes and tools (old vs. New), its affordability, unequal access to ICT and related services, lack of infrastructure and/or lack of understanding. All of these are mixed with several other Indian barriers, which are, political, social, religious, gender related etc. Hence, "without doubt, deep inequalities persist with regard to information and communications technology access, use, and influence" (Altbach et. al., 2009: 3). Here, in this section, it is possible to find traces of many of these. However, because higher education in India is, by its nature, still more technology dependent than that of primary education or literacy initiatives, the nature of the barriers change their roles and hence affect the whole situation rather differently. This sub-section discusses these and shows that in spite of making recognizable progress in ICT development in Indian higher education domain, there are loopholes and pitfalls, which are stopping Indian higher education to fully embrace the global dimensions. There are also risks involved accepting the global or predominantly western dimensions blindly, which might not be suitable for a country like India with a billion people of different groups, socio-economic strata, clans and so on.

In India, in spite of the progress in spreading the benefits of the modern ICT tools like internet and computers, it could not reach many places, mostly in rural areas. Moreover, although ICT is recognized as a means of fast development for developing nations like India, 'it often comes with enormous costs and difficulties embedded' (Altbach et. al., 2009: 127). The hardware, software, technical support, proper training, constant up gradation come with lots of money and demands constant attention from the governing body. At an individual level, the costs are still too high for many Indians to afford a personal computer or broadband internet connection. In Indian situation, the problems starts form the very basic level, where many region of India are still without electricity and/or have severe power cuts. In addition, the maintenance cost of a large computer lab in a humid subtropical country like India, is high, for educational institutes without generous public grants, technical supports etc. Hence, the primary challenges with ICT and educational developments are mostly challenges of logistics. Some of these factors persist in higher education domain in India, as many universities still do not have fast internet connection or sufficient computers. The universities and mainly several small colleges are lacking in hardware and technical infrastructure to operate video conferences, live streaming of lectures etc. regularly. They often do not have proper modern software (often expensive), which are necessary for analyzing different kinds of data and sharing them online.

Although, the trend of becoming members of online journals and periodicals have increased recently in higher education domain in India, it is worth remembering that these online databases are widely used in the developed West, and are priced for Americans or European buyers. Thus, they are often extraordinarily expensive to users in developing countries (Altbatch, 2006:128) Although, these journal are crucial for research but not so much for teaching, particularly at the undergraduate levels, but the provision could certainly enhances the quality. However, there are many universities in India, which are not yet member of these online databases due to their expenses; hence, being an individual subscriber for a student form middle or low-income families is often beyond question. In addition, in spite of several efforts, the traditional ICT tolls used in spreading education are not that interactive and hence less effective. Although, according to Guri-Rosenblit (2009, 71), these technologies can actually provide better and relevant penetration in relevant communities where modern ICT could not reach successfully. Nevertheless, the lack of modern ICT leave the chances of falling behind compared to those who harness them.

Overall, the poor infrastructure "resembles a narrow footpath, rather than an information highway"(Altbach, 2006:135) for Indian higher education. It creates more digital-divides, inequality, unequal-competition and several other dilemmas, which are explained further.

The FCCI (2009) report highlights three main challenges for higher education related to ICT development-

- The lack of opportunity and technology readiness
- Implementation challenges, which have the ineffectiveness of previous initiatives
- Linguistic barriers to dissemination of knowledge

These factors resembles to that of the discussion of LLL and ICT in India. To explore these factors, the FCCI report represents several relevant statistics, some of which seems worth mentioning here. Looking specifically at the higher education domain, the report reveals that on an average, there are only six (6) computers per college and there are 229 students per computer[67]. The traditional methods of ICT for the development of higher education represent a gloomier picture as well. The frequency of listening to the radio program by IGNOU (2008) is very low. Many people are not interested (15%) and to many, their programs are boring (10%). The online learning sources of IGNOU, although improving, but due to the slow internet speed and lack of updated information, many people still cannot and do not access IGNOU website[68]. Last, but not the least is the linguistic barrier to disseminate information through ICT. India is a land of many languages and it is difficult to reach them using just English or Hindi. Moreover, as mentioned in the discussion of LLL that people are less comfortable using internet as it is

[67] Sources: International Telecommunication Union; The Internet and Mobile Association of India (IAMAI) report "Vernacular Content Market in India,"; UGC: Higher Education in India 2008

[68] Sources: IGNOU ODL Assessment learning 2008; International Journal of Education and Development using ICT (IDEJICT) 2006, Vol2, Issue 4 : "Pattern of usage of electronic media by higher education students in Tamil Nadu,"; Center for Global Communications Studies, University of Pennsylvania, "From Countrywide Classroom to Virtual Classroom: the analysis of UGC experience of using television for higher education,

mostly in English (although started to change recently). In addition, the majority of English speakers reside in the cities with only 17% English speakers in rural India. Therefore, the poor infrastructure, lack of regular update and lack of knowledge of language are creating barrier to the ICT to develop Indian higher education system and in turn, it is resulting in a skewed development in many cases.

The lack of development of ICT in some sectors and enormous development in some other sector makes the situation complex and highly uneven (Altbach 2009, Tilak, 2012, Jayram 2006). Although the extent these new technologies affects the nations vary differently across contexts. Nevertheless, it can be said that this differences lead to 'digital-divides', which happen inside the country and can create divide among regions, institutions and up to individual levels. At institutional levels, elite, resource rich universities with ample means to support the advanced ICT have the advantage of dramatically expand access, given their mission to serve fewer students who are carefully selected. At the other end of the spectrum, institutions around India are eager to employ ICT to expand access, but are hampered by resource-infrastructure deficiencies. These institutions, which are already lagging behind, are trying to cope up, but have limited or no access to the resources, which could have taken them to a competitive level with the developed once. As a result, the already developed once are becoming more developed and it is increasingly becoming hard for the less developed once to even be on a competitive track. This situation seems similar to that discussed in the ICT determining the dimensions of LLL where Reddi (2008) shows that there will possibly be four levels of learners. The group, who can afford will move ahead, faster and smoother, and the last group with no/very less power to afford, is likely to be out of the competition.

This divide is also getting acute in Indian higher education institutions, mostly private, where some are moving fast ahead with modern ICT and other related infrastructures and enrolling students, who can afford high cost of education. On the other hand, many institutions are lagging behind, as they do not have a standard ICT infrastructure to attract or facilitate students. The interesting part is, due to its difficulty to measure the actual cost-benefit of ICT in an academic setting (Bok, 2005; Altbach et. al. 2009), some institutions are also making economic gain without having much of ICT infrastructures compared to the elite and most developed once. Sometimes, the unavailability of a better-equipped institute leads to the promotion of a poorly equipped one, especially in sub-urban and rural India. Through advertising and/or misleading students[69] in different ways, these institutions make their fortune. Therefore, it seems that here, ICT is not only creating a divide, but also helping to create a confusing state where several stakeholders like students, institutions, companies are getting interlinked in a complex dynamics. This is unique, as India has more students aspiring for higher education and there is lesser number of good institutes to choose from. It is causing several problems, one of which is surplus (under skilled) manpower and educated unemployment. Largely, this issue is also related with demography and links other two factors of ICT and economy. It is discussed further in the demography section.

[69] As it is seen in case of MBA colleges in India, which advertise their courses by misleading prospected students. See the previous section- 'economy' for more discussion.

This dynamics between economy and ICT can be seen in different forms. One of them is related with the changing pattern of distance learning. Over the years, distance learning has gained its importance in India. Universities like the IGNOU are still the largest among the distance education providers. However, over the years, the modes of delivery have largely changed. Now, TV, radio and CD-ROMs are mostly replaced by internet, e-mails, online messaging etc. The use of these new technologies have boosted the enormous potential of distance education and helped to attract new pools of students. Along with it increased importance, comes several new service providers (197 in total, 2012[70]). Many of them are using modern ICT tools as their mode of delivery. However, at a very first step, it can create a divide as to avail the benefits of the programs based on modern ICTs, learners need to have the proper gadget. Therefore, "the availability of ICTs do not necessarily translate into access to technology resources for education, of course" (Altbach et. al. 2009: 134). Nevertheless, both public and the private providers are increasingly focusing on modern ICTs.

However, irrespective of its modern or traditional ICT based nature, these institutes are increasingly becoming competitive and trying to make strong linkages with the world of work. Because of their competitive nature and yet the lack of proper quality control, there is a risk of high cost and low quality. Although this field need more in depth research along the course of time, but several consequences can be highlighted. First, due to the lack of proper quality control in this sector, it can lead to wrong practices and works as a mere degree or certificate providing agency. Parth Shah (2012)[71] comment seems important here, where he indicates students' intentions to take distance educational courses, by saying that "it often does not come from the desire to learn. It is to have one more piece of paper that gives you the chance to get a job" (Shah, 2012).

Nevertheless, apart from the wrong practices, there are other consequences as well. The service providers may hire a well-reputed professor to make the contents and/or give those responsibilities to inexperienced people hired mainly for cost cutting. With the ocean of data available online, it is easier than ever to prepare the contents, however, it is difficult to assess how good or appropriate are they for specific Indian contexts. Moreover, to remain in profit they have to make the price of the course, competitive. To do that, they might make the course with lesser personal responses (replies to e-mails etc.) and interactions (Bok, 2005). Overall, that results to poor quality where students often dropout or fail. For these, Jayram (2006) accused the model of distance education in India, by saying that it has largely become a "cash cow" for the service providers to supplement their dwindling resources (Jayram, 2006: 756). In this regard, the observation of Altbatch, Risberg and Rumbley (2009) can be mentioned-

> Extracting meaningful research findings on the effects of technology on teaching and learning has been hampered by the speed of innovation, which often renders study results obsolete as new technologies replace old ones […]Distance education has long been a cost-effective and flexible method for drawing in

[70] See FCCI 2012 report for detailed statistical data. Initially, refer to the previous sub-section of ICT.

[71] Parth J Shah - the founder president of the Centre for Civil Society, an independent non-profit think-tank based in New Delhi- personal opinion provided during an interview with the researcher.

> underserved students. ICTs and related technologies have vastly expanded the potential to deliver postsecondary education at a distance but have also exacerbated inequalities within and across countries (Altbach et. al., 2009: 135-137)

Finally, there is one more factor, which seems very relevant in case of India. Often, globally it is believed that this unprecedented improvement of ICT will eventually replace the university system (Druker, 1997). However, universities are functioning largely in the same way today and ICT becoming a complimentary tool to enhance the facilities. It, however, almost always creates digital-divides. "There has been an uneven adoption of (and extraction of benefits from) ICTs in higher education around the world, due in large part to the same kinds of resource inequities that vex many other aspects of the higher education enterprise globally" (Altbach et. al. 2009: 137). This is even more appropriate in the Indian scenario, where the ICT revolution came almost suddenly when India was still considered as an agrarian dominated economy, not even an industrial one.

The above discussion and the responses from the interviews show the dynamics of ICT in the context of Indian higher education. Many of the interviewees also mention that although ICT is improved and easily accessible, it is not properly used in Indian higher educational institutes yet. These problems, according to many are resulting in an unequal higher educational development in India. Some however, mentions that ICT has helped extending the learning beyond institutional peripheries. Through open distance education, online courses, online study materials, etc. ICT is revolutionizing higher learning. Dr. Rajesh has pointed out that the competition with China is a serious concern in this regard, as China is in a much-advanced stage in terms of ICT in higher education. This is a serious concern for India, where the competition is global (Rajesh, 2012). Mohankumar, Reddy, Rajesh, however point out that in spite of several shortcomings, there is an increasing trend to use the modern ICT tools, especially considering the increasing demand for higher education in India, which is difficult to fulfill by the institutional set ups alone.

These are perhaps several important considerations in this section, in relation to ICT and higher education, which is providing opportunities as well as threats to the overall development of all, in India. However, we have seen during the discussion of LLL that the population in India is immensely diverse, yet shares one major factor. They are growing in numbers and going to be one of the largest young working age population in the world soon. In the context of the economy, ICT in higher education (among other) this demographic factor carries increased importance as their education, skills and competencies will be the main actor to lead India's dream to become a knowledge society. Hence, the next section focuses on 'demography' as a major factor in the Indian higher education domain and discusses the complex linkages with the previous two factors to develop an understanding of its linkages with LLL.

Demography as a changing agent of the recent higher education policy in India

Demography is certainly another most important factor determining the present dimensions of LLL and it is also significantly influencing the national higher education domain in India. The issue of Indian demographic structure is widely discussed in the discussion of LLL, therefore this part of the research is not going into deep in describing why India is in an advantageous position in terms of its demography. Nevertheless, largely, this position is known as the 'demographic dividend', which is related with a basic idea backed by the statistics, that India will have large number of working age population (15-65) in the next 25-30 year window before its starts declining. It is a significant window of opportunity for India, as many other countries are having declining working population and that means India have a great opportunity to progress in the age of globalization. Moreover, since it is largely considered as a knowledge economy, benefit largely depends on human resource and securing that benefit means educating them continually. Moreover, since primary and secondary education are not enough to get the actual benefits of the knowledge economy, higher education gets increasing priority form all levels. Hence, reforms in higher education sector are of prime necessity. Consequently, changes are also taking place to make it more in line with the global systems and popular practices. However, there are negative sides too, as Indian higher education has several problem areas and other indigenous factors. In absence of appropriate education and training, India may lose out on the' demographic dividend' due to a lack of skill set to meet the needs of the industry (FCCI, 2009, Altbach, 2006, Altbach et. al. 2009, Agarwal, 2009, Jayram, 2006). Moreover, it is often difficult to impart fast and all round changes to respond to the demographic dividends.

Some of these dilemmas are previously seen in the discussion of LLL and can be seen here as well. In the following sub-section, it therefore tries to show two sides of Indian higher education, which are influenced by demography, in the age of globalization and changing dimension of LLL. It shows that the significant amount of tensions persists in different sections of higher education domain related to demography, which are shaping its present dimensions. The purpose of this sub-section is to highlight and discuss the issues and points, which are igniting the changes. It therefore opens the discussion for further analysis. Initially, it starts with the discussion on how 'demography' as a factor influencing the Indian higher education domain to change towards more globally oriented one, while the second sub-section discusses the opposite side of it by explaining how demography is less influencing in changing the present Indian higher education.

Demography as a supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education in India

India's young pool of working-age population and the declining dependency ratio are considered as huge advantages. According to statistics, population in the working age group has increased from 619 million in 2001 to 699 million in 2006 and are expected to reach 957 million by 2026. Compared to 58 percent working age population in 1980, India now has more than 64 percent, (2009) and in 2020, it is going to increase further up to 68 percent. Moreover, India has a relatively younger population with a median age of

25.3[72] years[73] and even in 2026, the average age will be 31.34 years. In this sense, India is a young nation and will be young in a medium-term basis. As per the Technical Group of Population Projections (in Agarwal, 2009:409), dependency ratio of India (age below 15 and above 65) has fallen from 0.8 in 1991 to 0.59 in 2011. This is a sharp contrast, compared to that of the developed countries where the pressure of ageing population is high. In this regard, it is worth mentioning that, it is also estimated that by 2020, the world economies would create a skilled man-power shortage of 56.5 million, while India will have a surplus of 47 million due to the dividend[74]. These gives India an advantage and chance to improve its position in the global market.

However, India will start to get 'older'[75] too. It is experiencing a decline in fertility rate and is converging towards the European-Fertility rate (OECD, 2008). Hence, this dividend will fade out from 2030 onwards (Source: United Nations, 2009). Therefore counting form 2004 (beginning of the dividend) India will roughly get a 25-30 years window of opportunity. However, "this demographic dividend is unlikely to materialize unless the country fails to educate its people" (Agarwal, 2009:409). Moving one-step ahead, Tilak (2009, 2011), Altbach (2004, 2009) (among others) specify that higher education is the key to reap the benefit in this knowledge economy. This window of opportunity can therefore be utilized fully only if higher education and vocational training play a crucial role in preparing the workforce to be constructively utilized to drive growth of the economy (FCCI, 2009: 18).

This window of opportunity thrusts India to plan and act quickly. The path of development is therefore, often determined by economic trajectories based on its potential human resources-

> This view is related with the principles of human capital and thus often considers investment in higher education as investment in human capital.[…] It is often considers as the long-term economic and social payoff for the individual and society […] Today, human capital – the skills, capabilities, experience, knowledge and health that people bring to their jobs and that enhance their productivity and permit them to earn a good income – is viewed as a key determinant of international competitiveness (Willekens, 2008:114).

The concept of human capital is thus quite broad, and perhaps out of the delimitations of this section of the study to discuss it methodological parameters in detail[76]. Nevertheless, the study by Willekens (2008) measures the human capital in 'person-years' by the contribution of graduates of higher education[77]. According to this measurement, if the enrolment reaches to the level of that of the OECD countries, i.e. 40 % roughly, India

[72] Average age – USA- 36.7, UK- 40.2, Russia- 38.4 and China – 34.1.

[73] Source- XIth Five Year Plan; CIA Factbook; United States Department of Labor: Employment Projections 2007; EY-EDGE 2008: Globalising Higher Education in India.

[74] Sources: XIth Five Year Plan; Goldman Sachs: Global Economics Paper No: 169 2008; Goldman Sachs: Global Economics Paper No: 99 2003

[75] In terms of average age.

[76] To know more- see Le, Gibson and Oxley (2005) and Wössmann (2005).

[77] E.g. if one person contributes an average of 30 years, 100 graduates contribute 3000 person years of human capital generated by institutions of higher education (Willekens, 2008: 115). There are other parameters too. To know more, see Willekens (2008).

would contribute 432 million person-years of knowledge and skills acquired in tertiary education, which is six times more than North America and 3.5 times more than Europe. This is perhaps a distant dream for India as India has just reached 17.9 % (2011-12 Estimated according to the Draft report of the XIIth Plan). However, the same measurement shows that at present India generates more than 100 million person-years of human capital which is close to Europe and larger than North America (as of 2000). The point here is that the total number of enrolment is highly significant for Indian economic development. This also signifies and strengthens the claim made in the discussion of the LLL section, that the present reason of success of India in the global knowledge economy is its total number of knowledge workers even though they represent a smaller percentage. Thus, although the country suffers from low GER in higher education, it is still able to make profit even with marginal increase in the GER of higher education, as it a country of over a billion people. This, again, implies the potential of absolute number of human resources, if educated properly. However, to improve the quality of higher education and GER may work as massive incentives for India to focus on higher education development on economic terms. Because of its demographic weight, coupled with the growing levels of educational participation and national investments, India has the chance to dominate (along with China) in the global academic labor market (Marginson & Wende, 2009: 138).

The allied question to the above discussion seems obvious; what type of economic principles in reforming higher education would India follow in order to reap the benefit of the demographic dividend? The answer is mostly provided in the discussion of the regarding LLL, where it is mentioned that the neo-liberal economic principles are dominant in planning education with a prime focus on economic growth. However, it is also mentioned there, that the situation is more complex, which is also valid for its higher education domain. There are several factors to consider looking at the diverse nature of Indian socio-economic, cultural nature and so on.

First; India is not just large, in size and young in age, it also has a growing middle class population. According to the Bhalla (2007) there are an estimated 34 percent of Indian population belonging to the middle class in 2005 compared to that about 10 percent in 90s. The recent NCAER[78] study shows that by 2015-16 the middle class will grow to a massive 267 million with 53.3 middle class households. Further, down the timeline, in 2025-26 the number will reach to 574 million individual consisting of 113.8 million households (NCAER data extracts in PTI, 2011). The middle class of India aspire to improve their living condition by investing on higher education and people below middle class aims to enter the middle class with the help of higher education. Here, higher education is viewed as a necessary for upward socio-economic mobility. Therefore, people are willing to pay, even borrow for investing in better quality higher education (Agarwal, 2009:411). To support this growing demand from the middle class, and to respond to the knowledge economy, Indian government set a target of enrolling 10 million more students by the end of the Twelfth Five Year Plan (PCI, 2012). However, public institutes are not capable of providing the educational services to this massive numbers of students. Quite expectedly, private higher education steps in, and India, at

[78] NCAER- National Council of Applied Economic Research -Centre for Macro Consumer Research (India)

present, has the highest number of higher educational institutions in the world overtaking USA and China by large margins (FCCI, 2009: 7), of which, majority are private institutions (63.9 percent) where 58.9 percent students (in 2011-12) are enrolled (FCCI, 2012). As mentioned earlier,[79] these private institutions mostly provide courses in professional streams (Agarwal, 2009, FCCI, 2009, 2012) as per the demand of the market. Expectedly, the fees of such professional courses are much higher than that of general courses (sometimes, upward 10x) (FCCI, 2012: 11). Here, the middle class of India comes as handy, in terms of investing and encouraging such professional courses (both by private and public providers) and that also helps the higher education to lean more on the side of the profession, vis a vis, market. Since the market is increasingly becoming global, the trend is to follow the global pattern of higher education, mode of delivery, innovation and flexibilities. In addition, since students are now paying directly, compared to the traditional payments through tax-payers money, they can demand more accountability from the higher educational institutes. To respond to the demands, higher educational institutes are increasingly becoming global in nature, wherever they can.

Secondly, data shows that, although the demand for professional higher education is increasing, a majority still study the general courses, which are mostly non-professional in nature. In 2012, there are enrolments of 14.3 million for general courses, whereas enrolments in professional courses are 7.1 million (FCCI, 2012:11). These general students face difficulty in coping up with the employers' demand of the knowledge economy and add to the numbers of the educated unemployed. Looking at his issue, the former president of India said-

> Its a worrying sign that even though the 3rd largest number of graduates in the world every year is produced in India, only 15 percent of our boys and girls passing out of college have the skills required to become employable! This brings in concerns that students are getting degrees, but not getting employable hands-on skills"
>
> – Pratibha Patil, Former president of India (in FCCI, 2012: 26).

This serious worry has spread at all levels form the employers to the government and the need is felt to redesign the higher education so that it can be compatible with the world of work and provide necessary skills to the graduated of the country. From a demographic point of view, it is related with a daunting task of making more people skilled and not just degree holders without the necessary competences. It is related with India's success in a globalized world and marks a pathway for country's economic prosperity. In an interview with the researcher, Shamsu (2012) clearly reflects the same urge by saying that-

> The main factor is unless we don't make them skilled, really make sure that all our youngsters are youthfully employed, or we are able to channelize the entrepreneurial skills into some sort of enterprises, then it is going to be a huge challenge. […] So obviously, we cannot sit and look at only within, as we are now part of the committee of the nations that are doing well. Although we still belong

[79] In the discussion of 'economy' in higher education section.

> to the league of developing nations, but it is not very far when we transit form that and enter into the very niche crowd of developed countries. The world is aware of it also. (Shamsu, 2012).

These urges are constantly pushing the policy domain to recommend more and better reforms, not just in the professional sectors of education, but also in the general streams. This clearly links the situation with the same discussed in the LLL section. It shows that the recognition of the presence of degree/certificates yet the lack of skills for job market has lead the decision makers to stress on necessary skills more than just the paper, representing the degree. Importantly, people are realizing it too, and increasingly selecting the higher education streams, which provides necessary skills for the world of work. Here it is important to mention that there are problems, malpractices and limitation associated with selecting right streams and/or institutes of higher education, paying for it and getting desired results. However, there is perhaps no denying the fact that, the perception is changing and the global dimension of LLL is entering at a rapid pace, emphasizing at its pragmatic sides, more than other.

The increase demand for higher education, fee-paying capacity and knowledge economy have increased the level of participation in higher education in India. Although, as per the percentages of enrolment, it is very low, but in absolute numbers, it is one of the leaders in the World now. In addition, due to its demographic dividend and the above mentioned allied factors, it is likely to increase in near future. However, it is highlighted that there are several areas, which are growing with loopholes and often creating imbalanced situations. Along with being a tool for prosperity, the Indian demography, with its massive size and growing nature represents a problem by itself. This is also reflected in its educational output. Previously, in the analysis of dimensions of LLL, we have discussed many of them. Here, in the following section, several other trends related to higher education are discussed. These may help to see that demography and its associated factors could also pose threat to implement the newer dimension of LLL principles in higher education and hence the higher education continues to perform in a traditional form with several consequences.

Demography as a less- supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education in India

In the LLL section and in several other following sections, the lack of GER in higher education is being highlighted repeatedly. This is a downside to make Indian higher education follow a global trend. Moreover, there are other factors involved and all of these factors are directly and indirectly linked with demography and deserves detailed discussion. This section therefore discusses them in detail, which helps to understand the situation better and link it with the next discussion on 'language'.

The major problem in making the Indian higher education a globally oriented one, in relation to its demography, is definitely its low GER. Even after the end of the 11th five year plan, the rate is merely 17.9%. Indian GER is not only far behind in comparison that of the developed countries like USA, UK, Australia, Japan, Sweden, Denmark, France

etc. but also that of the developing countries like China, Brazil, Malaysia and Philippines (FCCI, 2012: 21).

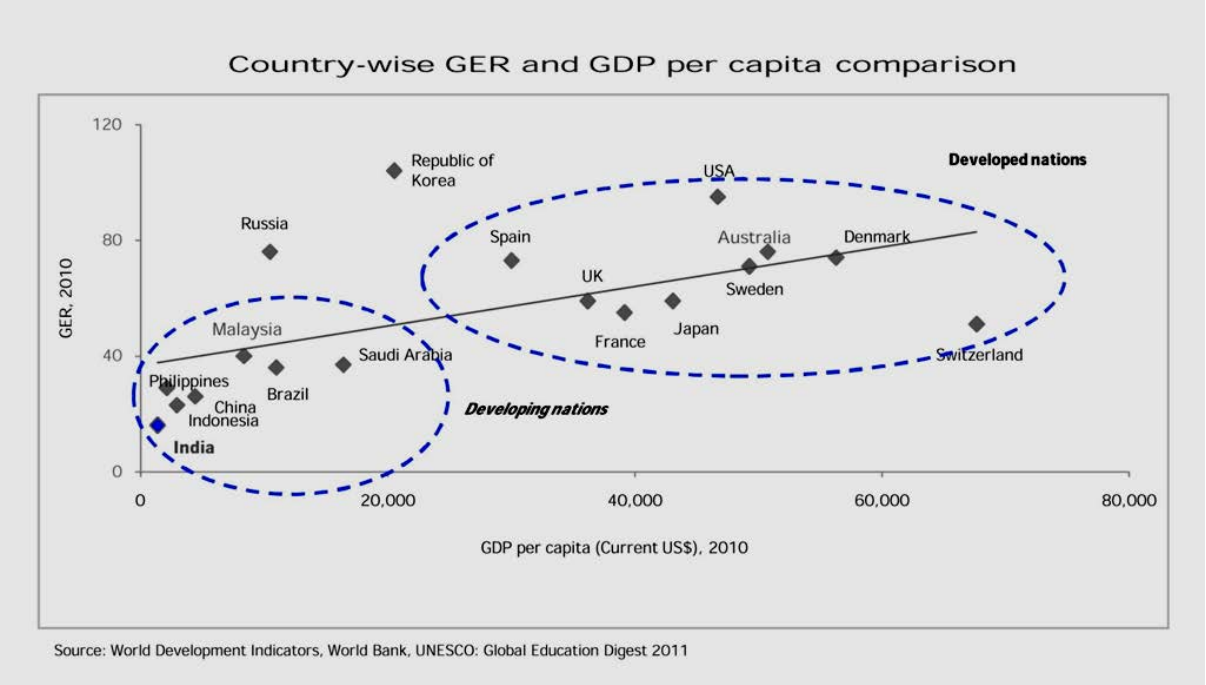
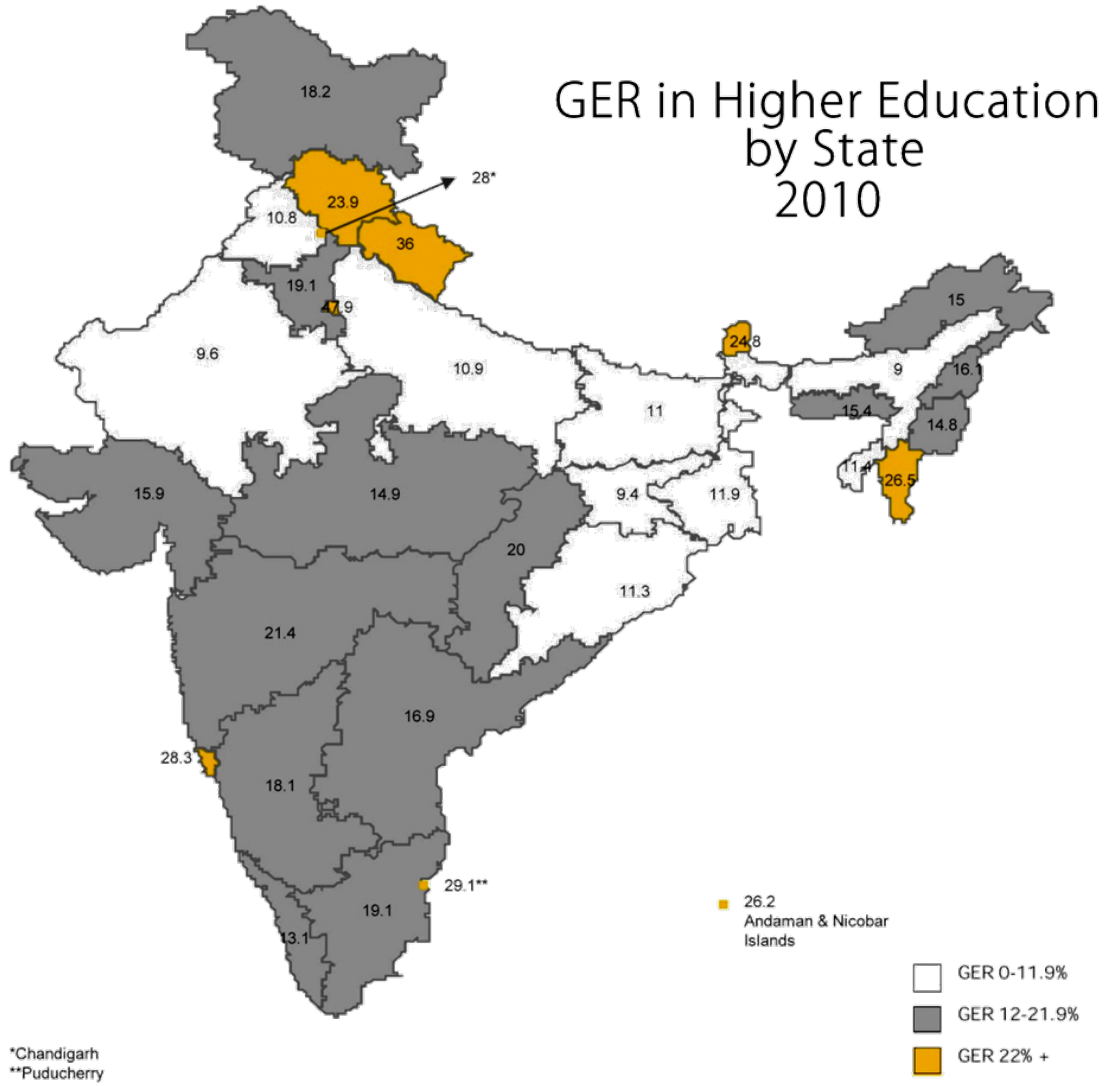


Figure 20: Country-wise GER and GDP per capita comparison

Moreover, there is significant amount of gender disparity and disparity in urban (19.9%) and rural (6.7%) areas. Compared to male GER (19.0%) females' are at a much lower level of (15.2%). In absolute numbers from a merely 43 thousand in 1950-51, the enrolment of female students in higher education has gone up to 7 million, which is good news. However, the enrolment of boys in higher education has gone up from 397 thousand in 1950 to a massive 16 million in 2010-11 (provisional data- Source MHRD and UGC in UGC, 2012). On the other hand, compared to the GER in urban areas (30.0%) the rural areas are at much worse state, at just 11.1% (data-2007-08, XIth Planning Commission). At the same time, the interstate variation of GER in higher education is very acute. Even though the national level GER is about 18%, majority of it is represented by students in Delhi, Chandigarh and Puducherry (states), as they attract a large number of students. There, the GER is exceeding 30%, while states like West Bengal, Bihar, Jharkhand, Rajasthan, Odisha have significantly low GER (less than 11.9%). The projection below helps to understand the regional diversity better. The XIth five year plan also shows that, the GER among the socially deprived classes (SC, ST and OBC[80]) are 6.57, 6.52 and 8.77 percent respectively, which are much lower compared to the average general GER.

[80] SC- Scheduled Caste, ST- Scheduled Tribes and OBC- Other Backward Classes



Source: Twelfth Five Year Plan: Chapter on higher education

Figure 21: State wise GER in higher education in India

These disparities at various levels prevent to reorient the higher education of the entire country and create imbalances. These imbalances indeed influence a majority of students to go to the states or the universities with high quality, resulting in increase in state wise diversity in GER. The lack of quality here gets intertwined with the demographic factors like internal (inter–sate) student migration.

Often, however, the lack of quality needed for the present market economy in public higher educational institutes influences the large middle class to go for the expensive private education. In fact, the lower quality of public higher education is one of the main reasons for the corporate to enter in the private higher education domain in India (Altbach et. al. 2009, 198). However, not all private institutes are of high quality and this is a great concern nowadays. The result is poor quality of graduates, even in professional and technical disciplines. This could be seen in the FCCI report, where it states that only

25% of technical graduates are employable under present requirements of the market (FCCI, 2012: 26). This poor quality influences to retain Indian higher education in a less dynamic state, where many of those who are claiming to be market and job oriented (mostly private providers) are actually unable to make significant changes to improve the skills. Although, the GER in higher education increases but the quality of it remains questionable.

Moreover, it inevitably results in educated unemployment and creates misconceptions about general skill shortage. The problem is in the uneven quality of the graduate produced. In addition, "People fail to distinguish between the general situation and narrow local needs" (Agarwal: 2009: 433). These, in turn, lead to another unequal situation where higher education institutes mushroom up and often advertise their courses on the basis of general idea about skills needed for the market. These "large number of higher education means small average enrolment in each institutions, resulting in higher education landscape being dotted with a large number of tiny non-viable institutions" (Agarwal, 2009:431).

Interestingly, those institutions, which are successful amidst of many, play an interesting part in increasing the inequality in the higher education domain. Often it is seen that popular higher education institutions selects meritorious students, merit being a proxy for quality. Students also compete for the same as, at least theoretically, reputed institutes provide better quality and hence, more chances of success in later life. Interestingly, quality institutions are often determined by the quality of students and students buy and sell peer quality as a means of determining institutional quality. "This makes the student both consumers and producers of higher education" (Agarwal, 2009: 425). Probably that is why, Altbach (2006) mentions that there is now difficulty for a new institute to become a leader in the academic market. Established institutes are likely to continue to grow leaving the less developed once behind. People will invest and strive more to get into this well reputed and successful 'brand' institutions. This is perhaps one of many side effects of including higher education as a marketable product. Here, it is important to note that this trend is a worldwide phenomena and the increased mobility of students (migration) made this competition global. It is seen in India that students who are more intelligent and able to pay more, often get high quality education even from foreign institutes. Hence, they are better employable, leaving the students of majority of middle and lower economic classes, who could only access 'mediocre' to 'poor' education, resulting in a new (postcolonial) form of elitism (Oliver & Nguyen, 2010: 136).

These inequalities could pose a serious risk to increase India's chances to become a knowledge society for all, and not just for some selected few. It brings the discussion to the issue of 'expansion' and 'equity', and relates it with 'quality', which are not depicting a coherent picture for the country's higher education. These are three major issues related to Indian higher education highlighted by the Planning Commissions repeatedly.

To secure the equity issue, the government of India, however takes another approach, which is caste based. It is undoubtedly, "the most controversial issue in Indian higher

education [which] includes the array of policies aimed at improving the access and equity for tribal groups and lower caste, dalits" (previously referred as untouchables) (Altbatch, 2009: 196). It is commonly known as "positive discrimination". The benefitted categories are Scheduled Castes (SC), Scheduled Tribes (ST) and Other Backward Classes (OBC). It secures the enrolment of the students of the disadvantaged classes by reserving seats for them and giving them lower requirement of marks, age relaxations, and several other benefits, including seat reservation in the public jobs. Nearly half of the total seats are reserved and that means post-secondary education is required to hire and enroll a large portion of them, including professors, academic staff etc. This is a policy of the government for decades and recently the court orders have expanded the benefits for these classes. However, the analysis of Mahajan (2007) shows that this 'positive discrimination' is largely ineffective in raising the status of the groups it is intended to help and a mistaken social policy in a meritocratic society. Nevertheless, political parties are pursuing the issue of giving more reservations including securing faster promotions in professional careers and so on. Many are contesting these reservations, based on caste and continuous protest is going on to open the higher education for fair competition based on merit. However, the 'reservation' is quite strongly rooted in the entire Indian education system, its administrations and so on, including higher education domain. These steps, contradicts the free market principles, which aims to opt for open competition. Globally, this is not practiced and from an economic point of view, it has high risks of facilitating less competitive one at the expenses of the better. Hence, the output could be less satisfactory and the legacy will continue as the people can still get preference in employment in spite of their lower grades, compared to someone possibly better, but doesn't belong to the reserved cast category. However, to uplift the social equity, the government (national and state) supports and facilitates reservation in higher education and it is likely to continue.

The above discussion depicts that there are problems associated with several sections of higher education. There are unique Indian scenario regarding its highly unequal economic conditions and social structures, based on class, caste and so on. The fact that India has a high demand for higher education is perhaps also embedded in its increasing youth population. This is a common response related to demography and the answers again followed the trend seen in that of the LLL section. By coding, it is found that the major section of the interviewees state that demography is working both as a pressure to the government and opening a market for higher education. In these circumstances, the policy decisions are resulting in both positive and negative consequences. In the interview, Tilak however, points out that although the expansions has increased, access, equity or relevance are still major concern of higher education in India in relation to educate the population. Moreover, there are gender and spatial (urban-rural) disparities as well. All of which are influencing to not to go for a fast higher educational reform. They rather influences, sometimes forces and holds the reforms based on market principles. This is creating the dilemmas, whether or not to embrace the neo-liberal dimensions of LLL fully and implement them in the higher education domain.

Nevertheless, in spite of some of its drawbacks, Indian higher education is improving along with its growing economy. One of the main reasons is obviously its massive youth

population, who are human resources as well as consumers of the higher educational services. Cumulatively, they are benefitted for their young average age, increasing urge to be trained and educated for the world of work etc. Out of many, India has one key advantage to success in the global knowledge economy, i.e. the mass use of English. However, there are dilemmas and tensions as well. The following sub-section expands this issue further and shows how the language as a factor can influence the higher educational domain in India.

- value of local languages
    - human, historical, cultural, social, heritage, …
    - for internal economic development
- possibility of coexistence of languages

Language as a changing agent of the recent higher education policy in India

Language, especially lingual diversity has been a major factor to influence the educational roadmap in India. Especially due to the advantage of knowing English, India benefits in the knowledge economy. Nevertheless, as we have seen in the discussion of LLL, that historically, the language issue is entangled with plethora of debate and discussion. Over the years, however, English proved its dominance as a working language in India over Hindi (Seth, Shamsu, Shah P, Shah, Mohankumar, Rajesh, 2012[81]) or other regional languages. In addition, because English has become the lingua franca of the 21st century (Altbach, 2009; Agarwal, 2011; Held et. al. 1999; Crystal, 2003) and it is dominating the knowledge economic marketplace globally, the demand for English efficiency in all educational domains in India have loomed large.

However, in spite of its economic effectiveness, language has other intrinsic values, related with human development, historical evolution of a culture, civilization, heritage etc. Various regional languages are also immensely important to develop the local economy, and in India, it is still the regional languages, which are in use in daily lives. Hence, this research condemns the over emphasis on English only and not the approach towards the co-existence of different Indian languages along with English. Nevertheless, in the growing demand of knowledge economy, English as a language, certainly plays a major part and this section of the study focuses on the same.

With the help of ICT, English speaking young Indians provided a new cheaper place to get the works done for multinationals. This makes India a popular destination for FDI and the Indian economy has been growing rapidly since. "Today, there are more speakers of English in India than in Britain, next only to the United States" (Agarwal, 2011: 410). However, there are competitions from other countries, especially from China. To remain ahead, the urge to be English proficient started rising in India and in the midst of confusing state language policies, private language institutions flourished all over the nation. However, it mostly provided benefits to those who can pay. Nevertheless, the common fact of India's poor educational (including lingual) and other

[81] In personal interviews with the researcher. November, 2012.

development is its massive poor and illiterates. It is difficult, often impossible to pay for English language training when they cannot have enough food or basic education. Although the government tries to uplift the situation, but due to several non-synchronized moves (discussed in the LLL section) it shows less effectiveness. Therefore, it creates tension and forces the policies to become fragmented or integrative depending on the specific situation, determining the dimensions of LLL in India.

This section takes this discussion of language in LLL section as its point of departure and focuses on the higher education domain. Here, it is important to note that, this section does not go into detail of the historical perspective of the change of language in Indian higher education. Rather it focuses on the current situation and analyses it critically. Through analysis, it explores the contrasting sides, which is overall similar to the findings of the LLL but more specifically appropriate for the higher education in India. It also seems important to mention that this study does not intend to enter into the debate of the moral or social consequences of not using local languages in higher education, as it is not the main focus here in this section. Nevertheless, as mentioned earlier, this study recognizes the importance of the coexistence of the regional languages along with English.

Like the previous sections of this chapter, it also has two major sub-sections. It starts with how language is influencing to promote the global dimensions of higher education in India.

Language as a supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education in India

Compare to the situation depicted in the discussion of language and LLL, the situation in higher education in relation to language is rather different. In the previous discussion, there was a clear debate between English and other regional languages. Contrastingly, in higher education, the language debate has almost ended, as said by Seth (2012, Shah, 2012) in interviews. It is a very long forgotten issue, says Shamsu (2012). In higher education domain, it is no more prioritizing the regional language approach, unless necessary. The focus is of course the economy and by looking at the recent economic development, demographic dividend, improvement of ICT and so on, English speaking skills of educated Indians are given greater importance. Interestingly, this outright dominance of English in the higher education domain has grown rapidly in India, especially after its economic liberalization. As in a globalized world, English is the dominant language for communication and operation; it did not take long for the Indian higher education to understand the potential benefit of harnessing English.

In universities, Hindi or other regional languages are still on offer, but English is the most preferred medium. In a personal interview, Shamshu (2012), the joint advisor of the Planning Commission, India, clearly points out that-

> We have accepted that while Hindi is an official language, English is the language for most of our transactions. In higher education, we put English as a medium, because we believe that once you have reached at the level of higher education you will be trying for different types of job opportunities, where English is essential (Shamshu, 2012).

This distinction between the perceptions towards English in higher education in comparison to that in other educational sectors is important to note here. In the discussion of LLL, we have seen that learning a language is often being related with pride, regional sentiments and cultural integrity, heritage and hence, English has been opposed by many (political parties, state governments etc.). However, in case of English in higher education, the acceptance is more positive than resisting. It is perhaps because of the economical benefits of English in the present world. Nevertheless, the question remains; how does it helps to influence the higher education domain of India to become global? The next sections try to answer it.

English as a language stands at the very centre of the global knowledge system and dominates in a self-reinforcing process (Held et. al., 1999: 346). More specifically, it is largely dominated by the developed West (Altbach, 2009: 127) and even more specifically, by the United States of America and the United Kingdom (Marginson & Wende, 2009). The overall practices related to English can shed some light on this. The common practice shows that universities stress on English by changing their medium of instructions, encouraging professors to publish in English and in reputed international journals. Researchers and graduate students are encouraged to attend international conferences and seminars, publish articles etc. Moreover, the university websites are all in English[82] and the books published by universities are largely in English rather than in other vernaculars. "Moreover, books prepared originally in English are much more likely to be translated into other languages than the other way round (Held et al.,1999, p. 346).

Another factor of the dominance of these major Anglo-Saxon countries is related to the improvement of Internet, among others. It is now a growing trend among universities to subscribe to online journals and periodicals, as mentioned before[83]. Significantly, most are published in English. Altbach (2009) shows that these journals are mostly edited in the United States, giving preference not only to the Americans, as they write in their mother tongue, but also they are familiar with the peer review system and academic norms. On the other hand, others (including Indians) have to communicate in a foreign language and adhere to the unfamiliar academic norms (Altbach, 2009:127-131). In addition, more international collaborations among universities escalated the chances of academic and scientific meetings, which are exclusively in English. This dominance of not just a language but also of certain typologies infused with the language lead to more Westernization of Indian higher education. However, it is increasingly being noticed that this trend is not only influencing India or other English speaking developing countries, but also many European and other Western countries as well, many of which are developed (Altbach et. al. 2009). The above mentioned orientation towards few Anglo-Saxon countries has also increased the business and career opportunities. For instance, the online networks and subscriptions of journals, data sources often come at a high price, as they are priced for Americans and Europeans (Altbach, 2009: 128, also mentioned before in the economy section), yet they are increasingly finding a ready

[82] Some have a parallel regional language interface as well (e.g. in Hindi).

[83] In economy and ICT sections of this chapter. It is mentioned that the study would get back to this issue in this 'Language' sub-section.

market in India due to its globalizing nature. "Currently, English-speaking countries serve as the primary host countries for international students (Altbach et. al., 2009: 8).

Since universities are encouraging to publish in reputed foreign journals, the academic practices are changing and leaning more towards the English speaking West. It can also be seen through the popular M.B.A (Masters of Business Adminstration) courses. These business courses are increasingly becoming popular in India and many young Indians, form all disciplines, are rushing to be trained in administrating business. This dominant pattern of M.B.A is actually an American-style masters program for business administration. It was initially designed to prepare American students to work in U.S business, based on American curriculum and their business practices. However, based on the economic globalization, English-speaking academic system and above all, Indian economic transactions with US business conglomerates, the M.B.A programs became popular in India. According to Altbatch, The M.B.A model has been widely copied in many countries, and although modified to match the local contexts, the basic structure remain American (Altbach, 2009: 131).

Due to the commonality of the language in higher education arena, and internationalization of higher education, it is now becoming popular to travel abroad on academic purposes. It has also increased greater mobility and exchange across national borders. This is also linked with the 'pull' factor (Altbach, 2003: 1-22) mentioned before. Here, the spread of English provides a road for more academic internationalization and at the same time, influencing Indian academics abroad to come back to India. Academics form abroad are coming more to India in order to give lectures, as guest professors and to sign academic tie-ups. This integration at various levels helps to improve the dominance of English in India even more, which can be referred as an important consequences of globalization. One interesting feature is that, the spread of English also helps to dilute the regional boarders inside India. Heence students from different states migrate to popular higher educational institutes of the country, where English is often the common medium of communication. To describe this phenomena, Mohankumar (2012, in personal interview) mentions that "the globalization has even broken not only the inter country barriers but also intra-country barriers. However, it is important to note that, these practices could also lead to a worldwide 'standardization' with a consequent loss of national identities and traditions (Enders & Musselin, 2009: 146). Nevertheless, looking at the advantages of harnessing English, it can perhaps be said that, "in the past, English brought Indians to the world. Now, together with IT, it is bringing the world to India" (Chaudhary, 2011).

The influence of English is thus, not limited to language in higher education only. It can influence higher education in different ways, and influences it to become more globally oriented. Since the world is at present dominated by English, there are serious competition to upgrade the English proficiency. This is another drive to focus more on English, instead of other Indian languages. This urge to stay ahead in competition is mentioned with great importance in the recent five years plans. It is relevant, since China is catching up very fast[84]. There are around 50,000 private language schools that enroll

[84] See LLL section (language) for more data about English in China.

2.5 million students in China (Agarwal, 2011:225). The enthusiasm to learn English is high in China as parents are willing to pay more than half of their income for their children to learn English (Aiyar, 2007). In addition, other South East Asian countries like Philippines, Vietnam etc. are soon going to become India's competitor with large pool of population investing on learning English. Although India is still ahead because of historic reasons[85] and it would probably take generations as Indians will continue to learn English and grow in population as well. However, realizing the fast-pace of others it seems urgent to invest more on English learning. In fact, "any complacency about its large pool of English language skills may cost the country dear" (Agarwal, 2011:225).

It is seen that the dominance of English as a global language has influenced Indian higher education significantly to become global. In fact, the omnipresent dominance of English put it in the centre and other languages in the peripheries, creating a center/periphery relationship (Altbach et. al. 2009:10). However, investing in English has not been subtle and smooth in India. Overall, the situation is complex and as mentioned in the discussion of LLL that is it related with various factors. Therefore, the next section focuses on these sides, with a specific focus on higher education.

Language as a less supporting factor to the global dimensions of higher education in India

The issue of language or particularly the dominance of English in the Indian higher education also raises many questions. Some of them are discussed in the discussion of LLL, that due to the lingual diversities, poor economic conditions and confusing political decisions, it is difficult for many to be proficient in English, or in any language other than his/her mother tongue for that matter. "English language instructions in India have been victim of linguistic chauvinism. As a result, many states have abolished English at primary education level" (Agarwal, 2011:224). In addition, poor infrastructure related to language in schools, expensive private schools and limited access to quality schools due to their distances, urban concentrations etc. limit the scope of being fluent in English. This has expected long-term consequences. For these young students, it is often difficult to cope up later on, as the base of their English language learning remains weak. Although data is difficult to find, but from experiences, it can be said that many of such students feel less confident using English in their academic and professional lives. This lack of quality in English in higher education is in fact a lack of educational infrastructure for all in India.

To improve the overall educational infrastructure (not just for language), in the draft of the Twelfth Plan (2012-17), the government proposes to increase the public higher educational funding to 0.38% of GDP, means, an additional allocation of $4 billion. However, it is very low compared to that in China, which is investing about $191 billion, an increase of $25.8 billion from the previous year (Bhattacharyya, 2012). This investment on educational infrastructure is likely to provide China a competitive edge whereas in India, not only it has the risk of lagging behind, but also creating an unbalanced situation regarding its competitiveness in language, focusing English. Moreover, the lack of

[85] Colony of British for nearly 200 years.

planning for all will facilitate the economically sound learners to invest in their education, mostly through private schools, language-training institutes. Thus, they are likely to move ahead, leaving many, who cannot pay, and depends on thousands of poor quality schools in every nook and corner of India. Significantly enough, the middle class population in India is growing rapidly, and they are increasingly able to pay for their language education. Nevertheless, this skewed development benefitting mostly the rich and middle class people would leave the economically disadvantageous section in a deeper long-term lag. Looking at this situation, Shah (2012), a renowned educationist, seems points out clearly in the interview for this study, that the real problem is not language, it is the money invested.

This long haul underinvestment in language learning has several other consequences. Students who are less capable to understand and use English, face problems in their higher educational institutions, as most of the institutions are teaching in English and/or are encouraged to do so. Therefore, English is often set aside. In an interview, Shamshu (2012) expands the issue by highlighting that-

> Very recently, it is noticed that in institutions, where the faculty is English proficient, but the students who do not understand that, we might not discourage them from using the vernacular, so that there is an understanding between the student and the teacher. Otherwise it is meaningless (Shamsu, 2012).

This is the condition of many colleges in many rural and semi-urban parts of India. They often study in their vernaculars and later face difficulty to cope up in the university environments or in the job market. There seems a strong presence of a mismatch between focusing on regional languages (except English) in the primary education and mainly (or only) English in higher education, which is causing problem in both sections of education. Some of the interviewees also support this perception about the mismatch.

There is, however, another risk, related to the language issue, which is still, less recognized in India. The study of Marginson & Wende (2009) shows that although English is in the centre of the global knowledge system and English-speaking countries are getting benefit, but the dominance of English is not guaranteed forever. Based on the data of the Linguasphere Observatory (2006) they show that worldwide, English is spoken by one billion people, so as Putonghua ("Mandarin" Chinese). If China spreads the use of this language as a medium of transaction in many fields, soon it could become a normal part of higher education for students all over the world. However, the geographic spread of Putonghua is less, compared to that of Spanish, Arabic or French. In fact, Hindi/Urdu also has international significance (Marginson & Wende, 2009). Although, at this moment, the global dominance of a language other than English is less likely to happen in near future, but comparing it with the increasing power of China, their English and Putonghua speaking population, it is certainly in a better off position than that of India in the long run.

It can be seen from the above discussion that the Indian higher education is paying the price of the overdue developments in education. Although realized, but due to the lack of basic arrangements, understanding and infrastructure, it cannot be fully implemented

in the higher educational domain. The lack of a balanced approach of providing equal importance on regional languages and on English from the initial stage of education has piled up. Hence, the regional language issue, although apparently seems not so relevant in the higher educational arena, but the overshadow of this reflect significantly. These backlogs caused by policy, planning and implementation and overall educational underdevelopment are affecting India's economic prosperity as well, and putting India in a more insecure situation in a competitive global market. Moreover, it is largely unable to increase the other values of language, such as its social, cultural and historical one, mentioned above.

Other Critical factors

At this point, after discussing the four selected factors, it can be seen that there are similarities in the direction discussed in the section of LLL. However, there are some salient differences in the forms and intensities.

Apart from these four selected factors, there are many other factors, which are perhaps equally important in this regard. Nevertheless, , it is perhaps beyond the scope to elaborate on each other factor extensively as this research delimits its main discussion only within these four selected factors. Yet, it seems important to mentions some of them briefly, as, a limited yet complete discussion could lead to a better understanding of the whole situation. It could also lead to a more in depth analysis, as it could be seen that some aspects are indirectly related to the discussion of the four main factors. Therefore, the following section discusses the other important factors in turn. Depending on the nature, these factors are directly or distantly related with the main factors and with the changing dimensions of LLL. Overall, they are important to determine the changing dimensions of recent higher education policies. Here, it is important to mention that unlike the above, this discussion is done in a single sub-section. There, some of the aspects are being highlighted and at the end, the important features are being pointed. It is the hoped that this brief discussion of the other associated factors could improve the understanding of the whole situation. Following this section, it wraps up the discussion done so far and opens the ground for the final chapter of analysis.

Academic Culture

The first among the other factors is perhaps the change in academic culture. It is noticed that professional higher educational institutions act more interactively with the market; hence, the institutional attitude is flexible towards the changes in the market and industry demands. Because of this change oriented nature, they are often more innovative and prefer a more tangible outcome and economy oriented model of operation. On the other hand, the traditional institutions, which are for so long remained in ivory towers of elitist culture, have now started changing. At least, the realization is now there that higher education, even in general streams, need to change to link itself more with the changing needs and economy. The belief that traditional universities (mostly in arts and humanities but sometimes, also in science) should focus on social values is still there, but only keeping a social value oriented outlook is increasingly being

questioned by the practical demands of imparting necessary skills and competences for the present society.

Here, it is important to note that Indian higher education system is mostly top-down, less flexible and not so student centric. Due to the rigid nature, students are in a sense locked into their respective institutions and more specifically, in their respective disciplines (Agarwal, 2011). Increasing flexibility in students' choice, change of course, cross-disciplinary courses, easy credit transfers, progressive evaluation mechanisms are required. However, only some of them are at their initial stages of materialization[86]. The lack of flexibility often creates constant debates on, whether the universities should be change oriented and respond to the changing needs, or would remain in their traditional ethos and not on creating the workforce for the society. Nevertheless, these so called regulatory system often fails to maintain the standards, meanwhile private higher education indulge into deceptive practices. It is visible in colleges mostly, where there is very less mobility, with outdated and irrelevant curricula (Agarwal, 2011: 440-443).

Moreover, it is perhaps notable that one reason for success of the private universities and colleges, as stated earlier, is their signaling effect to the job market. They prepare (at least intend to) students for the changing market. Whereas, without a handful of exceptions; most traditional universities do not perform this signaling effect. They are primarily designed to prepare student for the public and social sectors and not for this private dominated market economy. To shift from this tradition and step into a more demanding environment is a challenge in itself.

Here, it seems worthwhile to mention that this study does not support the abolition of moral social values for the market sake alone. Rather, it tries to establish the point that there is a gap in demand and supply and an acute co-existence of graduate unemployment and shortage of skills. The contemporary higher education is largely responsible for this paradox, which is causing tensions and often putting the future of the students at risk. Notably, the study of Washer (2007), Hayward & Fernandez (2004) (among others) show that change in the higher educational institutes to foster skills needed for the contemporary society does not contradict with the idea of a holistic development of its pupils. Moreover, it can also be argued that in developing countries, where graduates have to compete for jobs soon after (sometimes before or during) the completion of their higher education, probably does not allow them the luxury of such a debate (Mandal, 2012). However, to view higher education as nothing but an industry, is largely contested, as a surprising level of pessimism dominates the discussion. Yet, the higher education in India, which has so far adopted an inward looking approach, is now under a pressure to change. The prevailing academic culture however detest the drift of higher education from academic to occupational purposes, yet it fails to realize that it will include more and more people to opt for higher education. On the contrary, the elitist culture of making academic leaders would only lead to a small group of elite

[86] E.g. the recent changes in the University of Delhi, where all the graduation courses will be for four years (instead of the three year once), with first two years of compulsory interdisciplinary studies and other two are optional, depending on the need and interests of the learners. However, the decision faces huge protest from all over India.

people, without being a gateway for high-wage jobs (Agarwal, 2011: 424-436). Although the universities have started changing[87], but the situation is still rigid and changes are still at a very nascent stage.

Ranking, Research and Resources

In India, there are less number of innovative higher educational institutes and even lesser elite quality research universities. Although, IITs and IIMs are there; but they are too few for a country like India. Among other institutions, although excellence can be found in the 25 central universities (Altbach, 2009: 190), but when the comparison is global, they stand far behind. There is no World-class universities in India, says Jayram (2007). These reflect in the international ranking of higher educational institutes where no Indian university ranked amongst the top 200 universities in Times Higher Education (THE) Rankings or the Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU) for the year 2011. The output of Indian PhDs was small at just 10781 with just 4500 in science and engineering compared to that of 30000 in China (2008-09). Moreover, academics in China authored five time more research papers than in India in 2011 (China – 903, India- 187, USA- 4367, UK- 1326). The relative impact of citation for India is half of that of the world average (World average 1.0, India- 0.51, China- 0.61, USA- 1.25, UK- 1.24) (FCCI, 2012: 24[88]). In addition, Indians file and receive very small number of patent applications (11937 applications compared to 24156 by the Chinese in 2009) and no academic institution figures in the list of top application for patent filing (PCI, 2013).

These lacks could prove threat to India's dream to become a knowledge superpower in near future, but at this moment, it is resulting in high number of student export. The lack of excellent institutes for the brightest students and students who can pay high price to get quality education is causing serious brain drain and revenue loss. It seems that without significant investment in infrastructure, as well as a more coherent policy, Indian initiatives are unlikely to succeed (Agarwal, 2006).

In addition, it seems that the issue is much larger than just creating some elite institutes to keep the brightest and/or the wealthiest students in the country. It is also about changing the perception up to a great extent. "The fact is that unless the traditional universities can be reformed and improved, Indian higher education will not be able to progress beyond the excellent periphery of the Indian Institutes of Technology and related mainly specialized institutions (Altbach, 2009: 191). It is in fact, a drawback of the policies as well, which, over the years are less able to influence the universities effectively. In policies, the issue of reform in the traditional universities are largely been ignored and are it is still the same to many extends. The intense focus on establishing new excellent institutes and less on revamping the traditional once are also likely to result in a skewed development of higher education where excellence is likely to happen outside the traditional universities (Altbach, 2009).

[87] E.g. University of Delhi, Presidency University, Kolkata etc.

[88] Source: Japan Science and Technology Agency website, Twelfth Five Year Plan: Chapter on higher education, FICCI education sector profile 2012 in FCCI (2012).

Some other critical factors

In addition to the above mentioned factors, there are other factors, which, based on their importance, influence the higher education in India. The first is related to the popular role of a traditional higher educational institution in India. It is largely seen that the universities provide degrees, which are benchmarks to apply for jobs. However, in India, there are plethora of competitive exams (not job interviews, they are done separately) to get a public or similar jobs. There are competitive exams in every stage, and a job applicant has to go through these exams to prove his/ her quality even after getting a masters and sometimes obtaining a PhD degree. To select the best candidates, the government introduced these competitive exams, where university degrees are often required just to be eligible for the exams. This overwhelming dominance of competitive exams also acts as distrust to the existing quality of the higher education and the signaling effect (mentioned above in the 'economy' subsection) of the university system breaks down.

It has several consequences. First, universities and colleges find less compelling to prepare their students for the job market and there is often less incentive for the students to take the education seriously, as they are mere ways to get a degree certificate to be eligible for the competitive exams. Overtly then, it has the risk of falling into a vicious circle [Figure 22] where university will find difficult to improve their qualities and continue to muddle in the dilemma of making people ready for the market or continue fulfilling basic qualification requirements for a plethora of competitive exams. At the same time, government will introduce more 'competitive exams' to secure the quality of the candidates. Since these traditional higher educational institutes are disconnected from these signalling mechanisms.

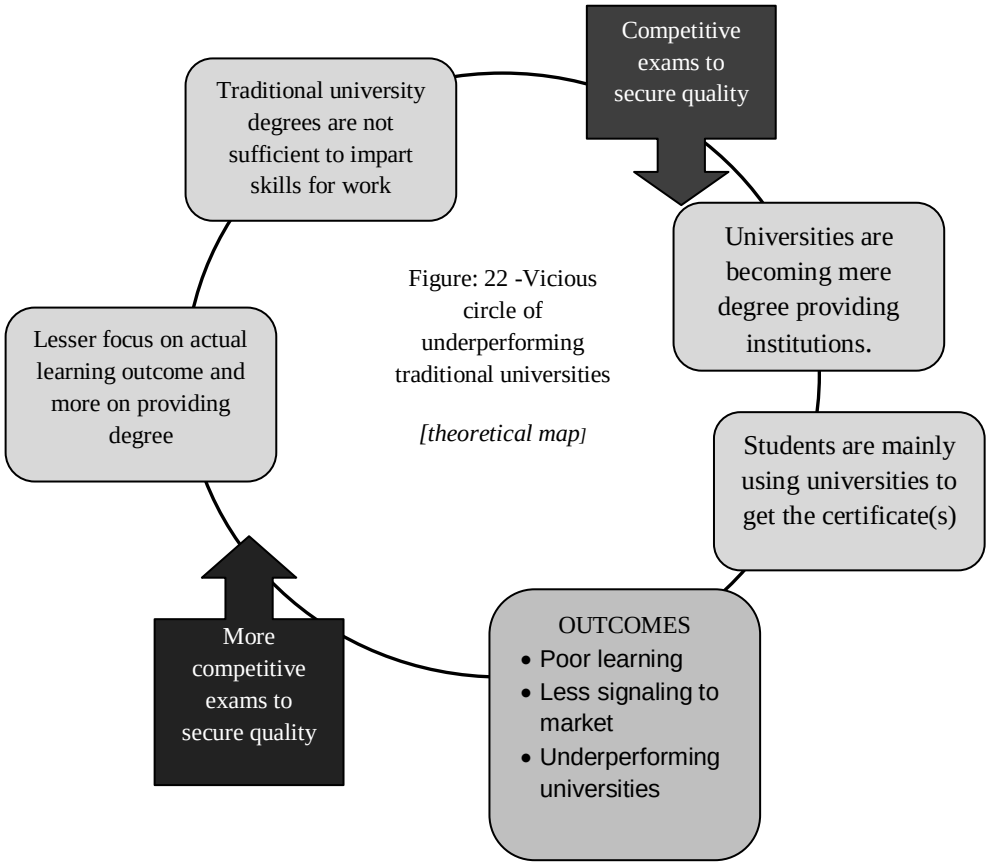


Figure: 22 -Vicious circle of underperforming traditional universities

[theoretical map]

Another factor is related with financing the universities in a competitive situation. Over the years, government has tried to find solutions to make the higher education more accountable, but for many reasons, it did not get expected results. The study of Altbach (2006, 2009), Jayram (2007), Bhusan (2009) and several reports (e.g. UGC pay commissions' reports) show that the government tries to attract and retain professors by increasing the salaries up to a great extend. Although it made the profession more lucrative, but Kapur & Mehta (2004) shows that in some instances, 95 percent of the total university expenditure goes to provide salaries leaving very little money for other developments.

It is perhaps also related with the resource crunch in Indian higher education system, as the number of academic staff has been affected in Indian higher education. "There has been either an official ban on the creation of new teaching positions or an unofficial restrictive approach creating hindrance in the process of recruitment of faculty members, even against sanctioned posts" (Agarwal, 2011: 441). This is resulting in shortage of faculty and higher student-teacher ratio. Data shows that compared to the enrolment, which has grown six times in the last 30 years, faculty strength has gone up only 4 times. State universities have 40% faculty shortage and in the central universities, it is 35%. (average, 2011) (FCCI 2012: 24)[89]. There is however, some solution proposed. Increasingly, ad hoc (temporary) faculties, who are low paid and have no job security or other benefits, are filling the vacant teaching posts. Yet they have to work often as much as a permanent fully paid faculty, but with less hope of becoming permanent. In this situation, to expect accountability by putting workload and risk of being fired do not work much either. These steps are less likely to bring any notable changes in the higher education system. Agarwal's (2011: 442) study shows that the mechanism of accountability in the higher education system is in disarray. These efforts are thus, perhaps comparable to road patchworks to drag an overburdened, underperforming system, rather than building a new road for faster and more intensive development.

Wrap up for the next section

From the above discussion, the tensions and the dilemmas can be identified easily. There are some issues as well, which are unique for India, whereas there are many, which are perhaps happening in a worldwide or international scale. Overall, the above discussion of the main four factors is relevant to understand their influence on the changing discourse of higher education in India. However, there are some factors, which are not discussed here, but are perhaps important, if examined form various angles, scales and levels (state, institutional etc.). These non-discussed factors are largely beyond the scope of this research. Nevertheless, some additional factors are also discussed and together, it seems possible to get a comprehensive picture of the Indian higher education scenario. This understanding helps to analyze the reasons, relations and influences of the changes in the higher education policies in recent years. Therefore, from here on, the study narrows down its focus on the policy and based on the discussion so far, attempts to answer the main research questions from critical standpoints.

[89] Source: Japan Science and Technology Agency website, Twelfth Five Year Plan: Chapter on higher education, FICCI education sector profile 2012 in FCCI (2012).

chapter

12

Chapter 12
Consequences of the Changing Dimensions of LLL on Recent National Higher Education Policies of India

Chapter 12

Consequences of the Changing Dimensions of LLL on Recent National Higher Education Policies of India

Introduction

This is the final chapter of analysis, followed by the general conclusion chapter. The previous chapters convey some important points forward. The dimensions of LLL and the Indian educational scenarios, the policy change and the effect of globalization on Indian education, the influence of the international and transnational policies and national demands etc. are some of the aspects most highlighted. In the previous chapter also, we have seen the influence of the four very important factors on Indian higher education along with the discussion of the other related factors, which are also important to shape and reshape the higher education in India. It can perhaps be understood that there are several things common in the discussion of the LLL and that of the higher education in India. This common points are the guiding parameters in the analysis in this chapter.

Whereas the previous chapters and sections discuss and analyze on LLL, this section, after the initial discussion on higher education in general, focuses exclusively on policy. Specifically, it focuses on the influence of the LLL on the recent higher education policies. This means, it is different from the previous discussion of LLL to some extent, yet inherits the basic formats. This section, in fact, tries to analyze the core consequences of the changing dimensions of LLL on the recent higher education policies. Therefore, where the discussion of LLL is related to its overall changing understandings including a special focus on policy, this section solely intend to delimit its analysis within the policy domain. However, to do that, it is important to follow the guidelines provided by the theoretical frameworks (Jarvis, 2007, 2008; Bhola 2003) and follow the necessary steps, which leads the analysis in a focused manner.

Background

It can be seen from the discussion so far that the factors influencing lifelong learning (LLL) might also influencing the Indian higher education to some extent. However, they could also represent a mixed and somewhat different picture than that of the LLL. Interestingly, in this higher education section as well, there are traces of supporting and

opposing forces to the global dimensions of higher education. It can also be seen that among the factors, economy is the strongest factor among others, whereas language adds a different dynamics than that of the rest. All these factors however, very much active in influencing the higher education of India, and, along with globalization, their role is becoming immensely complex. Another finding is worth mentioning here. The influence of privatization is notably strong throughout and, is getting ever more powerful with the spread of the global market capitalism, including the market for higher education. Overall, the previous discussion helps to make it quite visible why the PCI recognizes the higher education as a 'global enterprise'. With is span, its recent mammoth growth and reorientation (up to a large extent) to the market perhaps brings it closer to consider it an enterprise, which is transnational (if not global) in scale.

In the ICT section, we find that in spite of the remarkable progress research and education through the use of modern ICT, it is still limited to those who can use and afford them. Hence, it is adding to the digital divide. Demography section initially stresses on a rather time bound goal, where India can only enjoy the benefits of the dividend if they can educate the young of the country fast and properly. Therefore, the investment in higher education becomes an absolute priority. However, this is again related with its negative counterparts, where the lack of proper planning, administration, public funding and implementation leave a huge gap to achieve the goals in an effective and timely manner. Uncontrolled and poor quality private higher education tries to fill this gap of more demand and less supply (sometimes with only profit making goals), results in a large chunk of educated and poorly skilled unemployed youth. A different trend can be seen in the language section, where, although English is at the lingua franca of the 21st century, its dominance is not guaranteed forever. Nevertheless, the present dominance of English in the global economy and technological sectors makes it the most powerful language of communication and provided unique opportunities to reduce the inter and intra national communication barriers.

In addition to the four selected factors, there are other factors discussed in the chapter. The rigid academic culture, bureaucracy, the poor research output, ineffective traditional model of teaching put India in challenging situations in the global arena. These also make the base of the student weak and left them poorly prepared for the changing and demanding world outside universities. This lack also adds up with the poor quality of faculties and infrastructures. These factors are unique in Indian higher education scenario and play important roles to influence the overall changes as they contribute significantly to the dilemmas and contradictions present in the overall Indian educational landscape.

Here, it is important to note that apart from the last few factors, which are unique for India, other factors are influencing many other countries (although differently) and international and national policies are constantly being modified and re-modified to cope with them. It is therefore, not only the national level policies, which are being influential to change the dimensions of the national higher education policies. There are international policies and other relater pressures as well, which has great influences.

Therefore, the power structure seems spread over countries and influences the national policy domain rather complexly. Moreover, there is one persisting question. Are all of these changes in the Indian higher education results of the changing dimensions of LLL in India, or are they being modified because of the factors such as globalization, economy etc. without the influence of LLL? A part of the analysis of the interviews showing raises similar questions, which are provided below.

The initial intention of this section (higher education) of the interview was to identify how interviewees perceive LLL in Indian higher education. The replies are quite varied. After coding, it can largely be divided into three major categories; *a) people who think LLL is limited only to adult and continuing education, b) people who think LLL is possibly a change in name without substantial changes in policy or practice and c) people who think LLL is a recognized policy agenda in higher education in India*. Interestingly, people who are related directly or indirectly with policy (making and/or analyzing), tend towards code C, or B, whereas, people who are related with practice (NGO, civil society) or academia, tends to express their opinions in support of A or B. Therefore, although the responses represent a mixed understanding, one thing is also clear; i.e. there is confusion to some extent related to the actual consequences of LLL on the Indian education policies. The same trend continues when asked about the main forms of LLL influencing higher education in India. Some mentions it as a mission for overall educational development, with its present focus on open distance education, vocational training, and formal education in addition to the traditional one, such as literacy, continuing education etc. To some, the actual influence in practice level is largely confined within the departments of adult educations.

The responses show that there is an increasing recognition that LLL is more than literacy or adult education, and perhaps something more capable of influencing education paradigms. Interestingly, people involved in policy world are more prone to recognize LLL as a framework, rather than a change in name of a department. This is perhaps a key point to note as this research focuses on the changes in the policy domain. This chapter therefore, intends to find these answers and critically analyzes the consequences of LLL on Indian higher education policies in recent times.

The study in this final section is complex in nature as is often prone to include several issues, which apparently seems distantly related to the main issues. However, they are being linked in the final sections. This could also be an obvious limitation to analyze the issues in a large scale and in a situation when it is metamorphosing rapidly. Therefore, to keep the focus by following the methodological parameters, this chapter of the research takes certain systematic steps to analyze the complex issue. Overall, the framework of this section is somewhat similar to that of the LLL. It is done purposefully to provide the research a focused format of analysis. It may also provide the readers a familiar framework, which helps to relate it better, with the previous analysis in the LLL section.

In the first section, it sets the scene by drawing the analytical and empirical references form the analysis in the LLL section. In the same part, it explains the relevant theoretical parameters and draws a map for the steps of analysis to be done. These steps intend to

help the readers by providing a background study before entering the core part of the analysis. It then follows the steps to analyze the issue critically, which are based on the findings from all the previous chapters, the extracts from the policy documents and the selected responses from the interviews done for the research. In the following section, it tries to view the discussion together to narrow it down and further analyze it based on the theoretical framework selected. Here, in this section, it emphasizes on answering the three guiding policy questions coined by Bhola (2003) in the 3P model of policy analysis, as a part of using it as a guiding theoretical framework for policy analysis. Finally, this chapter intends to provide a precise conclusion, which sums up the issues discussed. It also leads the discussion to the next chapter, which is the overall conclusion chapter for the research itself.

Setting the Scene

To understand the complex nature of the consequences of the renewing dimensions of LLL on the national higher education policies, it seems important to recall the basic theoretical arguments and try to develop a connected set of theoretical 'attributes', found during the discussion of the Indian dimensions of LLL, which may lead the discussion in this section.

There, the main argument says that the dominant forces in the global economy stem from those, who control the economic and technological institutions (Jarvis, 2008:20). Jarvis, in his theories (Jarvis 2007, 2008) also says that, with globalization, this simple formation of individual power structures has changed into a more complex, interconnected one. This is, according to the theory, the substructure of the whole world (Jarvis 2007:42). The substructure performs and grows internationally and interconnected based on economic practices. The economic power mostly consists of private capitals and often backed up by the political powers of powerful nations. This substructure, as said earlier, is extremely fluid and flexible in order to spread its economic benefits. As many (Rizvi & Lingard 2010; Altbach et al 2009; Jayram, 2006, Jarvis 2007among others) have mentioned that this substructure has become even more powerful in the post cold-war era and especially with the spread of modern information and communication technologies and with the spread of soft technologies (e.g. software, programs, online services). These are easy to mobilize and are able to earn huge economic returns. The mix of power, political willingness and the necessary flexibilities the substructure grew fast and spread almost everywhere.

Jarvis (2007:43) highlighted that, in fact, it is the market competition, which is a major key to create a fast moving world, where the players have to sell their product in the global market to survive and thrive. Hence, there is a significant amount of pressure within the substructure to innovate constantly and market them, as well as find new markets. Thus, on the one hand, it supports new learning and on the other, by its very nature, supports certain modes of continuous learning, mainly which help to support the market to thrive. In other words, the core supports a certain kind of LLL, which gives importance to economy-oriented knowledge, supports flexible, skills and competence based and outcome oriented learning for faster changes. Hence, it promotes

employability over employment, skills over degrees and learning over education. It also promotes individualization, privatization, use of modern ICT, networking, and more than anything, it focuses on the human resource development to support the market and economy.

The above discussion explains theoretically, that **the sub-structure influence and sometime pushes the LLL paradigm in order to survive and grow** at a global scale. This can be considered as the first attributes. However, as mentioned previously, that the sub-structure needs legal authorities, policies, administrative support to strive in a country and, since the sub-structure is not a state it has to depend on other players to move the dice in favour of it. This could be related to the second theoretical attribute related to the substructure**. It, by several mechanisms, puts pressure on the international, national, regional/local and up to the individual levels** (Jarvis, 2007: 42-53) **to make all the necessary changes to make room for the market economy** (and the substructure) to thrive. The power exercised by the core directly influences the international organizations and according to Jarivs (2008: 35), "they are never free from the force of economic power but, at the same time, they exercise their own pressures in each country and this is political power – but it is combined with both symbolic and persuasive power". Therefore, not all international agencies exercise the same pressure on national government and each nation (national level) reacts differently to them. This exercise of power and reaction to it occurs in various degrees in all the other layers of the society (e.g. regional, individual). Explaining this complex situation, Lukes (2005:29) suggests that this practice of power is three dimensional, means that it can exercise over the decision making, and controlling the political agenda over issues and potential issues, sometimes through conflicts and in subjective and real interests (in Jarvis, 2007: 50). The discussion of LLL portrays similar picture. However, it also explores that the immense power of sub structure combined with the rapid spread of the market economy also **try to stop anything, which tries to prevent the spread of the sub-structure**. This can be considered as the third attribute.

The analysis of the complexities of the power dynamics and the discussion of LLL also reveal that other factors which works as regulatory forces (form international, national, regional, local levels, uneven socio-economic situations, poor educational background, political obligations in a multiparty democratic systems etc.) slows pace of substructure. **Therefore, there is not only resistance to the market promoted view of the LLL, but also the counter force continues with an indigenous process of practicing LLL, which is based on welfare mechanism, as opposed to the market one**. This is the fourth theoretical attribute, which can be observed quite strongly in India. However, it seems worth mentioning that in the Indian case, it is not always about the willingness to be in tune with the global core. It is, in many cases, the inability to afford the expenses, which the global dimension brings with it. The situation here is somewhat different from that described in the theory. Therefore, the protest is not always intentional; it is sometime obvious, considering the poor socio-economic conditions of millions of Indians. Importantly the government has to respond to these, especially in a democratic system like India, which Habermas (cited in Jarvis 2008: 30) calls as a 'cushioning effect'.

However, India as an emerging player in the global economy, also adjusts its educational system to make it coherent with the demands and challenges of the global core. It makes policy adjustments, which helps deviating from the long practiced notion of LLL. Here, Jarvis coins another important point, where he shows that-

> The countries are less able to change as rapidly as the global core and so, there is an international global situation of 'divide and rule', with the global core exercising a degree of dominance. This means that the law, democracy and civil society are all exposed to a source of power other than the state- that of the global market (Jarvis, 2007: 48-49).

This situation gives rise to a somewhat uneven mode of change in the perception of LLL, where one section tries to support the traditional dimension of LLL, whereas the other side, which is much more exposed to the global market, supports the global dimension of LLL. Therefore, there is a constant process of balancing between these two and at the same time making the system closer to the global core. It is mentioned in the study of LLL as the 'integrative and fragmented' perspective of LLL. It largely happens because each layer is the recipient of the forces from above and below, the policies and practices it introduces must relate to its exposure to all of these forces (Jarvis, 2008: 36). **This constant process of balancing the two extremes while opting for change** can be considered as the fifth theoretical attribute, which is present in the Indian dimensions of LLL.

Explaining the different rates of change in a society, it is found that from a wide array of reasons, some parts of the Indian society are more accessible to the global core than others, so the changes do not spread completely evenly across the country. Jarvis (2007:49) provides a theoretical explanation of this. However, he considers societies and countries at the same level where the level of exposure to the global core makes different degrees of change among countries. However, this research shows that there are further divisions and sub-divisions inside a nation and its societies. Therefore, the level of exposure and hence the degree of change even varies inside one smaller unit of society (or layer). **These levels of exposure are positively proportionate to the degree of change**, which can be considered as the sixth attribute here. Additionally it is also found in the study (and supported by Jarvis's, 2007 theory) that, those who are better exposed to change, makes significant progress and the gap between the exposed and the underexposed (to the global core) increases further. In other words, different ways of harnessing the global core results in inequality in the society. This can be observed by studying the ability to pay for modern education, using and affording modern ICT tools, being proficient in language skills, level of dynamism of a university and so on.

The above discussion is based on the theory and the analysis done before, shows couple of interlinked attributes, which are the key to analyze the changing situation of the recent Indian higher education policy. Below is a list of these above mentioned attributes, after which, the study discusses the relevance of the theory of Bhola (3P model) in analyzing the higher education issue.

Attributes *(extracted from the previous paragraphs)* **-**

- The substructure, by several mechanisms, puts pressure on the international, national, regional/local and up to the individual levels (Jarvis, 2007: 42-53) to make all the necessary changes to make room for the market economy.
- The power of sub structure combined with the rapid spread of the market economy also tries to prevent anything, which tries to prevent the spread of it.
- There is not only resistance to the market promoted view of the LLL, but also it continues with an indigenous process of practicing LLL, which is based on welfare mechanism, as opposed to the market one. These two forms of LLL run in parallel.
- There is a constant process of balancing the two extremes (global and traditional) while opting for change, especially at the policy levels.
- The levels of exposure to the substructure and globalization and ability to harness them (by all means and at all levels) are positively proportionate to levels of change in the society and hence its perception of the LLL.

Relevance of the 3P Model of Policy Analysis in the analysis of higher education policies in India

The relevance of the model has been discussed thoroughly in the methodology section, (chapter 2) of the thesis. Hence, this section does it very briefly to provide a precise guideline and places it in the context of the analysis of the recent higher education policies of India. As discussed earlier, the model consists of three guiding questions. *Is the policy principled? Is the policy professionally sound? and Is the policy practical?*

All these questions consider one aspect in common, 'the context'. The utmost importance here is, on which context it is being evaluated? Here, in this discussion, the context is broadly India, but more specifically, the national higher education policy domain. Since the study confines itself only to the recent national level policies, using the 3P model in different temporal or other contexts, it could produce different explanations. This dynamic feature, however, provides the relevance of the model in changing circumstances. Therefore, the guiding questions are discussed in the context of a changing policy discourse. There is another common factor in the questions. It places the analysis of the questions in the context of their target beneficiaries. In other words, at every section, it seems relevant to ask 'for whom it is most relevant?' Here, the word 'whom' could range from an individual or institutional level and can go up to the national and the substructure levels. At this point, the 3P model links itself with the theory of Jarvis (2007, 2008) and provides an opportunity to analyze them together.

In the theory, it is mentioned that the substructure exercises power on the other layers. Therefore, the next section analyses how different layers exercise power and influence the changing dimensions of higher education policies in India, which are intertwined with the changing dimensions of LLL.

Analysis

This section attempts to analyze in a series of interlinked sub-section to critically discuss the issue in a coherent way, and to reduce repetition. First, it analyses the influence of the substructure on the international organizations, which reflects through their policies and reports. Second, it focuses on the national situation where it draws references from the analysis of the four selected factors (e.g. economy, ICT, demography and language) and tries to show how the substructure and the international policies influences on the national level. Since the study is delimited to the policy aspect only, it shows the effect on the national level by relating the issue with the recent national level policies related to higher education. These policy responses are then critically analyzed further through the questions coined by the 3P model (Bhola, 2003). This opens the analysis further, where it tries to examine the whole situation in an epigrammatic form.

International influences on higher education policies

During the discussion of the international policy influence on the changing dimensions of LLL, we have seen the perception of the UNESCO, EU, OECD and the World Bank (WB), regarding LLL. Their perceptions also changed in time and they produce policies, which are partly similar and address the challenges of globalization. Here also, we start the discussion with UNESCO, which is followed by the discussion of EU, OECD and WB.

UNESCO

In the domain of higher education, international organizations represents their legacy of policy recommendations, which could be different in nature. According to the study of Spring (2009), among the UNESCO's first priorities in higher education is human capital development and LLL, which places higher education to the role of preparing the learners for the knowledge economy. The second most important goal is however, the values of social justice, consolidation of human rights, sustainable development, democracy and peace. The third priority is the development of research, which serves cultural, social and economic development. The study also highlights that the some of the goals of UNESCO coincides with that of the OECD, where both mention the importance of social cohesion and interconnectedness. It seems even more important in a globalized world, where people from different cultural, ethnic backgrounds (etc.) are migrating and working/ studying together in an unprecedented manner. Hence, it is perhaps important for higher education to educate people to help to maintain a cosmopolitan civic coexistence. The final goal is a long-term one, which argues for higher education to train learners to be dedicated to the improvement of the current globalized form of primary, secondary and tertiary education, including teacher-education. OECD, however neglects some of the priorities set by UNESCO and concentrates more on the goals of higher education for a knowledge economy (Spring 2009).

In this regard, the UNESCO's 1998 World Declaration on Higher Education for the Twenty First Century is a key document to identify UNESCO's perception on higher education. It offered a cohesive view of higher education which aims for sustainable development of mankind and keep the values and solidarities alive. It recognizes that by

providing knowledge and skill oriented higher education tailored to the needs of present and future would enable the graduates in particular and citizens in general to meet the demands of the society. The report also recommends that learners should be given choice and flexibility to study in higher education and opportunities of learning throughout life. The modern higher education should also provide opportunities for social mobility to enhance citizenship education and active participation in society. It will help to improve the world vision and contribute in human-rights development, democracy and peace.

The report put increased importance on the creation and dissemination of advanced knowledge through research and publication. Importantly, it thinks that knowledge should also be dedicated to the service of the community, and assist societies in cultural, social and economic development. Therefore, the UNESCO report supports research in social sciences besides in natural science and technologies. By looking at the recommendations and orientation of the report, it can be understood that it opts for a balanced approach of development. It promotes the idea of supporting the national, regional, international and historic cultures through modern higher education. Hence, it promoted the idea of teaching values which would help to sustain democratic citizenship and would reinforce humanistic perspectives (UNESCO, 1998). Overall, "the document contributed to the development of education at all levels" (Spring 2009: 102)

The analysis of the UNESCO's stand on the higher education shows the intention of a balanced approach while opting for enhanced economic development. This trend can be found in the modern UNESCO documents for the 21st century higher education, which shows that it not only considers the importance of higher education in order to succeed in today's world, but also recognizes that giving economy an almost exclusive focus may lead to an unbalanced development. It says-

> Owing to the scope and pace of change, society has become increasingly knowledge-based so that higher learning and research now act as essential components of cultural, socio-economic and environmentally sustainable development of individuals, communities and nations. Higher education itself is confronted therefore with formidable challenges and must proceed to the most radical change and renewal it has ever been required to undertake, so that our society, which is currently undergoing a profound crisis of values, can transcend mere economic considerations and incorporate deeper dimensions of morality and spirituality (UNESCO, 2012).

Studying the UNESCO's stand on higher education it seems that, since the Indian educational and economic situation are still in a mixed and skewed stage, it could perhaps be important for India to balance between the economic and social aspects of higher education. Interestingly, UNESCO's perception about higher education provides us with a similar trend that of the UNESCO on LLL. It portrays a different picture of the world offered by economy oriented higher educational development, and hence, able to act as a referee (Bhola, 2003) in the domain of higher education as well. However, the UNESCO documents are not something which can be called revolutionary (Spring,

2009:103) and still carries the legacy of a vague and somewhat aims for an utopian idea of the world, which is discussed in the LLL Section.

EU

The European Union policies follow the trend of focusing on market and encouraging European integration. The demand of the state, the union, the market and the society get optimum priorities in their policies related to LLL. However, it is interesting to note that EU policies and its influences are not limited to the EU countries; rather they spread across continents through international treaties, political advocacy and so on.

The policies of higher education in the EU falls under the broader policy arena of LLL. There, the European Commission clearly mentions that "Higher education plays an essential role in society, creating new knowledge, transferring it to students and fostering innovation" (EC, 2013). This rather general statement falls under the wider vision of LLL where the EU promotes the idea of knowledge society, skills and competence development and learning in response to the changing demands of the society. To respond to the changing needs and growing competition in the higher educational market and in economy overall, EU took some reciprocal measures to attract foreign talents to Europe. Part of these came through bilateral negotiations and a main part of it is related with providing higher educational opportunities to international students. India, as one of the largest exporter of student abroad, and as a potential market, soon became the focus for EU. Over the years, it has developed relations with India, also to promote the changing concepts of learning[90], and increase international cooperation. In addition, several twinning program and joint or dual degree programs are running between Indian and European universities[iii].

In a recent report, the Commission publishes a joint declaration with the Indian government on reinforcing co-operation and dialogue in the fields of education and training (March 2009). There, both signatories shares the common view of the increased importance of education and training for the development of the knowledge based societies and economies. The reform agenda is based on the following themes-

- In order to respond to the changes in society and to labor market needs at global level
- Quality and equity in education at all levels
- Academic excellence and linkages with institutes, especially in the field of technology and innovation
- Faculty and student mobility
- Initial and continuing teacher education
- Vocational education and training
- Development of tools to recognize formal learning, transfer of learning outcomes (similar to that of the European Qualification Framework or EQF and European Credit Transfer System or ECTS) promoting the transparency and transferability of qualifications

[90] Through various meetings and conferences with Indian universities, UGC and sending delegates to the seminars and conferences of vice-chancellors of Indian universities.

- LLL policies, particularly the acquisition of basic and new skills, e-learning policies, use of ICT, etc. (EC, 2009)

Both India and the EC agree to review their existing policies to make adjustments and meet regularly for better cooperation and up gradation (EC, 2009). Since the declarations, significant changes have happened and many more Indian higher educational institutions are getting connected with the universities in the EU countries.

At a policy level, EU shows the pathway of development on how it wants to promote the dimensions of LLL. As a next step, the international collaboration with India shows how they are actually spreading it beyond the geographical boundaries of Europe. Being a major transnational organization, it certainly packs significant influential power to reorient the dimensions of higher education in India. However, it seems worth to remember that since Indian education system is diverse and riddled with rigidity, the actual influence of the EU tends to take time in a practice level. It largely depends on the individual universities and their intention on changing themselves. It also depends on how it changes when it faces with resistance. These however, do not deny the fact that national policies are already started to get influenced and Indian policies take global policy changes into account while making their own policies (Shamshu, 2012[91]).

OECD

Similar trends can also be seen in the OECD policies, which also have a reach beyond its member countries. As a major policy maker and advocator for neoliberal economic development, OECD focuses heavily on LLL, as the new-age economy is presumably dependent on the renewing and continuous learning and skills up-gradation. The analyses of OECD policies in the LLL section have shown this trend of shifting its focus from recurrent education to LLL, with innovative ways to quantify learning outcomes. PISA came out as the answer of measuring learning outcomes across countries and provided the policy makers a leading edge to push the learning paradigms based on educational and economic returns. However, although the main emphasis is on economy, OECD started emphasizing on the importance of social-well-being and cohesion as a means of sustainable development.

In spite of the fact that India is not a member country of OECD, it produces reports and suggests what kinds of reforms India requires to upgrade its economy. Educational reforms are one of them, highlighted in the policies. According to OECD, there is an urgent need to improve all the educational sectors of India (OECD, 2007). It recognizes that both public and private funding in higher education is not able to raise the GER in the country. In addition, OECD realizes that public finding in higher education is less likely to increase. Therefore, it proposes a possible solution as to charge tuitions fees from students who can pay and educational loans and scholarships to those who cannot. However, in addition to this rather balanced approach of development it strongly promotes the market-oriented reforms and encourages India to continue with this path of development.

[91] Personal interview

To make better cooperation, OECD also takes initiatives in the forms of workshops and meetings on education and innovation like that of the EU. In a recent workshop titled, 'India-OECD Initiative Collaborative Workshop on Education and Innovation (New Delhi, May, 2012) between the Planning Commission of India (PCI), the Confederation of Indian Industries (CII) and OECD. There, the Chief Economic Advisor of the Ministry of Finance, Government of India, Mr. Kaushik Bashu argued for less regulation and more competition, while speaking about the direction of the Indian higher education policy. Stéphan Vincent-Lancrin (OECD Directorate for Education) adds to this discussion by emphasizing on the skill and innovation deficit India faces in spite of the increase in the GER in higher education. The chairman of the National Knowledge Commission (NKC) Sam Pitroda plead for complete revamping of the exiting higher education system, stressing on the less effectiveness of the existing model which is outdated in contemporary perspective. Throughout the document, skills, competences, better learning environment, efficient evaluation methods and a need for a competitive higher education system emerged many times in different forms. The urge for a paradigm shift seems clear here. However, some mention the importance of liberal arts and creative thinking beyond the boundaries of economic outlooks of higher education today (OECD, 2012).

WB

The WB policies has also changed in a contemporary manner. According to Bonal (2002), the WB policies are now in its softer neo-classical avatar deviating from its original neo-classical one. However, their Structural Adjustment Policies (SAP) still have influence on countries to shift their policies in order to follow the development trajectories demarcated by the Bank. According to the bank, it promotes essential policy reforms to make the sector more efficient, relevant, equitable, transparent, responsive, and lends money for the tertiary educational development to its member countries. Expressing their roles in developing higher education, it mentions that-

> The World Bank is working to encourage not only better-quality outcomes from tertiary education worldwide, but also to promote more efficient tertiary education institutions that innovate and respond positively to meaningful performance-based allocation of resources and accountability systems. Such improvements can stimulate economic growth and help to stem the outward flow of highly skilled human capital by supporting cultures of quality and productivity (World Bank website).

In its latest reports, the WB also promotes gender equality in order to succeed in the age of global competition. According to the Bank, "in a globalized world, then, countries that reduce gender-based inequalities, especially in secondary and tertiary education and in economic participation, will have a clear advantage over those that delay action" (World Bank, 2011: 47).

However, the layout of the Bank's policies are primarily based on the Washington Consensus, mentioned in the discussion of LLL. Relating to this, in 2000, the Task Force

of Higher Education and Society[92] (TFHES) published their report, where they have clearly mentions their approach.

> Higher education is no longer a luxury; it is essential for survival. Higher education is the modern world's 'basic education (World Bank, 2000).

The report finds that in the absence of more and better higher education opportunities, developing countries could expect few benefits from a knowledge based economy (Post, et al. 2004: 214). Hence, these countries need to prioritize higher education more. It needs more investment. Here, it is interesting to note that during 1990, Jomtinen Conference on Education For All (EFA), WB put much greater importance on the increasing funding on primary and elementary education, somewhat neglecting higher education (Post, et al. 2004; Tilak, 2005). Why then the Bank become willing to endorse higher education, which is such a radical departure from its previous approach? According to Post et. al.'s analysis, it is related to a shift in WB's perception of returns from education in a changing circumstances. However, according to Tilak (2005), in post 2000 period, WB took a serious 'u-turn' in the policies that discourage growth of tertiary education in developing countries. Sadly, they attracted little public attention in many developing countries, including India, which is reflected in public sector disinvestment in higher education and corresponding growth in private higher education. Tilak, in fact, goes one-step further, and speculates that "either higher education was ignored in the policy planning exercises of the governments and of the international organizations, or special measures were initiated to reduce the intensity of public efforts in higher education or both" (Tilak, 2005: 154).

It is perhaps hard to prove the speculation of Tilak (2005) about the actual intention of international organization like WB, especially when, in almost all the major documents it constantly recognizes the inequalities in the societies, incomes groups and so on. In the same line, the TFHES report also recognizes that horizontal and vertical disparities do persist in the higher educational domain, especially in the developing countries. It recognizes the differences created by the public non-profit and the private for profit higher educational systems and urges to make necessary shifts in the policy. Nevertheless, in spite of the differences, the WB policies also try to reorient the national policies in the line of neo-liberal agenda. It recognizes that there might not be a single blueprint for all the countries to restructure tertiary education, but there is certainly a common prerequisite for a clear and long-term plan, which recognizes relevant prior experiences, credit transfer, provide access to scholarships and student loans, establish comprehensive qualification and LLL framework (World Bank, 2007). However, the Bank proposes different guidelines for countries with different income levels, similar to what we have seen in the discussion of LLL.

For low income countries, it recommends to; improve quality of tertiary education; align with skill needs of economy; get employers to identify program and skill needs; develop shorter duration technical education programs. For middle income countries, it

[92] Jointly formed by the World Bank and UNESCO in 1998.

recommends to; aim to increase tertiary enrolment; ensure that disciplines and curricula are what the economy requires; strengthen specialized short term degree programs; promote different types of providers; aim for international qualifications and transferability (World Bank 2007: 118). Overall, it provides a clear guideline, which, the modern higher education should follow. It clearly says-

> In sum, at the tertiary level, policy needs to be pragmatic and flexible to help build a qualified labor force that is able to adapt to changing demand in both local and global markets. This implies a shift from public financing to public-private partnerships and the implementation of (a) curricula that include the knowledge and skills required for the new economic context, (b) new mixed-mode teaching to complement traditional face-to-face teaching, (c) and more open policies toward society and the private sector, as opposed to traditional "ivory tower" practices.

From the above discussion of WB policies related to tertiary or higher education, it seems clear that it intends to promote the neo-liberal and market centric agenda forward in spite of the differences and diversities in a country or internationally.

Overall, by looking at all these major international agencies, it can be found that amongst their obvious differences, all of them now focus on certain issues, but rather differently. The most important is perhaps the knowledge economy. The second important thing seems to be the employability factor in the changing economy and hence dynamic skills and competences and other LLL skills. Among others, active citizenship gets increased importance, which is also a part of the social policy of LLL. This is followed by social inclusion and personal fulfillment, which are omnipresent, but focuses on different strata of the society. Interestingly, all of these international organizations mention the need to balance the policies, so that it can maintain a stable situation as much as possible, as they also want the system to move forward, make drastic changes (sometimes) to follow the path they recommend.

Spring (2009:105) however claims that these policy orientations are hardly revolutionary. Most of them aim to teach similar values to all of its learners, promote a rather common set of goals for the world, do not suggest teaching of different social values but imply that all nations should operate by the same (or similar) societal values. This picture of opting for a homogenized world (or 'one worldness'[93]) can be seen rather prominently. This globalized homogenized image of the world influences for achieving a common standard, reaching to a common platform or operating level to compete and being accepted globally. These have capabilities to push the national agencies, not just policy making bodies, to come up with recommendations to reform the higher education (or all educational sectors) in a certain pre-determined way.

India, as an emerging global player and higher education being a strong dominating factor is, also influenced by the policies reports etc. circulating in the international canvas of policy. Some of its effects can perhaps be understood by studying the previous factors (Economy, ICT, Demography and Language) and relating it with the

[93] Mentioned in the LLL section. See chapter 8.

recommendations of the international organizations. However, a systematic analysis could reveal how several nodes are complexly related in case of Indian dimensions of LLL and higher education. Hence, the next section continues this analysis, and draws references from the previous chapter and tries to relate it with the findings of this chapter so far.

Viewing Together: Global, International and National Influence and their Consequences on the Recent Higher Education Policies-

This section of analysis is based on all the previous sections of discussions and analysis. First, it tries to draw reference form the discussion of LLL, and link it with the previous findings of this section (higher education). Secondly, it takes the discussion form global-international-national levels to systematically analyze the discourse. This section of analysis intends to provide a clear understanding of the consequences of the changing dimensions of LLL on the recent changing national higher education policies in India.

It can be seen from the discussion of the attributes derived from Jarvis's theory, that the substructure puts pressure on the international, national, regional and individual levels to make the necessary changes to make room for the market economy to strive (Jarvis, 2007). It emphasizes on how the production system should be and how people should learn constantly to keep them upgraded in order to get and remain employable. It puts pressure on the institutes and countries to make necessary changes in their education systems and policies. The base of influencing up to the individual level is related to the enormous development in the ICT, shift form an industrial model of economy to knowledge oriented one, which makes the entire economic system immensely flexible and mobile. To support this system, more than anything, it requires a pool of human resources, who are also flexible, mobile and lifelong learners. However, the substructure needs a flexible education system and a stable situation, which can support the uninterrupted growth of the market. Hence, it requires policies at all levels, which are largely unidirectional (supports stability) yet versatile to support all the requirements of the fast changing knowledge based economy. It seems that the policies need to maintain a critical balance here. This can, however, be considered as a global phenomenon, as the spread of the substructure and its associated economic activities spread beyond the national boundaries and into many national domains. This might also be related with globalization as it is "probably the most pervasive and powerful feature of the changing environment. Globalization is a term and phenomenon, which is on the minds of policymakers, academics, and professionals/ practitioners no matter what the sector or discipline. Education is no exception" (Knight 2006: 208).

Knight (2002, 2006) also emphasizes that the role of higher education works both as an agent and as reactor of globalization. As an agent, it promotes the idea of a knowledge society and hence a knowledge economy, which is attached to the production and use of the knowledge as a wealth creator. The global impact on higher education is a growing emphasis on continuing education and professional development relevant to the changing society and global market, which in turn creates a huge demand for higher education. The discourse of the active substructure seems to be related here, as it also

supports the same idea of a knowledge society and aims to achieve it by stressing on knowledge economy. Consequently, the need is felt in all education sector in general and higher education in particular, to focus more on new skills and knowledge, resulting in new types of programs and qualifications (Knight, 2006). A much similar recommendations could be found, examining the international organizations and their policy documents. Irrespective of their ideological or operational differences, all of them put increased emphasis on the need of higher education in the changing circumstances on the verge of creating knowledge-based society.

Need for Change

The responses in favor of higher education in this changing globalized circumstances, seems represent it as a reactor of globalization (Knight, 2006). Since, according to Jarvis, globalization is a multidimensional process, and it's forces affects from above and below (Jarvis, 2008; Appadurai, 2001) there are traces, where along with the global changes and international influences, national circumstances also attempts for change, perhaps for its own sake. Referring to the discussion in the previous chapter, it can be seen that the changes in the ICT and the deregulation of the market in post 90s period brings changes in the production pattern and provides the gateway to the knowledge based economy to make its mark along with market economy. In these circumstances, higher education receives huge demands. The national plans, seems to have to respond to this demand from the economy, the market, the substructure sector and from the individuals.

The 10th Five year Plan says-

> Modernisation of syllabi, examination reforms and greater attention to issues of governance of universities and colleges, all require urgent attention (Planning Commission, 2002).

The 11th Plan continues this agenda of reform and recognizes that "higher education will be a key driver in an increasingly globalized and knowledge-driven world" (Planning Commission, 2007) and proposes systematic sector wise plans. The recent 12th Five year plan (draft) again continues with the same agenda, but the difference is, this time, it puts increased importance on the components linked with LLL. According to the plan:

> Higher education is critical for developing a modern economy, a just society and a vibrant polity. It equips young people with skills relevant for the labour market and the opportunity for social mobility. It provides people already in employment with skills to negotiate rapidly evolving career requirements. It prepares all to be responsible citizens who value a democratic and pluralistic society. Thus, the nation creates an intellectual repository of human capital to meet the country's needs and shape its future. Indeed, higher education is the principal site at which our national goals, developmental priorities and civic values can be examined and refined (Planning Commission, 2013c: 97).

It continues-

> Higher education needs to prepare graduates not only for immediate employment but also for an economy in which most people will not only change jobs but also change careers several times in their lives. Hence, it requires inculcating the ability in students to think creatively, read critically, construct

effective arguments using persuasive evidence, write clearly, remain flexible and look at issues with an open mind (Planning Commission, 2013c: 107).

Several insights can be drawn from the section above. First, the recent plan is more focused towards linking higher education and socio-economic development. Thus, it projects the 'inclusive development concept' of the Indian society, however, by focusing on the economic development. Secondly, it recognizes, prepares and projects its policies and strategies to benefit from the dynamic internationalizing society. Here, the marks of LLL can be found as a means of benefitting from the changing circumstances. Consequently, it puts utmost importance on 'learning', which includes four key dynamic skills (4c[94]) for new learners and for them who are already employed. Importantly, it also focuses on imparting civic and democratic values through higher education. Lastly, it raises the bar of the higher education as the principal sector of education to achieve the national goal of becoming a knowledge based society and economy. Analyzing the situation with Bhola's (2003:451) idea of a principled policy, it can be said that the urge to reform the policies, at least envisions and promotes the idea of a economically advanced society. However, whether or not it is planned to sustain a moral social order, which is just and fair, is difficult to judge from the initial policy statements. Nevertheless, the need of change is clearly felt in all the plans and it is carried over steadily and infused with the renewed dimensions of LLL.

Direction of Change

Since the renewed dimensions of LLL in India have many facets and particularly it represents a somewhat integrative and fragmented perspective, it conveys in the higher education policies as well. In addition, the global economic directions are influencing India in a larger scale than ever and as it is discussed in the LLL section, that education policies are also influenced by these global directions of change. It is "because each country's' economy is not an island of its own. It is influenced internationally. In this sense, the economic needs are promoting new policies and because education is very important, it is interconnecting all of these together" (Mohankumar, 2012 in the personal interview). We have discussed even how a temporary global economic factor (e.g. international economic recession) can also influence India and can change its LLL dimensions. The question is how it works, especially in the higher education policy domain.

Largely, it is answered in the LLL section, where the theory (by Jarvis, 2007) explains that in the interconnected world, the core is very powerful. However, it is also very dynamic and the speed of change is fast inside the core as there is also an internal competition inside the core or the substructure, which aims to lead the global market economy. Because of these sheer competitions, invention and innovation are being fostered constantly. These are also capable of adding new dynamics in the substructure and add considerable pressure on the other layers to cope up. Jarvis (2007:48), however, shows that the change in the core is faster than those aspects of the global system that are not so market-driven. Nevertheless, these changes and pressures on the other layers (international, national etc.) have profound effects on LLL and on higher education as

[94] critical thinking, communication skills, collaboration in changing circumstances and creativity

well. To cope with the core, which is faster to change itself, international organizations promotes the changes in the direction favorable to the core. However, as it can be seen that different international organizations have different outlooks, they make policies accordingly. Nevertheless, since market economy is widespread, the international organizations' policies either try to support it or find way to cope with it. In both ways, it supports some changes, which are pro-substructure. Thus, among the major international organizations, the EU, WB, OECD, and to some extent, UNESCO, support the internationalization in higher education. Whereas OECD asks for globally oriented reforms in Indian higher education, the WB thinks it is an absolute necessity in today's world. The view of UNESCO is not so different either with flair of supporting the downtrodden to bring them in the main track of educational development. All of them promote skills and competences needed to cope with the fast changing world, which looks similar to the claims to cope with the changing core or substructure. EU on the other hand, moves one-step ahead and extends its policy to the next level by offering more internationalizing opportunities for Indian higher education. Through tie-ups, scholarships, student exchange and knowledge sharing, it not only does it helps to make a better internationally oriented higher educational environment, but also is able to inject a change in the international directions for the Indian higher educational domain.

In the national level policies, these trends are quite evident. To change the direction the 11th Plan stresses on reforming the regulatory institutions of higher education. It says-

> It is, therefore, imperative to review the changing role that these organizations are expected to perform in the context of global changes, with a view to enabling them to reach out, regulate and maintain standards, and meet the challenges of diversification to enhance access and maintain the quality and standards of higher, professional, and technical education. This would help create and expand the relevant knowledge base from the point of view of the expanding individual entitlements and increasing the capacity of the economy to take full advantage of the domestic and global opportunities (Govt. of India, 2007).

This urge to tap the benefits of the global changes could be seen repeatedly in the discussion of LLL. The 11th plan seems clearly finds out that to change the direction, it is important to change the internal aspects of the organizations. The 12th plan moves this agenda forward and adds the component of 'internationalization' in Indian higher education. It therefore includes-

> A range of reforms aimed at improving the overall educational experience in HEI[95]s. These include reforms in institutional organisation; reforms of pedagogy and curricula, […]; and a focus on faculty and their work. These reforms would be supported by smarter use of technology, initiatives to promote internationalisation, the fostering of social responsibility in higher education, promotion of sports and wellness, increasing inter-institutional collaboration and coordination, and strengthening the accreditation system (Planning Commission of India, 2013c).

[95] HEI – Higher Education Institution

Here, the plan follows relatively the same line of thought promoted by the international organizations along with a strong sense of competing in the global arena with its improving higher education. Interestingly however, the plan also focuses on the aspect of social responsibilities and wellness in higher education. This is possibly the impact of the Yashpal Committee Report (2009), which, aims at a modern but a more secure mode of reform, where it agues to take cautious steps in reforming the system in the fast changing circumstances. However, one notable fact is that, all these policies and their reforming agendas are largely set by the reports of the National Knowledge Commission (NKC). The NKC continually mentions the need of reform in the Indian higher education arena since it was created in 2006. It first championed that "the objectives of reform and change in our higher education system must be expansion, excellence and Inclusion" (NKC, 2009: 62), which would help India to leap forwards towards a knowledge based society. Although their internal components have been modified over time and changing necessities, in all the successive plans and reports, these three basic objectives have been given utmost importance.

At this point of analysis, the neo-liberal dimensions of LLL seems dominating the higher education policies. However, the study of Bhushan (2009) helps us to understand another side of it. As per Bhushan, the links between the genesis of the recommendations of NKC on higher education is liked with the assumptions of liberal and neo-liberal systems of thoughts and practices. It is based on the understanding that state alone cannot be an efficient allocator of resources. However, it is the state's duty to balance the power and be a mediator, which has to follow the principles of the market. This is common in many OECD countries and recommended by other neo-liberal international organizations. Here, Bhushan (2009:146-147) says that the state in the developing countries tries to balance the struggle of power in unpredictable ways. In India, often the understanding is based on highly unstable coalition of political parties with varied set of interests and agendas, incorporating varied groups of industrial capitalists, rural peasantry and '*dalits*'[96]. Therefore, a consensus is difficult to arrive and most of the decisions are taken in an ad hoc manner without providing systematic directions to the higher education policies (Bhushan, 2009). This research acknowledges the difficulties and dilemmas it bring to channelize the policies in a certain (e.g. neo-liberal) direction in a multi-party political system of India. However, it seems also important to remember that since the beginning of the NKC (2006), there is no change in the central government of India, which helps to keep the agenda set by the prime minister of India Mr. Manmohan Singh, who was the chairman of NKC and the chief architect of the economic restructuring of India in the 90s. Hence, it seems plausible to argue that although there are possible political obligations to cater to the demands of different stakeholders, the government is largely able to follow a preset direction of development. However, the research also mentions in the LLL section that due to the fact that the government receives the pressure from different stakeholders (political coalitions, civil society, NGOs, etc.) it has to conform to the needs of all; but the level of importance is likely to vary.

[96] Formally known as the 'untouchables'. They belong to the category of SC, ST, and OBC.

In the higher education domain, however, the power of opposing stakeholders seems softens, as many (Shamshu 2012; Mohankumar, 2012; Seth 2012, Shah 2012[97]) have pointed out that; irrespective of the different interests of the stakeholders, nearly all want higher educational development for better employability and economic prosperity. Moreover, since it is related with the future of the youth (who are also voters, supporters of political parties, employees, employers and so on), there is less resistance to the agenda initiated by NKC and carried forward by national plans. There is however, a constant process of refraining the government from withdrawing the social benefits from the higher education sector and deviate from a social developmental outlook. These results in an array of priority areas in the higher education policies and seems to correspond with the complex and somewhat integrative / fragmented dimensions of LLL.

Priorities

The priorities in the higher education reforms depend on the strengths, weaknesses and ability of a country, related with its educational capabilities and vision for development (among others). It also depends on how the policies attempts to deal with the pressures of the substructure and other layers, which are exercising power at different levels. Overall, it depends on, the context, in which development is planned. Williams and Cummings (2005) argues that there could be three salient questions, which are important to determine the policy priorities. These are-

- Are enactors able to? Which means, are the implementers able to implement/sustain the policy or change?
- Do they have to? Is related to how free are the implementers in order to implement and sustain the reforms. And lastly,
- Do they want to? Or does it make sense for implementers on balance, given other choices etc. considering the history, values, goals competing claims on attention and time, the costs and benefits from the perspectives of implementation, which is also likely to include organizational, economic, political, social, cultural, historical and perhaps ideological considerations.

(Williams and Cummings, 2005: 62).

Some of these questions appeared already, although in an innate manner, in some of the previous discussion and to some extent they perhaps resemble with some of the components of Bhola's (2003) 3P model. Nevertheless, these three questions could help to understand the priorities depicted in the Indian higher educational policies. For example, previous analysis shows that the policies intend to promote higher education to the masses and increase enrolment. In addition to India's low GER in higher education, it is perhaps related with the factor that India has one of the largest number of youth population, and therefore, they are potential human resources. Moreover, it is a large market as well. Therefore, the two basic conditions - demand and supply are fulfilled. Additionally, the sheer pressure of utilizing the demographic dividend works as an

[97] Personal interview (Shamshu, Mohankumar, Seth, Shah, 2012).

inevitable trigger. However, the trend in the knowledge economy shows its development mostly in the professional field of higher education.

As a consequence, the policies are somewhat less free to direct the priorities other than professional fields. Interestingly here, Williams and Cummings (2205) put the last question as 'do they want to?' In a general situation, this could have been the first question showing the intentions. However, in a policy domain, there are several factors, which demand a balanced approach and push the policies to be critical on considering globalization as a mere economic challenge "which demands a straightforward and easily replicable set of educational reforms that will raise the international competitiveness of domestic economies" (Mundy 2005: 7). Therefore, although the basic direction is market-oriented competitive reform, the policies also have to take the diverse Indian socio-economic, demographic, political, cultural, regional and historical contexts into account, which also includes the existing mix of traditional and modern educational culture and traditions. These result in varied priorities under one set of reform. In this way, the policies try to make them 'professionally sound' (Bhola, 2003) for all levels of the society. Extending the example of the same demography related higher educational reform, it can be found that, it also promotes loans, scholarships, reservations (caste, religion, gender and economic conditions based) and special benefits etc. These are focused towards equity oriented development rather than making the ground competitive.

Another factor, which helps determining the policy priorities, is related with the previous set of questions. It is the rationale, each level (according to Jarvis's theory, 2007) proposes for reform. The rationale for the substructure is clear, it's the growth of market. The rationale for the international organizations varies, yet they tend to sow a common set of recommendations in support of the changing needs and making the ground homogenized. For the national level, these help to set the rationale, which is of course, primarily based on the national capabilities, obligations and willingness (refereeing to the three previous set of questions) to reform the system. For India, the rationales seems also to confront with the general idea of higher educational reform. The study of Knight (2009) helps to identify some general factors, which also seem applicable for India. It prioritizes on:

- Human resource development- The importance on developing human resource was there in Indian policies, but it got increased importance recently. This is not just because of the demographic dividend, but also for the knowledge based economy, mobility of the labor force and the basic realization that human works as a resource and also as a market. There is also increased pressure from the employers to recruit skilled employees, and pressure from the universities to enroll bright students. Moreover, the government realizes that the type of job has changed, so as the role of the employees, who are more dynamic and mobile than ever before (e.g. in XIIth Plan, 2013). One obvious way for a country to succeed and retain its human resources is to properly train them, not just to serve the economy, but perhaps also be an active member of the consumer society (mentioned in the LLL section). In addition, there is now more attention to

improve the teaching, learning and research, so that domestic students (and perhaps incoming foreign students as well, which are increasing slowly in India) can be better equipped to contribute to the development of the country. Due to these, along with the main idea of 3Es (Expansion, Equity and Excellence) the introduction of the key skills (4Cs - critical thinking, communication skills, collaboration in changing circumstances and creativity) seem necessary in the Indian higher education.

- **Strategic Alliances**- It is seen in the discussion of the four factors, that higher education not only aims to serve as a means of economic development, it is used for better alliances between nations, nations and international organizations, universities, research institutes and so on. These could be for further academic, economic, political or socio-cultural purposes. In an increasingly globalizing world, alliances are seen as a productive way of working and networking. International organizations like the EU has been able to strengthen its alliance with India by offering different types of academic tie ups at national, regional and institutional levels. Besides, there are independent alliances between institutions and departments, which help to improve knowledge sharing and perhaps work as a means of homogenization as well. These networks (at real and virtual levels) engage in meeting, seminars, joint publication etc. which, according to Spring (2009: 109-115) help promoting a common global academic values and practices. However, Altbach argues that due to the persisting inequality between nations and their academic systems a worldwide academic community, practices or values, based on shared vision is highly unlikely (Altbach, 2008). Nevertheless, the point is the alliances are certainly able to influence each other and as we have seen in the prior discussion, that often the economically stronger country with a well reputed academic system is able to take a commanding role in influencing others.

- **Income generation/ commercial trade** – Since 1990s, but more in the post 2000 period, the Indian higher education has seen a plethora of changes, which are mostly influenced by the changes in the global higher educational arena. More and more emphasis has been placed on economic and income generating opportunities. Private higher education mushrooms and flourishes rapidly. Foreign higher educational providers are eager to establish their campuses in India. In other words, India has turned as a lucrative market for higher education. The government also realizes that, along with the rich, there is large group of middle class population in India, who are ready to pay for their higher education. This provides the policies with a unique opportunity to not only waive the subsidies, but also promote the idea of self-financed higher education, where the government is less responsible, following the idea of the neo-liberal dimension of LLL. Moreover, the sector proposes large income generation for the service providers and for the government as well. The influence of GATS seems prominent here, as in GATS education is one of the twelve service sectors. Here, the economic priorities are helping the government to serve the requirements of

the market, the private providers, and a large part of the population (higher and middle class). Not surprisingly however, there is a large section of population, who cannot afford this commercialized higher education. For them, there are some safety nets, or in the words of Habermas (2006:81 in Jarvis 2008:30) 'cushioning' measures.

- **Nation Building/ institution building** - A large group of properly skilled and competent citizens and workforce, who are also proactive and independent learners are the key components of the country's nation building agenda. This is directly related with one of the basic principle of the modern dimension of LLL of active learning, and learning society, which help the individual as well as the nation. India championed this agenda by promoting the dream of becoming a knowledge based society and economy in its policies. However, as the educational scenario in India is still far from perfect, it has to look after at the process of nation building in a rather 'less-revolutionary' way. However, by saying 'less-revolutionary' it does not intend to prove that there is no paradigmatic change in this domain. Rather it argues that due to its inequalities and diverse conditions, India has to take careful steps.

- **Social/Cultural development and mutual understanding**- The social and cultural development, although not in forefront, but still relevant for a country like India. However, it does not carry the same weight in comparison to the economic and political based rationales in its higher education policies. Nevertheless, the policies not just try to reduce the international barriers but also, sometimes innately, also act as reducing intra-national barriers, which are related to India's lingual, cultural, regional characteristics, as discussed earlier.

Overall, the recent Xth XIth and XIIth plans put utmost importance on human resource development for the changing world. The Yashpal committee report (2009) also focuses on this; however, it is more concerned about the complete development of a human being, including the development of his/her spiritual sides. The latest plans also focus on the internationalization of higher education (XIIth Plan, Govt. of India, 2013), tries to make international networks, with the hope to help the Indian traditional academic system to uplift to global standards. It seems the standardization or homogenization is quite prominently active here. Along with it, spreading the higher education to the masses through encouraging privatization shows the commercial priorities of the government. The improvement of science and technology is although focusing at the economic gain, but also shows the government's interest in a nation building to become knowledge based society. On the other hand, however, the plans continues to focus on improving the traditional subjects, courses, etc. and recognizes the importance of the larger social contexts of the higher educational reform.

The basic difference between this trend and that of the discourse of LLL, is that, in higher educational policies, improving the traditional subjects, their evaluation methods etc. means bringing them in tune with the modern global practices in the long run. Whereas in case of LLL, the effort largely consist of keeping and continuing with the traditional

perspectives as the problems are basic and could not be overcome since decades. Contrastingly, in the higher education policy domain, there is a pro-active trend to bridge the gap to make the ground as level as possible, so that the policies, the state, the market can operate seamlessly. Here, Tilak (2002, 2006; Bhushan, 2009; Altbach, 2009 among others) think that in India, achieving a level ground is perhaps a fur-flung dream, due to its immense diversity and inequality even within the higher educational scenario. Nevertheless, this thought does not stop Indian policies to opt for higher educational reforms and suggest measures to change the system.

Reforms-

Reforms, in the Indian higher education domain cannot be fully understood only by examining the national level policies as higher education is also a state matter. Nevertheless, these policies provide a clear guideline on the direction and intensity of the reforms to be undertaken. Therefore, this sub-section analyzes the major reform agendas set by the latest higher education policies of India. First, it seems relevant to mention that the reform agenda follows the basic priority areas mentioned above. Secondly, because of the complex and diverse nature of India's educational scenario, the reforms also tend to get complex as well. The important aspect to note is that how much the reforms (or proposed reforms) are inclined to the different dimensions of LLL. To begin with, we may recall the analysis of Knight (2009), which expresses how the elements of higher education (e.g. knowledge society) influence higher education globally. This section helps to explore this issue further and analyzes the implication of the above on the Indian dimensions of higher education.

Knight (2009) shows that the elements of globalization such as the knowledge economy, ICT, Market economy, trade liberalization, changing governance, domination of corporate culture etc. have immense effects on higher education globally. Directly and indirectly, they promote continuing education or LLL, skills and competences development, mainly in professional fields and create a greater demand for higher education. This demand in turn brings new types of private and public providers providing education in a completely new fashion and often across geographical borders. Consequently, the traditional role of the universities changes and new types of universities/ higher educational institutes emerges to serve the changing needs. Significantly, these become more commercialized and demand-driven. Due to increase commercialization and because of the demand-driven higher education, the programs tend to become more responsive to market demand. Specialized training programs develop out of the demand of the market. As the market gets global/ international, so the learners, at least those who have access to technology, merit and/or paying capacities. Hence, the learners and academics move across national/ regional borders, both physically and virtually also indicating towards the upsurge of distance education due to improved ICTs. This cost-effective, flexible, mobile mode of higher education does not only provide education in a traditional methods, but also finds innovative solutions for delivery, including accreditation of programs etc. These new types of cross-border educational providers have to perform in different cultures and countries, and thus, indirectly promote homogenization as well as new opportunities for hybridization. Since the system is itself proactive and dynamic, the role of the policies changes largely

and mainly focus on the management of the growth and determines, which is most suitable in a given short and long-term time and space frame. This new type of educational management/ governance concentrates more on quality assurance, accreditation, credit transfer, recognition of qualification, mobility of students etc. (Knight, 2009: 210).

The above paragraph is a general study about the impact of globalization on the higher education domain by Knight (2009). Now, there are two major points to be considered. First, not all of the elements of globalization are likely to be applicable for the Indian higher education scenario. Second, not all the impacts of globalization would result in equally similar impacts and implications for the higher educational reforms in India. There could be some more points to be considered here; nevertheless, these elements and their impacts give a clearer picture of the reform agendas and help to analyze the policies better. In addition, there are several ironies related with the competitive reforms in response to the economic globalization. It is often seen as a territorial threat that globalization poses on the state, to re-territorialize control over its economies. Secondly, the market driven reforms are tend to squeeze-out the equity driven mandates and erode the safety nets (Mundy, 2005: 9-12). Therefore although there might not be a resistance to the reforms as such, but there are possible demands to the government to stop the market from taking the overwhelming role. The following analysis of the selected reform agendas of the 11th and 12th plans depict some of these aspects to help analyzing the present situation.

The 12th Plan appreciates the expansion of higher education but acknowledge that the rising aspirations of young people, improved schooling, and the fact that jobs created through rapid economic growth and skill-based technical change require effective and immediate higher educational reforms (Planning Commission, 2013c: 97). They highlight that the system is still underperforming and unable to provide enough quality human resources, who are equipped with the required knowledge and skilled to cater to the needs of the changing economy. To meet these diverse and dynamic needs, the plan sketches out some key principles for expanding higher education, which are going to drive the reforms and set pathways for future. Therefore, it plans for expansion, which must be aligned to the country's economy, its different and changing set of job market and looking at the self-employment opportunities. The plan not just recommends the higher education to follow the popular trajectories of development in science and technology, but also encourages general higher education to become more skill oriented, many of which are directly being linked with the core skills of LLL, discussed in the study. The Plan says that-

> If properly imparted, general education could be an excellent foundation for successful knowledge-based careers. Therefore, focus should be primarily on improving the quality of general education. Graduates should be able to acquire skills beyond the basics of reading, writing and arithmetic (the '3Rs'). Critical thinking, communication, collaboration and creativity (The 4Cs) are increasingly important now. Special emphasis on verbal and written communication skills, especially, but not limited to English, would go a long way in improving the

> employability of the large and growing mass of disempowered youth (Planning Commission, 2013c: 106)

The core focus here is to impart skills, which is different from the traditional model of education, where subject specific and information oriented education used to get optimum priority. Contrastingly, this plan opts for opening multidisciplinary ICT and research-based institutions, increase the opportunity by expanding the distance learning capacity with the help of modern ICT tolls and teaching learning techniques and by welcoming private partnerships (PPP). However, at the same time, it stresses on providing the benefits of higher education to the poor and disadvantageous sections and to the institutions/ regions / states, which are lacking it.

The plans however, highlight that India has the demographic advantages and it can provide a good fortune if the potential of young working age population can be tapped effectively. The XIIth plan also stresses the issue of the global competitiveness and thinks that although at present, China is a great competition to India, but with the demographic dividend, India is in a better off position in the long-run.

> The key challenge is to find a path to achieve the divergent goals for the growth of higher education in India. Combining access with affordability and ensuring high-quality undergraduate and postgraduate education are vital for realising the potential of the country's 'demographic dividend' (Planning Commission, 2013c: 90).

To reap the benefits of the dividend, the plan encourages to increase the GER and quality higher education, which is much lower than the world average of 26 percent. It also expresses that only increasing the GER would not help much if the higher education cannot make the students ready to meet the challenges of the world of work. It is a serious concern, by looking at the growing number of educated unemployed in the country. Hence, the plans stress on quality improvement in higher education, learning key vocational and generic skills and urge for more autonomy and accountability for the sector. It clearly states-

> This [aim to make the higher education universal, must be accompanied by offering a wider, diverse range of education—the student should be able to acquire skills in multiple disciplines while achieving a solid core set of skills and at a pace that is customised to individual's capacity to learn (Planning Commission, 2013c: 97).

Here, it recognizes to make the system individual need specific, dynamic, efficient and contemporary.

> Future expansion [therefore,] should be carefully planned so as to correct regional and social imbalances, reinvigorate institutions to improve standards and reach international benchmarks of excellence, match demand with supply by improving employability, and extend the frontiers of knowledge (Planning Commission, 2013c)

To make them materialized, however needs a 'paradigmatic shift' (Planning Commission, 2013c: 91) in the strategy, also in the area of funding strategy. The 12th Plan proposes 'demand-based grants' and 'outcome-based budgeting' as solutions. Three things are important to note here in relation to the influence of LLL on higher education policies. First, this new funding strategy makes the institutes more accountable, but more

so, in the line which the funding agency (in this case, the central government) determines. Secondly, in this way, the institutions are pursued to change faster, since the availability of the next allotment, is from now on, depends on the successful completion of the previous task. Third, this might also help changing the rigid nature of the higher educational institutes who are not so willing to change and 'improve efficiency' (Bhushan, 2013:18). Shamshu, in a personal interview explains how this might work-

> The reasons they might not be wanting to change are multiple. […] But now, it is up to the institutions that whether they have faculty or not, within your own institution; or it is up to the institutions to go and find the intellectual capital from wherever sources. But they have to offer courses which are relevant to the changing needs (Shamshu, 2012).

Interestingly, this method of funding is somewhat similar to the funding strategy of the World Bank (SAP) where the goal is preset and funding is only available if the organization/country agrees to the goal and makes necessary structural adjustments. However, in the Indian case, it might not be so rigid, as the policy also wants a 'decentralized fund-disperse' mechanism. How it might influence the higher educational institutions could be an interesting field for future research. Nevertheless, this is a step to retune the higher educational institutions in the line of the dimension of LLL, focusing towards the changing needs.

Several points are important in the above discussion. First, the need for a change is felt within the system, which coins that the demand is also coming from the aspiring Indians. The direction of change/ reform however set by the global competitions and in the line of the global higher educational reforms. The interesting point is that, although the market is given higher value but the government's responsibility in providing safeguards to the downtrodden has also been mentioned repeatedly. This helps to analyze the dynamics of pressure on the society from above and below, mentioned by Jarvis (2007, 2008), where the policy representing the country, although become aligned to the market, but cannot ignore the other social sides of its responsibilities. This act of 'balancing' is perhaps related with the fact the India is a country with a massive degree of inequality. Therefore, a one sided policy is not sustainable. This could thus be considered as an effort from the policy to be as practical as possible, in terms of projecting it is implementability (Bhola, 2003) in the long run. In a personal interview, the Joint Advisor of the Planning Commission expresses her rationale on the discourse of balancing the situation. According to her-

> The idea is that you have a growth, which is all-encompassing. In fact, unless it's all encompassing, it cannot be sustainable. So, you cannot have a short term measure which is talking of an inclusive growth. It has to be a sustained thing to ensure the development of all the so-called disadvantageous sections of the society ranging from the socially backward sections to the economically backward sections, to the minorities who might not be doing so well. All of these to be taken care of in this agenda of education (Shamshu, 2012).

The 12th plan clearly marks its strategy, recognizing that-

> As higher education expands, more students will come from hitherto marginalised sections of society. HEIs must gear themselves to face the challenge of catering to the needs of such students to further reduce inequalities in access (Planning Commission, 2013c: 103).

This rationale is somewhat represented thorough the recent policies where they mention about providing scholarships, easy educational loans so that those who are aspirants and intelligent, can also afford higher education. It is worth mentioning that this is a partial shift from the previous model where education tends to be free or very affordable. Instead, this present policies recognize the fact that the higher education might not be cheap, but there should still be provision for many to enroll. In addition, from a political point of view, the issue of scholarship is related with the issue of giving equal opportunity to all and to close the gaps existing at various socio-economic and educational levels in India. Gender related disparity represents another very acute picture of inequality in the Indian higher education level. The enrolment rate of girls compare to boys shows a low average rate. Furthermore, the disparities are prominent between different religion, and gender differences within specific religions. In fact, the disparities are prominent between the people form scheduled caste (SC), schedules tribes (ST) and other backward classes (OBC) belonging to different religions. Other differences are also prominent between different occupational groups, situated in rural or urban areas and people of different income groups. The plan suggests different solutions to spread the higher education to the masses. It even encourages private providers to take part in this equity initiative wants them to spread beyond the professional courses; venture into the territory of the traditional arts and commerce courses and provide support to the disadvantageous sections of the students through finding innovative solutions. Many of these solutions are neither so market friendly nor purely neo-liberal in nature.

The plan therefore, claims to take a 'quantum jump' in establishing equity in the Indian higher education area. Like a successor of the previous plan, it continues to promote the idea of equity by providing reservation in order to reduce gender, caste and religious discriminations. In addition, this plan clearly states its agenda that "no student is deprived of higher education opportunities for financial reasons" (Planning Commission, 2013c: 104). It attempts to create a comprehensive student financial aid program, promotes quality teaching-learning, also in Indian languages to further reduce the inequalities. This language issue is especially significant, where on one hand, the policy promotes English as the main official language for work and economy, and on the other hand, promotes regional languages. It is, as highlighted earlier, to support the higher educational institution where students (and sometimes teachers) are not English proficient. Hence, to make the education meaningful, the use of the popular regional language is perhaps not an option, it is mandatory.

These obligations and responsibilities other than market orientations can be found throughout the policy documents. Overall, the final aim is to build an advanced nation with autonomous and accountable higher educational system. The plan claims to adopt a 'holistic approach' to the issues of expansion, equity and excellence. The 12th plan concludes with a significant note-

> It is imperative that during the Twelfth Plan period the country undertakes an overhaul of higher education and creates a robust, quality-driven system that is accessible to all segments of society. This is essential not only to ensure the continued economic growth of the country, but it is also necessary for social cohesion and to meet the rising aspirations of the country's young people (Planning Commission, 2013c).

LLL in Higher Education Policies

At a glance, the recent higher education policies in India seems representing a consolidated picture of a 'educational development for all', which is trying to achieve it by focusing more on the market and the integrative/ fragmented notion of LLL. Therefore, it could also seem that just the method to achieve a 'common good' has been changed, not the aim itself. However, Tilak (2012) thinks that these are "loud policy statements" and although the policy may promote faster economic growth, but would most likely to fail to promote the inclusive growth as they are largely based on "incompatible strategies" that primarily promote the "privatization mantra". To him, the policy statements like the 'holistic development' or the 'balanced approach to target the under-represented sections of the society' or even the statement like 'no student who is eligible to be admitted should be deprived of higher education for financial reasons' look like "rhetorical" (TIlak, 2012: 26-41). Bhushan (2013) thinks that the latest policy invokes the 'for-profit' principle and unprecedentedly considers to re-examine the not-for-profit' approach as a 'pragmatic consideration', as this could indicate towards a shortage of public resources and the realization that "private resources in a large magnitude could not be without a profit motive" (Bhushan, 2013: 17). Following Thomas Paine's (1995: 5) argument, it can also be said that although apparently it seems that the new relationship between market, education and policies is something that exists with a degree of equality for the common good, but there is also the realization that the 'common good' is rather a mythical concept, in an individualistic world. Also, following Jarvis's (2007, 2008) argument it can be said that since the educational policies and their orientations are determined by the dynamics of power, which, by its very nature is not neutral, it is perhaps over simplified to assume that the policies are opting for a neutral or equal fortune for all.

This study however recognizes that it is perhaps difficult to determine at the moment that whether or not the policy statements in support of the deprived section of the society are just rhetoric or not; or whether the decision to promote the for-profit higher education is because of the shortage of the public funding and so on. For that, we need to wait to see how the policy is implemented. There are however, these controversies and doubts related to the policy texts, which urge to look beyond the textual facts and examine the hidden meanings between the lines.

In the beginning of this chapter, the major attributes derived from the analysis of the dimensions of LLL in India are mentioned and used in the above discussion. Among them, the first one says that the substructure, by several mechanisms, puts pressure on

the international, national, regional/local and up to the individual levels (Jarvis, 2007: 42-53) to make all the necessary changes to make room for the market economy. It is clear after the analysis of the recent policies that the substructure exercise its pressure on the remaining layer of the society and hence able to clearly influence the national higher educational policies in India. Overall, the idea of expanding the higher education by promoting technology (ICT), open universities, expansion of conventional universities, welcoming private providers, bringing innovation and change etc. Thus, it represents several bits of a bigger picture. It seems indicating towards a major part of an intricate network of global economies, development of information and communication technologies and a national education system, which is becoming increasingly complex and interdependent with the global phenomenon. Hence, the international organizations exercise both symbolic and persuasive power on India as well. However, it varies sometimes between UNESCO, OECD, EU and the WB, as their aims and general characteristics of policies vary.

The second attribute is linked with the first one. It says that the power of sub structure combined with the rapid spread of the market economy also try to prevent anything, which tries to prevent the spread of it. However, as it is seen here in the discussion of higher education, that there the resistance is not as strong as it is against the global dimension of LLL in general. In fact, it seems that the resistance to the market promoted view of the LLL could not percolate to higher education domain much, or it has been already eased out up to a great extend. Hence, the market here is swifter and the influence is more prominent. There are however, resistance to privatization, economically expensive nature of the higher education and the recognition that due to the new market oriented reforms, some social and moral "values are diminishing faster" (Shamshu, 2012, in the personal interview). Nevertheless, these are not so powerful forces to stop the progress of the substructure as there is also support form a large section of population who can get or hope to get the benefits from these changes. Contrastingly, some higher educational institutions are still trying to perform in a traditional way, but they are fast becoming marginalized and from a policy perspective, they are to change eventually. Hence, the indigenous process of practicing higher education on a welfare mechanism, as opposed to the market one, might not going to be strongly evident in the near future in the Indian higher educational domain. However, the policies still mention them, and sometimes the welfare discourse appears in the policies, quite strongly.

Jarvis (2008) shows that this is related with a vital question of 'who is responsible for others, when a society (here, policy/ government) adopts the neo-liberal economic policies more than others. Interestingly however, the Indian higher education policy tries to balance the situation while opting for a paradigmatic change. This response, according to Habermas (2006: 81 in Jarvis, 2008:52), is one of the general responses to globalization at national level. Habermas (2006) however mentions about two effects, namely- the 'cushioned', and 'catch up'. The later, according to the theory, is a vague concept that the politics will eventually catch up with the market and will be eventually able to regulate them. The first one, however thinks and responds differently. It recognizes that the forces of global capitalism is unleashed and cannot be tamed. Therefore, the

government has to introduce policies that can cushion the effect and let welfare work. Jarvis (2008) claims that elements of both types are sometimes present in some policy statements. In case of India, this seems valid, as on the one hand, the policy assumes that the county needs to catch up with the market to achieve a stage of individual, societal and national development. On the other hand, it tries to protect the traditional welfare practices, which help to cushion the fury of global capitalism from creating further inequalities. This mixed mechanism could perhaps be termed as the 'third way' after Giddens (1998) and Jarvis (2008).

The processes; how the policy wants to balance the situation provides enough evidence to support another attribute, derived from the discussion of LLL. It states that the levels of exposure to the substructure and globalization and ability to harness them (by all means and at all levels) are positively proportionate to levels of change in the society and hence its perception of the LLL. It seems valid for the recent Indian higher education policies and their agenda of a balanced reform.

However, still there is one question, raised in the beginning of this chapter, remain unanswered- *are all of these changes in the Indian higher education results of the changing dimensions of LLL in India or are they being modified because of the factors such as globalization, economy etc. without the influence of LLL?* The answer of this question seems covert in the entire discussion of LLL and higher education. It is therefore, seems necessary to opt for an overall summarized discussion of the entire thesis, which could be able to relate the 'dots' and explore the coherent picture, to answer the above question. The research intends to explore it in the final chapter (chapter 13, Conclusion) as it summarizes the major findings, which would eventually relate the two major sections of the thesis and help understanding the complex relations between LLL and higher education policies of India.

Conclusion

Nevertheless, the above discussion says a lot about how the changing dimensions of LLL can and does influence the higher education policies. It is clear that the higher education policies of India is dynamic and tries to balance the situation, similar to what we have seen in the LLL section. However, unlike that of the LLL, it has moved far ahead in the line of market centric path of reforms and hence the neo-liberal dimension of LLL has dominating influence on the higher educational policies.

Based on the current (12^{th}) and previous five year plans (10^{th} and 11^{th}) it seem that the government has a clear agenda of promoting the market and make it as a tool and trigger for changing the existing system. In this process, the market works as a direct force from the substructure. Additionally, the internal demands for employment oriented higher education and the willingness to pay is not just boosting the claims of the market-oriented reforms, but also taking the responsibility from the government and shifting it to the hand of the learners. These new-age learners buy the educational services and learns continually (formally, non-formally and informally) to keep pace with the changing situation. Institutions also learn and refocus their education to become more learner and economy oriented. These basic principles of LLL seem even more prominent

in the higher educational domain and the policies are supporting this new paradigm of LLL rather strongly. However, as we have seen in the discussion of the LLL, there are contradictions, dilemmas related with almost every step of reform. It boils down to India's inequality and Tilak (2006), Bhola (2003), Bhushan (2002, 2009) are right to point that out that a unidirectional market oriented reform is perhaps not the right answer for India.

It then seems a very challenging yet a crucial task for the policies to deal with all these diversities, dilemmas, contradictions and inequalities and at the same time able to direct the policy in a certain direction. It has become even more challenging with the introduction of the dimensions of globalization in it. The policies seem to realize that too and hence want to move forward with a mixed approach of reforms, which is referred as the 'third way' in this analysis. This 'third way' implies that the higher education policies need to support the expansion and quality of higher education, mostly based on market mechanism, but without sacrificing on equity. This is rather related with the fragmented/ integrating perspective of LLL, where there is a constant effort to balance the diverse situation by providing customized solutions. These balancing or cushioning efforts are the results of the constant pressure from the counter forces of economic globalization. However, the intensity in which these counter forces are opposing the global dimensions and trying to balance the situation to make it suitable for all, are weaker than that of the LLL as a whole. Hence, in the higher educational policies, the claims to follow the market-oriented reforms seem to be stronger. This is a paradigm-shift, in Indian higher education policy domain and seems that it is likely to trickle down to other layers of education and learning as well.

chapter

13

Conclusion

Chapter 13

Conclusion

Throughout the previous chapters, the aim of the thesis was to critically analyze the changing dimensions of LLL in India and its consequences on the recent national higher education policies in India. It started with the observation that the perceptions and dimensions of LLL are changing significantly in India along with that of the global understanding. Globalization, influence of international organizations, changing national socio-economic situation and a national ambition to become a 'knowledge society' could be some of the major changing agents. Hence, it focuses on educational reforms, which seemed indicating towards following the global dimensions of LLL and focusing towards economic and market oriented reforms. However, these new changes are somewhat different and sometimes contradictory to the traditional dimensions of LLL of India, as it is largely been considered as 'adult and continuing education' and being related to an ancient Indian philosophy of 'learn as long as you live'. These differences are however, causing dilemmas and demand a balance between the traditional and the changing (new) perception(s) of LLL. Policies are therefore, made and modified regularly to make LLL nationally realistic yet globally viable.

The study also initially highlighted that unlike the traditional dimensions of LLL, these new dimensions do include higher education and put increasing importance on it the influence of this changing conceptualization of LLL. Therefore, it can and possibly does influence the higher education policies of India. As a result, it started changing significantly as well. These two distinctive yet related changes (dimensions of LLL and its consequences on changing higher education policies) related to LLL demanded a rigorous study as, with the changing global, international and national socio-economic situations, the understandings have also become complex. These are the basic reasons why this topic has been chosen. Based on the initial observations, to initiate the discussion in a focused way, the study argued that-

> *There is a clear tension between the traditional Indian dimension of LLL, which seems based on welfare ideologies and a global dimension of LLL, which seems based on neo-liberal ideologies: perhaps resulting in a new kind of LLL where the renewing dimension(s) are still not well defined. The increased importance on higher education in LLL domain is also a part of this changing dimension, which is unique for India and hence, demands detailed analysis. In fact, this research also argues that the analysis of the influence of the renewing dimension(s) of the lifelong learning in recent Indian higher*

education is helpful to understand the changing dimension of lifelong learning better.

Hence, based on the initial observations and proposed argument, this study went ahead to discover the present dimensions of LLL in India by focusing at its policies and the consequence of this changing dimensions of LLL on the changing national higher education policies in recent years. To find out, the study put forward two main connected research questions: a***) How are the dimensions of lifelong learning changing in the Indian education policies in recent years? and b) How is the changing dimension of lifelong learning influencing the recent higher education policies?*** A few sub research questions[98] are also with these. The basic aims behind researching these two related areas were to: **a)** identify of new and emerging issues, such as changing dimensions of LLL in India, which seems worthy of investigation and explanation considering its changing understanding and implications on all education sectors. **b)** Create a new understanding of the existing issues and **c),** Explain how the new understanding of LLL can influence the recent higher education policies. However, as this research attempted to undertake a study comprises of two main areas (LLL and higher education) in a national context (India), it required a very clear set of boundaries or delimitations, without which it would have been perhaps impossible to direct the research in a focused manner.

The research, therefore, confined itself in the domain of policy. So the core of the outcome is related with policy, and more specifically, national level policies of recent times (post 90s in general and post 2000 in particular), as it is important to delimit the research among the very many policies at different levels and periods. Moreover, looking at India as a geographical entity and considering its enormous diversities, it seemed worth considering such boundaries, which actually made the research feasible. Nevertheless, to discuss and explore the issue it analyzed socio-economic and educational factors of India, international policies, globalization and so on. Socio-economic factors were carefully selected, levels of analysis determined with the guidance of the theories and analysis are done critically with the help of scholarly literatures and personal interviews. These multilayered analyses were done to critically analyze the issues, as a part of the methods selected and the theories applied to study. Hence, it is worth noting that the research findings are purely based on the delimited, focused areas of studies guided by theoretical models/frameworks selected and these findings could have been different if a separate set of factors were analyzed through different theoretical models/frameworks. Therefore, the findings are high in validity considering the chosen delimitations, area and focus of the research, but perhaps low in its generalisability. It is perhaps also related with the type of research, which is mainly qualitative in nature. Nevertheless, in the context of national level Indian policies, the research questions helped to fulfill the objectives and contributed to the knowledge by exploring the changing dimensions of LLL and a renewed understanding of how LLL has its consequences on the national level higher education policies. The following section discusses about the findings of the study in details.

[98] See chapter 1, introduction for a detailed discussion on all the sub-research questions.

Research Findings

The research findings can be divided into two major sections, the dimensions of LLL in India and the consequences of LLL on national higher education policies. The findings of these two sections, try to answer the research questions trough critical analysis. This section mentions them briefly, relates them with the concerned research questions, and discusses them in relation to the findings of the second major section, i.e. on higher education. It also discusses the secondary/ additional outcomes alongside. Together, the findings provide a coherent picture where it might be plausible to relate the research questions, objectives, research approaches, arguments, evidences and findings. In addition, the section tries to be critical on the research approach and methodologies, which opens up the possibilities of future research, discussed in the next section.

Research Findings Related to LLL in India

The objectives of the first part of the research were to study the global, international, national factors in changing the dimensions of LLL in India and analyze, how LLL is being perceived and it is changing its dimensions in the present socio-economic situation, focusing at the national level education policies. The major research questions were divided into several sub-research questions to help exploring the complexities of the study area(s). The first of them asked about the prominent contemporary dimensions of LLL in India. The question took the research back in time, where a brief discussion revealed how the concept of LLL has been changed over time. Starting from ancient time, where LLL was considered as a noble idea, to the period of discrimination, where education was exclusively for male members of rich classes, LLL has continually changed its periphery and perception along with the changing history of India. Later, the perception changed again in the colonized period and LLL was confined only within non-formal education of various kinds. This legacy largely continued in the post-independence period (post 1947) where in the independent India, LLL became somewhat synonymous with adult and continuing education and thus focused more on a non-formal approach to impart literacy, 3Rs and some rudimentary vocational training. It can be seen that a major change in India occurred in 1990s, with its economic restructuring and opening up of market. This is largely considered as a turning point for India and a base of modern India, dreaming to become a knowledge economy.

The perception of LLL, however, did not change drastically in early 90s. It took another decade or so to observe the changes. Nevertheless, the seed of the change was rooted and the territory of LLL started to stretch. This was the beginning of another major perception of LLL, which started to move out of the conceptualization of basic literacy and adult-continuing education initiative to a much wider concept. Along with the improvement of the Indian economic situation, increased influences of the transnational organizations on reforming the national economy and education started to increase. Simultaneously, the increased influence of technological revolution and economic globalization penetrated India. These factors have enormous impact on changing the perception of LLL internationally and in India as

well. These introductions of non-traditional factors, along with the indigenous factors in changing the traditional dimension of LLL help to relate this part of the discussion with the second sub-research question, which seek to find out what are the prominent factors influencing the changing dimensions of LLL in India? From this point onwards, the study was also able to relate its analysis and discussion with the third sub-research question, which was intended to investigate on the process, or how these factors influencing the changing dimensions of LLL, specifically in the education policies of India?

Based on the chronological discussion of the changing concept of LLL in India, the discussion came to the point where it could start the analysis of the socio-economic factors. After the review of literatures and initial analysis, four factors were selected for analyzing the changing dimensions of LLL in India. Those were, *economy, ICT, demography and language*. There are detailed discussions on how these factors help changing the dimensions of LLL. It could be, however seen that, in the analysis of each of the socio-economic factors, there are two major sections. The first one provides facts and arguments in favor of the global dimensions of LLL, and the other, on the traditional dimensions of the same. It can be seen that in India, there are possibly reasons for both global and traditional dimensions of LLL and a noticeable gap persists between these two extremes. It was also found in the research that the poor socio-economic situation resists the global dimensions of LLL to overwhelm the traditional one. It is largely because, on the one hand, India is progressing at a rapid pace and is ambitious to become a knowledge-based society. Hence, it needs to improve the skills and competencies of the learners and reform the education toward accordingly. On the other hand, however, there are millions of illiterates, poor and extremely poor people who can barely dream about proper education. Moreover, there is gender biases, caste related problems related with education, which are century old and largely unchanged. The process of change has largely been slow as well, in spite of rapid progress on some other major sectors. Here, it demands a strong focus on literacy, basic education and training rather than knowledge economy oriented once. Hence, enormous progress or possibilities of progress on the one side and abysmal underdevelopment on the other, pull the socio-economic situations in two major extremes. The national policies, however, are to respond to both sides. These bipolar educational and socio-economic situations helped to understand and explore the contradictions and dilemmas associated with the changing dimensions of LLL. This also helps to understand the policy process, as it also made it clearer that policy is a result of struggle and tension, as pointed out by Taylor et. al. (1997), Jarvis (2007, 2008) among others.

These contradictions and dilemmas led to the discussion in the next section where the research found that due to globalization, multinational corporations along with few powerful nations exercise their power over international and national levels. These levels are termed as 'layers' together as 'superstructure' as per the theoretical model by Jarvis (2007). Similarly, the core is termed as 'substructure', which runs through multiple 'superstructures'. It is found in the study that the substructure, with the neo-liberal, market oriented principles exercises power to influence the national

economic directions and as the economy is in its tertiary stage or dominated by knowledge oriented works, the influence of the substructure reflects largely on the education policies. Along with it, the international policies are also influencing Indian education policies to adapt the changes. However, it can be seen that whereas OECD and World Bank are clearly supporting the market oriented restructuring of the education policies towards the direction of the global dimensions of LLL, the UNESCO and to some extent the European Union policies are trying to balance the situation between a market oriented and welfare oriented approach. Similarly, in India, the study critically examines recent education policies of three major policymaking bodies, namely, the Planning Commission of India (PCI), National Knowledge Commission (NKC) and University Grants Commission (UGC). It could be found that NKC strongly supports the global dimensions of LLL and UGC is not quite opposing it. PCI, the main commission for planning for the nation is trying to balance the situation and find a balance between the global and welfare dimensions of LLL while leaning towards the global one. An understanding of a complex dynamics between these policymaking bodies and the national socio-economic-political situation emerges, where LLL is something, which is surely not a neutral concept and its perceptions and dimensions changes as a result of the combined forces (positive and negative) of different agents in the society ranging from global to local, as pointed out by Jarvis (2008).

It is also found that NKC policies are transmitted to the PCI five year plans and UGC guideline for LLL and Extension carries it forward, trying to make it nationally realistic yet globally viable. This conceptual understanding of how policies are being transmitted from one to another inside one country (or in a layer, as per Jarvis's theory) is something interesting. It shows that a layer in the society not only influences other subordinate layers, but also capable of influencing different components present in its own layer (in this case, national policy domain as a single layer). This is something not properly highlighted in Jarvis's (2007, 2008) theories and the situation in India explores the complex, factor-dependent, interrelated situation inside a single layer. Nevertheless, the theory certainly helps to find out how policies are being influenced in India and help curving new dimensions of LLL. Thus, it is one of the prime research findings. It also helps to understand that LLL has shifted from its traditional understanding of adult and continuing education and entering into a much wider, somewhat all encompassing dimension where it carries the DNAs of both the global and traditional Indian dimensions, while influencing the education system to move forward. This understanding reveals one more aspect, that LLL is perhaps no more just confined within the departments, centers, institutions of adult education. It is rather emerging as an underlying principal of education policy reforms. Although the department and centers of adult continuing education still exist in the universities and elsewhere, but they have started to change as well, towards the directions set by the renewing dimensions of LLL in India.

It can be understood by now, that this new LLL has more than one dimension. Unlike the traditional one, this new one tries to support both the global and the traditional Indian dimensions of LLL and several other sub-dimensions inside these two large

divisions. This brings to the next research findings, where this research largely divides the present dimensions of LLL in three major divisions:

a) *The welfare perspective of LLL*
b) *The neo-liberal perspective of LLL*
c) *The integrative/ fragmented perspective of LLL*

The first one represents the presence of the traditional way to perceive LLL in India, which are mostly literacy, adult education, basic education and training oriented. This is based on a strong welfare approach and market is largely opposed, considering basic educational requirements in India, which demands a safety net or 'cushioning' (Habermas 2006:81 in Jarvis 2008:30) from the government to prevent them from the competitive free market principles. The second one represents the opposite perception of LLL than that of the first. This one is comparatively new, and demands skills and competences development to meet the present economic needs. It focuses on making India a 'knowledge-based society' and promotes the neo-liberal, competitive, market oriented principles of LLL. It argues for less state intervention, more individualistic and self-oriented learning paradigm, which encourages and sometimes forces individuals to learn constantly and relevant things (to market) in order to survive and succeed. This highly competitive notion of LLL is however presently dominating in the world and seems to have substantial influence on Indian education policies as well. These two dimensions depict a rather polar situation; where Indian education policies are trying to reap the benefit of the economic globalization, technological advancement, demographic dividend and language skills as much as possible; while the other one is trying to support the downtrodden sections of the population, the illiterates, poorly educated in a much traditional way, so that they can continue to develop and possibly, join the dominant learning paradigms in future. This aspect of 'possibility' is mentioned in Jrvis's (2007, 2008) theory as 'catch up'. However, it is also clear that there is a colossal gap between these two extreme approaches. It is noticed that, there are efforts from the government to bridge these gaps through suggesting policy recommendations, which are not so extreme and rather falls in a third segment, i.e. the fragmented/integrative perspective of LLL.

The integrative/ fragmented perspective of LLL in India, has two rather opposite stands in one, as both are present in the policy analysis in relation to changing educational scenarios. It is found that there are some policy changes, which intend to support the perspectives of LLL, which is neither purely welfare, nor neo-liberal, and hence could be considered in this segment. Some of them recognize that there is a gap and introduces policy recommendations, which could slowly change the traditional perspectives of LLL and bring them closer to the mainstream and make the neo-liberal one suitable for India's diverse socio-economic educational situation. Some of these policy orientations are perhaps initiated to bridge the gap, but with substantial ambiguities, they are largely running as stand-alone, without fulfilling much of its purpose. Therefore, in spite of some integrating efforts, they are largely incapable so far to evade the extremity of the policies related to its polar dimensions.

The study also found that due to the lack of coherence, these two extremes are largely running in parallel and perhaps indirectly contributing to the overall socio-economic-educational inequality; as on one side, who can afford or access the modern learning are getting ahead, whereas the other side are constantly falling behind in competition. Nevertheless, there are constant efforts to balance the situation and this clearly shows that the dimensions of LLL in India are still not something concrete. It is rather in transition.

Interestingly, LLL in India has not completely changed from its traditional dimension to the neo-liberal one, nor it perhaps intends to shift entirely. Considering the Indian socio-economic and educational extremities, and diversities, it is perhaps necessary to maintain a balanced approach between these two extremes. Moreover, considering the democratic political setups, it is perhaps impossible to completely waive off the welfare oriented LLL from Indian education policies. The policies recognize these factors as well, and take complex multidimensional approaches, which could support the equally complex and changing Indian socio-economic-educational development paradigms. Nevertheless, as told earlier, that the research also finds that the dominant trend is moving towards the neo-liberal one, and includes all educational and learning sectors (formal, non-formal and informal). Higher education is one of the prime among them, in these changing circumstances, as it is perhaps one of the most important sectors which helps bringing India closest to the dream of becoming a knowledge based society and economy.

The discussion and analysis of higher education policies are done based on the findings from the LLL section. Among many important points, a few key attributes have been derived from the analysis of LLL in India with the theoretical framework of Jarvis (2007, 2008). It says:

- The substructure, by several mechanisms, puts pressure on the international, national, regional/local and up to the individual levels (Jarvis, 2007: 42-53) to make all the necessary changes to make room for the market economy.

- The power of the substructure, combined with the rapid spread of the market economy, also try to prevent anything, which tries to prevent the spread of it.

- There is not only resistance to the market promoted view of the LLL, but also there is a process to continue with the indigenous process of practicing LLL, which is based on welfare mechanism, as opposed to the market one. These two forms of LLL run in parallel in India.

- There is a constant process of balancing the two extremes (global and traditional) while opting for change, especially at the policy levels in India.

- The levels of exposure to the substructure and globalization and ability to harness them (by all means and at all levels) are positively proportionate to levels of change in the society and hence its perception of the LLL in India.

These attributes helped the research to analyze the consequence of the changing dimensions of LLL on the recent national level higher education policies on India. However, to set the base, the research took help of scholarly literatures, personal interviews for this study to examine key components of the recent higher education policies, which was also aimed to answer some of its sub-research questions.

Research Findings Related to the Consequences of LLL in Higher Education Policies in India

It could be seen that the increased importance on higher education started to be observed along with the demand for highly trained labors for the tertiary economy. Knowledge started taking the lead role in production system and higher education, as a means of accruing higher level of knowledge got prime importance. This trend is very much prominent in India and by size; it is one of the largest higher education systems in the world (after US and China). In addition, there have been noticeable changes in terms of its size, versatility, providers of higher educational services and approaches of teaching and learning in the Indian higher education arena. They became even more prominent in post 2000 period. It was therefore a prime interest of this study to find out, which are the visible changes in Indian Higher Education policies in recent years? It was the first step to answer the main research question for this section, which was - How is the changing dimension of lifelong learning influencing the recent higher education policies?

How LLL influences the policies of higher education is discussed in detail in the previous chapters (chapter 11 and 12). To analyze, the study took the same socio-economic factors (economy, ICT, demography and language) into account and analyzed, what are the major consequences of changing dimensions of LLL on Indian higher education policies, and what are the significance of these consequences? It was found that there are several significant changes in the Indian higher educational domain and the perception towards higher education has also largely changed from viewing it as a 'public good' to a 'global enterprise'. This is a massive shift in perception, which has its roots linked with the neo-liberal dimension of LLL. Moreover, systematic analysis shows that the need for change was felt at the very core of policies and the demands came from international, national and even individual levels. The national five-year plans successively carries forward the notion of reconstructing higher education and with each new plan (10^{th} to 11^{th} and 12^{th}, the latest), it links itself with economy-oriented view of development. Interestingly it also supports an inclusive view of growth irrespective of the economic conditions of the learners.

Along with the need of change, the direction of change has also been prioritized. It could be found from the analysis that it is now more market oriented and demand driven. The reasons were explained using Jarvis's (2007) theory, where it is shown

that the substructure is extremely flexible and it constantly influences other layers to support the changes. International and national policies are therefore either trying to support or suggesting measures to cope up with it. Hence, policy recommendations are seen in the XIth and XIIth plans, where they suggest more internationalization and making the Indian higher education closer to the global system. It also seems that, NKC recommendations are being successfully carried forward in the following national plans (XIth and XIIth). In spite of the claim of Bhushan (2009: 146-147), that policy decisions in India are often taken in an unplanned ad hoc manner; this research was able to counter argued it by pointing out that, there was no change in the 'central government' since the beginning of the NKC in 20006. Hence, a chain of policy recommendations in certain directions seems clearly visible. Although, the democratic multiparty government in India has to react to the pressures from different stakeholders (coalition parties, civil society, NGOs etc.) and thus, the level of importance regarding the direction of change could likely to vary. However, it could be seen that, because higher education is related with the future of the youth, who are also eligible voters, there is less pressure against the higher education reforms and more towards the withdrawal of social benefits in higher education. The government reacts to many of them and sets its priorities.

The study found that, in the changing circumstances, there are some renewed priority areas for higher education. It aims to develop human resources, both qualitatively (skills and competences oriented) and quantitatively (to exploit the demographic dividend). Regarding the skills and competences development, it now focuses on 4Cs, or critical thinking, communication skills, collaboration in changing circumstances and creativity. These seem fairly aligned with the changing principals of new dimensions of LLL. The study also found that there are other very important priority areas, such as building improved strategic alliances, mainly with other countries, institutions but also with other international organizations (e.g. the European Union). There is another very significant priority area linked with human resource development and strategic alliances, i.e., income generation. All over the world, higher education is proving itself, as one of the most lucrative markets, full of potential buyers (students) of the services. India, with its massive young population, advertises a large market for higher education to thrive. The recent policy clearly mentions its intention to make higher education a profit making sector, which is notable in this regard. These strengthen the claims mentioned in the LLL section, that a learner should be independent to choose his/her areas of study and learn independently (with less public support, i.e. pay for education) and learn effectively (relevant subjects) to help developing the economy and society. In a similar fashion, education policies in India portray higher education as a key for nation building (making India a knowledge society) but with lessening public support. The recent policies are also trying to reduce the gap between different courses to make learning flexible and the ground as level as possible. This is different than that of the LLL, where different types of learning (welfare and market oriented) are running in parallel. However, this effort of homogenization is highly criticized and to many (Tilak, 2002, 2006; Bhushan, 2009; Altbach, 2009 among others) it seems not feasible in near future, considering very many diversities and inequalities associated with Indian higher education.

Nevertheless, reforms are made to make higher education nationally realistic and globally viable. There is a thorough discussion on the relevant reforms related to the changing dimensions of LLL and its consequences on the higher education policies, on chapter 12. It was found that, based on the needs and priorities; several market-oriented reforms are put forward. However, the policies also repeatedly mention about safeguarding the downtrodden. It helps to see the dynamics of various pressure, both form above and below, supporting and opposing different aspects of the reforms and hence its different perspectives. The personal interviews taken for this study highlights the government's responsibilities to the society and a need to balance the unequal situations. Nevertheless, Tilak (2012), Bhushan (2013) criticized this 'cushioning' effect in the policy statement and mentioned them as mere 'rhetoric', without substantial pragmatic considerations. The research takes a neutral stance without taking any side (rhetoric or real) and prefers to observe the effects of the latest policies in the coming years. In spite of its ambiguity or rhetorical statements, one aspect is strengthened through the analysis, that the substructure exercises considerable amount of power, which reflects on the higher education policies. International organizations also influence the national settings; but somewhat differently, based on their ideologies, interests and priorities. It is also clear that the flexible core of the substructure is also extremely powerful in neutralizing the opposing forces against it. In fact, the research found that the resistant in the higher education domain to the forces of the substructure is much less than that of the LLL. Moreover, a constant force is working to retune the so called traditional practices in the higher educational domain to bring them closer to the prevailing principals. These, in turn, suggests that in near future, the welfare oriented practices in higher education is likely to reduce further, in spite of the fact that still now, they appear evidently in the policy statements.

At this point, the study questioned the policy itself; who would be responsible for the development of all, when it itself adopts a predominantly neo-liberal principles more than the welfare once, which could also mean that the non-profitable have risks to be marginalized. This brought the analysis to its meta-conceptual level. It analyzed the underlying policies of the education policies, based on the guiding questions raised by Bhola (2003) and tried to find out the relevance, professional soundness and practicalities of the policies in the Indian context. Interestingly, it emerged as 'relevant' and 'not so relevant' depending on the position from which it was analyzed. From a utilitarian point of view the policy recommendations for a neo-liberal, market oriented, demand driven, and professional higher educational reform seemed justified and professionally sound, as this could provide India a much-needed economic and educational development. However, analyzing it from a different angle, these ambitious reform agendas are perhaps not so practical, considering the enormous size, diversities and inequalities in almost every section of Indian socio-economic-educational scenarios. It poses less fruitful to those, who cannot afford and/or access paid higher education facilities, and that number is very large indeed.

Importantly, however, this research supports the view of the government that a reform is of utmost importance, as the nation needs to improve with the changing time. However, how to do it with a balanced approach is a matter of great concern. The present trend to market oriented LLL and higher education reforms could certainly bring some development, but there is a risk of ignoring a large portion of Indian population, which seems unjustified. Realizing these risks, however, the national policies usually take two major strategies, 'catch up' and 'cushioning' (Habermas, 2006; Jarvis, 2008). Jarvis argued that the 'catch up' strategies are largely vogue as in spite of market-oriented reforms (catching up) the national policies are largely incapable of keeping pace with the speed and agility of the substructure. Whereas, the 'cushioning' is much more feasible, where the policies tries to 'cushion' the adverse effects of the global capitalism and try protecting the vulnerable sections of population by safeguarding them through social benefits. The study analyzed that India is probably following a 'third way', which is a mix of both.

This 'mixed' or the 'third way' varies in its degree of practicing the 'catch up' and 'cushioning' measures, depending on how much it is exposed to the influence of substructure and globalization and how the government perceives the development to be. Hence, the level of change is highly dependent on these, along with the socio-economic situation of the country. In other words, it is a delicate balance, the policies try to maintain through the 'third way' in India, which is determined by many complex and interrelated factors, including the changing dimensions of LLL. This point relates itself indirectly to the notion that LLL may not be the only element, which has consequences on higher education policies in India. This realization relates itself with the question coined towards the end of the previous chapter (before the chapter conclusion), that even if higher education is adopting a 'third way' or largely following a 'neo liberal' principals, could it still be called a direct consequence of the changing dimensions of LLL in India? The following section attempts to answer it.

Here, after the entire analysis it seems that globalization is playing an overwhelming role and along with the inclusion of other factors like flexible and powerful market economy, improved ICT and dominance of English as a lingua franca, to influence both the dimensions of LLL and higher education separately. Demography, especially demographic dividend is also playing an important role for India, which is discussed in both LLL and higher education section. LLL, in recent time, has largely become wider in its approach and, interestingly, it seems that LLL has also emerged more as an underlying working framework for educational planning and management. At least in policy, it is widening up from its traditional role of imparting literacy and adult continuing educations. LLL as an overarching framework is therefore, helping to trigger and plan some of the major educational reforms, which are indeed created by the factors like globalization, market economy etc. and counter balanced by the anti-globalizing forces.

The diagram below could perhaps help to explain the situation better, considering the actual complexities involved in it. It is, however, important to note that this is not a

model or framework emerged from this study. It is rather provided to help explaining the complex relation in a simple understandable way.

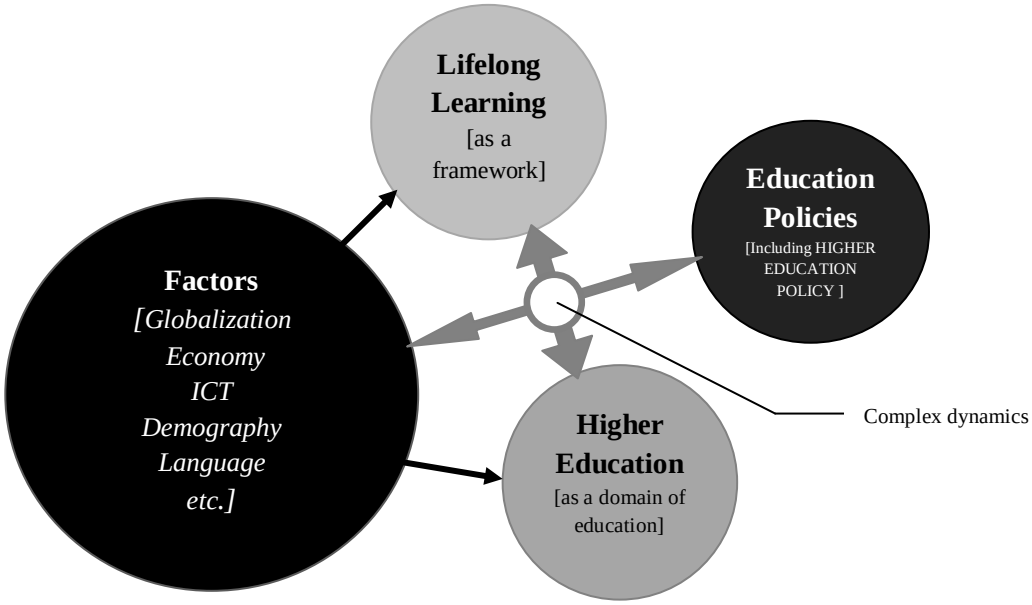


Figure 23: Conceptual graphical representation of the LLL influencing higher education and education policies

Note: It is not a theoretical model. It is rather a graphical representation to help explaining the process.

It can be seen that the changes in the higher education domain are perhaps not the sole consequences of the renewing dimensions of LLL. The factors at various levels are also independently influencing LLL and higher education in India. However, LLL, as an overarching framework channelizes and processes those factors to help guiding the education policies (including higher education policies) in certain directions through a complex interaction of global, national, regional and local situations, pressures and demands, both positive and negative, in an intricate manner. Nevertheless, the influence of these complex dimensions of LLL could clearly be seen on higher education policies, which is evidently leaning more towards the principles of the global dimensions of LLL. By the end of 11th plan and in the threshold of the 12th, it is quite evident that the level of exposure to the substructure has increased substantially and that has influenced in changing the dimensions of LLL up to a great extent. Overall, the changes in the dimensions of LLL, in turn, trickle down to higher education policies and vice versa, which is much in accord with the demands of the global sub-structure.

A Critique and Suggestions for Future Research

The research reveals some interesting findings, related to the changing dimensions of LLL and its consequences on recent national higher education policies. However, the whole study has been done after setting the delimitations and scopes at the first place. It was also pointed out in the initial chapters that the process is perhaps complex and the

claim is strengthened as the research progressed. The study also started by arguing that there are complexities and dilemmas related to the changing notion of LLL and a tension between two ideologies perhaps shaping the new dimensions of LLL in India. As the research unveiled, it reveals the complexities, dilemmas, and contradictory situations associated with every step and in every layer of the society. Nevertheless, it is worth recognizing the fact that the process to find and analyze the complexities, tensions and dilemmas, is largely guided by the theoretical models/ frameworks selected (Jarvis, 2007, 2008; Bhola, 2003). They helped to focus on to certain aspects, while minimizing others.

These 'other' aspects are however could be very important to determine the future educational pathways of any country, including India. For instance, the research did not focus much on the issue of 'finance' in education sectors. Although, it was necessary to delimit the research to be able to make it feasible, but the study does not ignore the influence of such 'other' factors, which were not discussed here. Similarly, the study delimit itself in the discussion of the national level factors, and restricts to discuss factors in any further micro levels. These decision, although helps the research to deal with manageable number of factors, and hence provides the opportunities to go deeper into each one of them; but the possibilities of investigating it in a more micro level, would undoubtedly provide much more insights. It could have provided some interesting and influential factors, which are perhaps playing key role in reshaping the dimensions of LLL and how the higher education is influenced by it. However, for this research, these are outside its focus areas and hence, not included for detailed analysis.

Nevertheless, the research points out several important insights, especially in relation to the policy domain. Here also, the research dealt with the policy texts and took the help of other scholarly works, interviews, to analyze the policy and allied issues. The research however, could not have a chance to look at the policy making processes, such as, who (persons, groups etc.) are making the policies, what kind of issues are being discussed during the policy making (meetings, interactions of other kinds), which political parties are dominating, what are the initial drafts and what changes are being made in the final versions etc. These informations could certainly have provided important guidelines to analyze the policies even more critically. However, some of these informations are extremely difficult to get, often classified and difficult to crosscheck. The research however attempted to find out some aspects of the policy process, through the personal interviews, as some of them are related to policy making, advocacy etc. However, as said earlier, because of the confidential nature of the pre-policy making processes, it was largely confined to rhetoric statements, rather than concrete inside stories. This is another aspect, the research recognizes, could have been effective to provide different outlooks and helped the research to come up with findings that are even more inquisitive. However, considering the practical problems of such types of data collection, it also seems that the study has sufficiently collected the data and analyzed, focused towards its research questions and objectives.

The above mentioned critiques on the research itself, however, could also be recognized as new scopes of further researches. The study recognized in beginning that looking at

the issue of LLL and its consequences on higher education policies, could provide different results if analyzed from different vantage points and/or by analyzing it with different theoretical models/frameworks. Here, it also recognizes that the inclusion of different factors, examining it at different scales (macro-micro) and inclusion of pre-policy processes could also result quite differently. It is however, perhaps a part of a qualitative research of this kind, where depending on the choice of paradigms, factors and scales, the validity of the research, within its focus areas, is high, but the findings cannot be generalized easily, considering the several other important factors, yet to be analyzed.

The Concluding Note

The understanding of the limitations of the research is however, could help in two ways. *First*, it provides opportunities to identify the possible future research areas, by focusing on its limitation and indicates on how to take this research forward by including new factors, investigating from different levels or with different theoretical frameworks. The research on micro levels issues related to LLL and higher education would certainly help in practical micro-scale policy-making, as the situation in India is diverse. In addition, the inclusion of other relevant factors could provide insights, which could help researchers/ policy makers/ educationists to analyze the issue better and perhaps links it with other relevant fields where change is prominent.

Secondly, the findings of the research and with its contribution to knowledge about LLL in India and its consequences on higher education policies, could help the future researchers, policy makers and analysts to get new insights. It may help them to understand the dynamics related with LLL, link it with the global discourse of LLL, associated educational changes and explore how the substructure, superstructures and national agencies are interlined in a complex way. It may also help the practitioners of adult and continuing education to help explaining why LLL is changing it set course in recent times and this could perhaps initiate changes in the department nomenclatures and practices. However, it has already started happening in the university set ups, due to the UGC guidelines, but in other sectors, it is largely in its previous form, as there is perhaps no proper understanding of the changing dimensions of LLL. In the higher education sector, the study may provide important insights. Instead of focusing at different factors like globalization, economy, technology to influence higher education policies, this research studied them as a part of a network, influencing the higher education policies with the overarching framework of LLL. This realization could help in explaining the linkages, power relations and the reasons for possible policy responses.

Overall, this research tried to help understanding an existing, but renewing concept (LLL) and the underlying process of its changes. It also intended to help understanding how LLL influences higher education and works as an underlying framework. The research might be merely able to scratch the outer layer of national policy analysis, but at the same time, identified major areas of future research. It has pointed out that the perception of LLL is in transition in India and pointed out that while influencing higher education policies, LLL is perhaps working as an overarching framework and evolving

from its traditional dimensions. This research is therefore, perhaps contributed to the initial idea that there is a need to re-examine the dimensions of LLL in present circumstances. Nevertheless, the research would be truly significant; if it could help inspiring more studies in this filed, which will eventually lead to a fuller understanding of the issues discussed, along with their complexities, and diverse natures with minor details focusing Indian socio-economic-educational scenario at present and in the years to come.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Questionnaire - LLL

Questionnaire - Lifelong Learning (LLL)

1. **What is lifelong learning, according to your understanding?**
2. **Do you think, is the understanding of Lifelong Learning changing in recent times?**

a. Yes
b. No

3. If yes, how is it changing from its past perspectives, which was mostly limited in literacy initiatives?

One from each section.

a. Is it changing radically
b. Is it changing gradually

---

a. Is it following an Eastern/ oriental trend
b. Is it following an Western/ Occidental trend

You may elaborate on this issue here –

4. What is, in your opinion, the difference between Adult and Cont. Education and Lifelong Learning in India, in recent times?

a. They are still the same
b. They are marginally different
c. They have become significantly different in recent times
d. They are always different
e. Adult education is a part of Lifelong learning
f. Lifelong learning is a part of Adult Education

5. Why do you think so?

6. What could be the three most important reasons to adopt the changes in lifelong learning?

7. How, you think, the global changes in the discourse of lifelong learning, has influenced the changes in the national context? Globalization, international policies, organizations etc.

[Please write your option in the box given below]

a. Influencing rapidly and in a large scale (nation-wide)
b. Influencing rapidly in small scales
c. Influencing slowly and in large scales (nation-wide)
d. Influencing slowly in small scales
e. others – (please mention)_____

8. How? Can you please elaborate on this?

9. Who are the other players (other than international) involved here in the changing dimensions of lifelong learning in India? (3 most important)

a. State
b. Civil society
c. National and regional political parties
d. National Economy
e. National Educational Scenario
f. Commercial houses
g. Others (please mention) _____

Remarks-

10. How is 'economy' (global and national) as a factor helping to change this dimension?

11. How is the Indian 'demography' plays a role here?

12. How is the 'development of ICT' influences this change?

13. Do you think 'language' or 'lingual diversity' has a role to play here? How?

14. What, in your opinion, are the consequences of these changes in the dimensions of lifelong learning? [Both short and long term. Both positive and negative.]

15. Do you think the changing dimensions of lifelong learning practically oriented according to the Indian context? [Please write your option in the box given below]

a. Yes
b. No

16. Why do you think that is 'practically oriented'/ 'not oriented' in the Indian Context ?

Based on you answer (yes or no) of the previous question.

17. Is there anything you would like to say/highlight regarding the changing dimensions of lifelong learning as a whole or in the context of India in particular?

Appendix 2: Questionnaire –Higher Education

LIFELONG LEARNING IN HIGHER EDUCATION

1. **What is the common understanding of Lifelong Learning in Higher Education in India?**

a. Limited to the understanding of adult and continuing education
b. Adult and Continuing education including population education
c. All of the above and Vocational Education and Training (VET)
d. All of the above and skill and competency development
e. All sections of education (formal, non-formal and informal)
f. All of the above with emphasis on economic development
g. None of the above
h. Not sure
i. Other (please mention) _____

Remarks-

2. **What are the main forms of Lifelong Learning provisions in which Higher Education institutions are involved in India? [**

a. Adult education and literacy and related activities
b. Vocational education and trainings
c. Various activities including skills and competency development courses
d. Academic courses on Lifelong Learning
e. Research and Policy making for the educational development
f. All of the above
g. None of the above
h. Not sure

Remarks-

3. **Is lifelong learning a recognized mission of Higher Education in India?**

a. YES – In Policy
b. YES – In all higher education institutions
c. YES – in some higher education institutions
d. NO

Remarks-

4. **For what kind of institutions/ organizations, lifelong learning is a recognized mission of higher education in India?**

a. Department of Adult Education / Lifelong Education/ Lifelong Learning
b. The whole university
c. Only few departments (please mention some of them)
d. The whole higher education system
e. Only a part of the higher education system
f. Only at policy level (UGC / Planning Commission)

Remarks-

5. In recent years, there is a trend to include Lifelong Learning in higher education in major developed countries. How does this international influence works for India?

a. India is not following this trend
b. India is following the trend slowly
c. India is following the trend gradually
d. India is following the trend rapidly
e. India copies the trend entirely

Remarks-

6. How, do you think, globalization plays its role here (in promoting Lifelong Learning in Higher Education)?

7. How are 'Economy' , 'Demography', 'ICT' playing their roles in influencing the higher education policies these days?

8. How do the changes cope with the vast 'lingual diversity' of India? How is this issue addressed in the policies?

9. Is there any other factor in this regard?

10. What are the consequences (both long and short term, both positive and negative) of the recent changes in Higher Education arena in the Indian Higher Education policies?

11. Do you think the changing dimensions of Higher Education practically oriented according to the Indian context (keeping in mind the low GER, inequality, Educated unemployment ect.) ? Why?

12. Is there anything you would like to say regarding the changing dimensions of lifelong learning and it's relation with higher education in contemporary Indian context?

Appendix 3 : Invitation letter

Deusto
Facultad de Psicología y Educación
Psikologia eta Hezkuntza Fakultatea

Bilbao, September 21, 2012

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

It is a pleasure to me to state that Mr. Sayantan Mandal is presently pursuing his Ph.D work under my guidance in our University of Deusto, Bilbao, Spain, on "An Analysis of the Renewing Dimension of Lifelong Learning in India and its Consequences on the Changing National Higher Education Policies in Recent Years : A Socio Economic Study in the Age of Globalization" , in our Doctoral Program in Educational Innovation and Lifelong Learning, with the scholarship `Erasmus Mundus External Cooperation Window` by the European Commission.

In this regard he has to collect necessary data through interviews and discussions from a number of educationists and experts on Indian education policies. As such, he is going to India within a couple of days. The collected data by him would be solely used for his research and related academic publications.

It is required for the purpose of Ph.D work that the collected information or data by Mr. Mandal would be properly documented in the information/data sheet ,signed both by the interviewer and interviewee, and in a few cases through audio or video recording.

The concerned educationists /policy experts are requested to cooperate with him in this regard.

Yours sincerely,

Josu Solabarrieta
Josu.solabarrieta@deusto.es
University of Deusto
Faculty of Psychology and Education
Dean

Universidad de Deusto
Deustuko Unibertsitatea
Avda. Universidades, 24
48007 Bilbao
Tel. 944 139 248 - 944 139 045
Fax / Faxa 944 139 089

Appendix 4 : Letter of agreement

Deusto
Facultad de Psicología y Educación
Psikologia eta Hezkuntza Fakultatea

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

It is a pleasure to me to state that Mr. Sayantan Mandal is presently pursuing his Ph.D work under my guidance in our University of Deusto, Bilbao, Spain, on "An Analysis of the Renewing Dimension of Lifelong Learning in India and its Consequences on the Changing National Higher Education Policies in Recent Years : A Socio Economic Study in the Age of Globalization" , in our Doctoral Program in Educational Innovation and Lifelong Learning, with the scholarship `Erasmus Mundus External Cooperation Window` by the European Commission.

In this regard he has to collect necessary data through interviews and discussions from a number of educationists and experts on Indian education policies. As such, he is going to India within a couple of days. The collected data by him would be solely used for his research and related academic publications.

Pease note that the interviews will be audio and/or Audio-Video recorded.

You are kindly requested to help him in this regard.

Yours sincerely,

Psicología y Educación Universidad de Deusto Deustuko Unibertsitatea Psikologia eta Hezkuntza

---

Josu Solabarrieta
Josu.solabarrieta@deusto.es
University of Deusto
Faculty of Psychology and Education
Dean

Signature of the Researcher	Signature of the interviewee
Date :	Date :

Universidad de Deusto
Deustuko Unibertsitatea
Apartado 1
48080 Bilbao
Tel. 944 139 248 - 944 139 045
Fax 944 139 089

Appendix 5: brief

Introductory note-

Lifelong learning is a much-used and dynamic term in recent global and national policy arenas. It has gained a multidimensional nature within and beyond the education policy domain. In India, the perception is changing too, which is different from its traditional understandings of lifelong learning. It is now part of the national higher education and UGC puts increased importance to promote lifelong learning. This modern conceptualization is highly interlinked with the concepts of knowledge economy, knowledge society and globalization. It talks more about skills and competencies development, similar to that of the policies of the developed West. The nature of national level policy formulation has also undergone a sea change and huge efforts are being made to make it nationally realistic yet globally viable.

This research therefore attempts to analyse this changing dimensions of lifelong learning and its influence on the recent higher education policies. It aims to explore the present changing perspective of higher education in India in the context of lifelong learning and globalization. It tries to analyze, how the present socio-economic and political situation play complex roles in determining the orientation of higher education policies in India. It also discusses why and how the policies and programs respond to this complex issue.

In the first part, it discusses the changes in the dimensions of lifelong learning in India followed by the analysis of the recent higher education policies This questioner, specifically focuses on the second part, i.e. 'recent national level higher education policies'.

The main intention of the questionnaire is to know your opinion about the factors, issues and concerns related to the theme of Indian higher education. It is the hope that your valuable opinion will significantly provide new insights into the discourse and enhance the depth of the study.

There are two types of questions. One of a 'multiple choice type' and the others are semi-structured and open-ended. The intention here is to know your opinion, which may vary widely among the interviewees. This possibility of variation is however needed for the research as these could provide significant new insights. The interview is going to be audio-video recorded and the data will only be used for the research and related publication purposes. It will roughly be thirty minutes long.

If in case the provision of audio-video recording is not available, you are kindly requested to fill up the questionnaire. Please feel free to elaborate each answer as much as you think is necessary to express the ideas and opinions.

Keywords: Lifelong Learning, Higher Education, India, globalization, policy, Knowledge Economy, Knowledge Society.

Thanking you
Yours sincerely

[This page is intentionally left blank]

References

Abdul Kalam, A. P., & Rajan, Y. S. (2002). *India 2020: A Vision For the New Millennium.* New Delhi: Penguin.

Acharaya, P. (1989). *Bangla Desher Sikshachinta (in Bengali).* Calcutta: Anustup .

Agarwal, P. (2006). Higher Education Services and Trade Liberalization. In R. Chanda, *Trade in Services and India: Prospects and Strategies* (pp. 299-358). New Delhi: Willey-India.

Agarwal, P. (2011). *Indian Higher education: Envisioning the Future.* New Delhi: Sage.

Aggarwal, J. (2010). *Education Reforms in India for the 21st Century.* New Delhi: Shipra.

Aguirre, M. J. (1995). Profesionalizing Public Policy Analysis . *Research in Public Policy Analysis and Management* , 157-182.

AIU. (2013, 01 28). *Association of Indian Univerisities- International.* Retrieved from Association of Indina Univristies : http://www.aiuweb.org/International/International.asp

Aiyar, P. (2007, June 27). Crazy about English in China. *The Hindu* .

All Inida Management Association (AIMA). (2003). *India's New Opportunity 2020.* New Delhi: AIMA.

Altbach, P. (1998). *Comparative Higher Education: Knowledge, the University, and Development.* Hong Kong : Comparative Education Research Centre, University of Hong Kong.

Altbach, P. G. (2003). Centters and Peripheries in the academic profession : The special challenges of developing countries. In P. G. Altbach, *The Decline of th Guru: Academic Profesion in Developing and Middle-Income Countries* (pp. 1-22). New York: Palgrave.

Altbach, P. G. (1998). *Comd Developmentparative Higher Edcucation: Knowledge, the University a.* Greenwich: Albex.

Altbach, P. G. (2008, Winter). Globalization and Forces for Change in Higher Education. *International Higher Education* , p. 1.

Altbach, P. G. (2006). Globalization and the University: Realities in an Unequal World. In J. J. Forest, & P. G. Altbach, *International Handbook of Higher Education: Part one: Global Themes and Contemporary Challenges* (pp. 121-140). Dordrecht: Springer .

Altbach, P. G. (2002). Knowledge and Education as International COmmodities: The Collapse of the Common Good . *International Higher Education* , 2-5.

Altbach, P. G., Reisberg, L., & Rumbley, L. E. (2009). *Trends in Global Higher Education: Tracking an Academic Revolution- A report prepared for the UNESCO 2009 World Conference on Higher Education.* Paris: UNESCO.

Anonuevo, C. M., Ohsako, T., & Mauch, W. (2001). *Revisiting Lifelong Learning for the 21st Century.* Hamburg: UNESCO Institure for Lifelong Learning .

Appadurai, A. (2001). Grassroots Globalization and the Research Imagination. In A. (. Appadurai, *Globalization* (pp. 1-21). Duke: Duke University Press.

Appadurai, A. (1996). *Modernity at Large: CUltural Dimensions of GLobalization.* Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press.

Arrighi, G., & Silver, B. J. (2000). Global Inequalities and "Actually Existing Capitalism. *paper presented at the conference 'Ethics and Globalization'.* Yale: Yale University.

Ashby, E., & Anderson, M. (1966). *Universities: British, Indian, and African.* London: Weidenfield and Nicholson.

Aspin, D. (. (2007). *Philosophical Perspectives on Lifelong Learning.* London: Springer.

Aspin, D. N., & Chapman, J. D. (2007). Lifelong Learning: Concepts and Conceptions. In D. N. Aspin, *Philosophical Perspectives on Lifelong Learning* (pp. 20-38). London: Springer.

Aspin, D. (2007). *Philosophical Perspectives on Lifelong Learning.* Netherlands: Springer.

Aspin, D., Chapman, J., Hatton, M., & Sawano, Y. (2001). *International Handbook of Lifelong Learning (Part I and II).* Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishing.

ASSOCHAM. (2013, January 30). *B-schools increasingly loosing shine in India, says ASSOCHAM* . Retrieved from ASSOCHAM- Associated Chambers of Commerce and Industry of India: http://www.assocham.org/prels/shownews.php?id=3877

Bagchi, A. K. (2005). *Biswayan : Bhabna- Durbhabna (a collection of essays on globalization in Bengali)* . Kolkata: National Book Agency.

Bagnall, R. G. (1990). Lifelong education: The institutionalisation of an illiberal and regressive. *Educational Philosophy and Theory* , 1-7.

Bagnall, R. J. (1990). Lifelong Education: The institutionalisation if and illiberal and registive ideology? *Education Phylosophy and Theory* , 1-7.

Bagnall, R. (2001). Locating Lifelong Learning and Education in COntemporary Currents of Thought and Culture. In D. Aspin, J. Chapman, M. Hatton, & S. Yukiko, *International Handbook of Lifelong Learning - Part one* (pp. 35-52). AA Dordecht: Kluwer Academic Publisher BV.

Bajwa, G. S. (2003). ICT policy in India in the era of liberalisation: its impact and consequences. *Global Built Environment Review* , 49-61.

Ball, S. J. (1994). *Education Reform: A Ctical and Post-Structural Approach.* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Bareth, S. (1984). *Adult Education Research in India - A study.* New Delhi: Indian Adult Educatio Association.

Basu, K. (2007). *The Retreat of Democracy and Other Itinerant Essays on Globalization, Economics and India.* Ranikhet Cantt.: Permanent Black.

Bauman, Z. (2005). *Liquid Life.* Malden: Polity Press.

BBC. (2011, Oct 5). *India launches Aakash tablet computer priced at $35.* Retrieved 12 20, 2011, from BBC Mobile, NEWS - South Asia: http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world-south-asia-15180831

Beck, U. (1992). *The Risk Society.* London: Sage.

Beck, U. (2000). *What is Globalization?* Cambridge: Polity.

Becker, S. (2004). Policy-Oriented Research. In M. Lewis_Beck, A. Bryman, & T. F. Liao, *The Sage Encyclopedia of Social Science Research Methods* (pp. 830-831). London: Sage.

Becker, S., & Bryman, A. (. (2004). *Understanding Research for Social Policy and Practice: Themes, Methods and Approches.* Bristol, UK: Polcy Press.

Beinhocker, E. D., Farrell, D., & Zainulbhai, A. S. (2007, August). Tracking the Growth of India's Middle Class. *The McKinsey Quarterly* , 1-9.

Belanger, P. (1995). Lifelong Learning: the Dialecteics of 'Lifelong Education'. In P. Belanger, & E. (. Gelpi, *Lifelong Education, Education Permanente.* Dordrecht: Klwer Academic Publishing.

Bell, D. (1973). *The Coming Postindustrial Society* . New York: Basic Books.

Bengtsson, J. (2009). *National Strategies for Implementing Life Long Learning (LLL): an International Perspective.* Retrieved 08 19, 2011, from PASCAL Observatory: http://pure.pascalobservatory.org/sites/default/files/National%20Strategies%20for%20Implementing%20LLL%20-%20Jarl%20Bengtsson.pdf

Bhalla, S. (2007). *Second Among Equals: The Middle Class Kingdoms of India and China.* Wasington D.C.: Institute of International Economics.

Bhatia, H. (2009). Lifelong Learning: CHanging Perspectives. In N. K. Chadha, *Readings in Lifelong Learning* (pp. 66-85). New Delhi: University of Delhi.

Bhattacharyya, R. (2012, June 12). *Higher education: India lags behind China despite English language advantage.* Retrieved from The Economic Times: http://articles.economictimes.indiatimes.com/2012-07-27/news/32889744_1_higher-education-asian-universities-indian-universities

Bhola, H. (1996). Adult and Lifelong Education for Poverty Reduction: A Critical Analysis of Contexts and Conditions. *52* (3).

Bhola, H. S. (2006). Access to Education : a global perspective. In A. Oduaran, & H. S. Bhola, *Widening Access to Education as Social Justice: Essay in Honour of Michael Omolewa.* Netherlands : Springer.

Bhola, H. S. (2008). Designing and Delivering Adult Education: Within the Quadrangle of Commitment, Capacity, Character and Communication. *Indian Journal of Adult Education , 71* (4), Indian Adult Education Association.

Bhola, H. S. (2003). Practical Policy Analysis for Education Policy Making Under Globalization. In J. B. Tilak, *Education, Society and Development: National and International Perspectives* (pp. 447-458). New Delhi: APH Publishing.

Bhola, H. S. (1998). World Trends and Issues in Adult Education on the Eve of the Twenty-First. *International Review of Education Vol. 44, No. 5/6.* , 485-506.

Bhusan, S. (2009). *Restructuring Higher Education in India.* New Delhi: Rawat Publication.

Bhushan, S. (2013, January 26). Higher Education in 12th Plan: Paradigm Shift in Favour of 'For Profit'. *Economic and Political Weekly* , pp. 17-19.

Biswas, K. (2006). *Amader Siksha (In Bengali).* Kolkata: National Book Agency.

Bok, D. (2005). *Universities in the Marketplace.* New Jersey: Princeton University Press.

Bonal, X. (2002). The World Bank Education Policy and the Post Washington Concensus. *International Studies in Sociology of Education , 12* (1), 3-21.

Borodia, A. (. (1973). *Adult Education in India: A book of Readings .* Mumbai: Nachiketa Publishing Limited.

Boshier, R., Wilson, M., & Qayyum, A. (1999). Lifelong Education and the World Wide Web: American Hegemony or DIverse Utopia? *International Journal of Lifelong Education* , 275-285.

Bourdieu, P. (1998). *Acts of Resistance.* Cambridge: Polity.

Bourdieu, P. (1973). Cultural Reproduction and Social Reproduction. In M. (. Brown, *Reproduction in Education, Society and Culture .* London: Sage.

Bowe, R., Ball, S. J., & Gold, A. (1992). *Reforming Education and Changing Schools: Case Studies in Policy Sociology.* London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Castells, M. (2000). *End of Millennium.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Castells, M. (1998). *End of Millennium, The Information AGe: Economy, Society and Culture Vol -III.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Castells, M. (2010). *The Information Age: Econoy, Society and Culture- Volume I- the Rise of the Network Society.* Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.

Castells, M. (1997). *The Power of Identity.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Castells, M. (1996). The Rise of the Network Society. In M. Castells, *The Information Age, Vol-1.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Castells, M. (2000). *The Rise of the Network Society.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Castells, M. (1996). *The Rise of the Network Society, The INformation Age: Economy, Society and Culture Vol-I.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Castels, M. (1998). *End of Millennium.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Castels, M. (1997). *The Power of Identity.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Castels, M. (2000). *The Rise of the Network Society, 2nd ed. .* Oxford: Blackwell.

Chandrasekhar, C. P. (2010, May 31). How significant is IT in India? *The Hindu* .

Chapman, J. D., & Aspin, D. N. (1997). *The school, the community and lifelong learning.* London: Cassell.

Charmaz, K. (1990). Discoering Chronic Illness: Usin Grounded Theory. *Social Science and Medicine* , 1161-1172.

Charmaz, K. (2000). Grounded Theory: Objectivist and Constructivist Methods. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln, *Handbook of Qualitative Research: 2nd Edition* (pp. 509-536). London: Sage.

Charmaz, K. (2002). Qualitative Interviewing and Grounded Theory Analysis. In J. F. Gubrium, & J. A. Holstein, *Handbook of Interview Research: Context and Method* (pp. 675-6894). London : Sage.

Charmaz, K., & Mitchell, R. G. (1996). The Myth of Silent Authorship: Self, Substance, ad Style in Ethnographic Writing. *Symbolic Interaction* , 285-302.

Chatterjee, S. (2002). *Dr. William Carey (in Bengali).* Kolkata: Srerampore Press.

Chatterjee, S. (1998). *Rev. John Mark (the First Professor od Science in Modern India).* Kolkata: Spark Publishing Concern.

Chaudhary, S. (2011, March 23). *English takes India from Raj to riches.* Retrieved from The Times Higher Education: http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/story.asp?storycode=158337

Chauhan, C. (1990). Education for all: the Indian scene. *International Journal of Lifelong Education* , 3-14.

Chauhan, C. P. (2009). Education for all in India: A second look. *INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF LIFELONG EDUCATION* , 227-240.

Chauhan, C. P. (1990). *Higher Education in India: Achievements, Failures, and Strategies.* New Delhi: Asish Publishing House.

Checchi, D. (2006). *The Economies of Education: Human Capital, Family Background and Inequality.* Cabbridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chibulka, J. G. (1994). Polcy Analysis and the study of Education . *Journal of Education Policy 9* , 105-125.

Chidambaram, P. (2005, September 25). *FInance minister of India, in a conversation with Charlie Rose*. Retrieved 09 2008, 2008, from Youtube: http://youtube.com/watch?v=7zmzw5WV-RA&feature=

Chossudovsky, M. (1998). *The Globalization of Poverty.* Halifax: NS: Fernwood.

Codd, J. (1985). Images of Schooling and Doscourses of the State. In J. Codd, R. Hawker, & R. Nash, *Political Issues in New Zeland Education* (pp. 23-41). Palmerston North: Dunmore Press.

Codd, J. (1988). The Construction and Deconstruction of Educational Policy Documents. *Journal of Education Policy 3* , 235-247.

Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a Global Language, 2nd Edition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dahlman, C., & Utz, A. (2005). *India and the Knowledge Economy: Leveraging Strengths and Opportunities* . Washingto DC: World Bank.

Darling-Hammond, L. (1992). Educational Indicators and Enlightened Policy. *Educational Policy* , 235-265.

Das, N., & Lahiri, k. (. (2007). *Higher Education: Emerging Trends.* Hyderabad: Icfai University Press.

Dasgupta, J. (1976). Practical and theory of language Planning: The Indian Policy Process. In W. M. O'Barr, & F. O'Barr, *Language and Politics.* Monton: The Hague.

Daswani, C. (1999). Traditional Non-FOrmal Vocational Education: The Indian Experience. In M. Singh, *Adult Learning and the Future of Work.* Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Education.

David, P. A., & Foray, D. (2001). *An Introduction to theEconomy of the Knowledge Society.* Oxford: Merit Infromation Research Memorendum Series.

De Wit, H. (2007). Changing Dynamics in International Student Circulation: Meaning, Push and Pull Factors, Trends and Data. In W. D. Hans, P. Agarwal, E. M. Said, M. T. Sahoole, & M. (. Sirozi, *The Dynamics of International Student Circulation in a Global Context* (pp. 15-46). Rotterdam: Sense Publisher.

Delors, J. (1996). *Learnng, The Treasure Within.* Paris: UNESCO.

Dighe, A. (2008). *Use of ICTs in Literacy and Lifelong Learning .* New Delhi: UNESCO.

Directorate of Adult Education- india. (n.d.). *Home*. Retrieved 01 03, 2012, from Directorate of Adult Education : http://www.nlm.nic.in/dae.htm

Directorate of Adult Education: MHRD, Department of Elementary Education & Literacy. (2005). *Note for Supplimentaries: Winter Session of Parliament* . New Delhi: Govt. of India.

Directorate of Distance Education. (2013, 02 07). *About us*. Retrieved from Virtual Campus -AEE-Admission, Education, Evaluation: http://vcjvwu.com/about3.php

DISE. (2010). *DISE : Flash Statistics 2009-10.* New Delhi, India: National University of Educational Planning and Administration .

Dixit, V. K. (2009). Lifelong Learning- Meaning, Concept and Perspective. In N. K. Chadha, *Readings in Lifelong Learning* (pp. 46-65). New Delhi: University of Delhi.

Dreze, J., & Sen, A. (2002). *India: Development and Participation.* London: Oxford.

Dreze, J., & Sen, A. (1995). *INDIA: Economic development and social opportunity.* New Delhi: Oxford University Press.

Dube, S. (1996). *Bharatiya Samaj (Translated into Bengali by Rajat Roy).* New Delhi: National Book Trust.

Duke, C. (2001). Lifelong Learning and Tertiary Education: The Learning University Revisited. In D. Aspin, J. Chapman, M. Hatton, & Y. Sawano, *International Handbook of Lifelong Learning, Part- II.* London: Kluwer Academic Publishers .

Dutta, S. (1996). *History of Adult Education in India.* New Delhi: Indian Adult Education Association.

Dutta, S., & Mia, I. (2011). *The Global Information Technology Report 2010-2011.* Geneva: WEF.

Dworkin, R. (1983). In Defence of Equality. *Social Phylosophy and Policy* , 24-40.

Economy Watch. (2010, June 30). *8th Five Year Plan.* Retrieved 05 14, 2012, from Economy Eatch: http://www.economywatch.com/five-year-plans/8th.html

Edwards, R. (2000). Lifelong Learning, Lifelong Learing, Lifelong Learning - A Recurrent Education? In J. Field, & M. Leicester, *Lifelong Learning: Education Across the Lifespan* (pp. 3-11). London: Routledge.

Ehlers, S. (. (2006). *Milestones Toward Lifelong Learning.* Copenhagen: Danish School of Education.

EIU. (2004). *India Country Profile.* Retrieved 06 17, 2010, from Economic Intelligence Unit: http://db.eiu.com/index.asp?layout=article&eiu_issue_id=507332450&eiu_article_id=907332490

Enders, J., & Musselin, C. (2009). Back to the Future? The Academic Professions in the 21st Century. In OECD, *Higher Education to 2030* (pp. 125-150). New York: OECD.

Euroepaan Commission. (1994). *European Union.* Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

European Commission. (2000). *A memorandum on lifelong learning.* Brussels : European Commission.

European Commission. (2000). *A memorandum on lifelong learning.* Brussels : EUropean Commission.

European Commission. (2013, February 7). *Education and Training: Higher education in Europe*. Retrieved March 22, 2013, from http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/higher_en.htm

European Commission. (n.d.). *ERASMUS*. Retrieved 04 21, 2012, from The ERASMUS Programme – studying in Europe and more: http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-programme/doc80_en.htm

European Commission. (2008, November). *joint declaration on education.* Retrieved 03 19, 2013, from European Commission: Education and Culture: Policy dialogue in education with India: http://ec.europa.eu/education/external-relation-programmes/india_en.htm

European Commission. (1995). *White Paper on Education and Training ,Teaching and Learning Towards the Learning Society.* Brussels: European Commission.

European Commisssion. (1995). *Teaching and Learnig: Towards the Learning Society.* Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

EURYDICE. (2011). *The structure of the European education systems 2011/12: schematic diagrams.* Brussels : EURYDICE.

Fairclough, N. (1993). Critical discourse analysis and the marketisation of public discourse: the universities. *Discourse and Society 4* , 133-168.

Fairclough, N. (2001). The discourse of New Labour: critical discourse analysis. In M. Wetherall, S. Taylor, & S. (. Yetes, *Discourse as data. A guide for analysis* (pp. 229-266). London: Sage.

Farlex. (2013, 02 23). *Licence Raj*. Retrieved from The Free Dictionary: http://financial-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/License+raj

Farooq, N. (1991). Adult Education in India. *Covergernce* , 53-59.

Farrell, D. (2006). *Offshoring: Understanding the Emerging Global Labor Market.* Harverd: Harverd Business School Press.

Farrell, D., & Beinhocker, E. (2007, May 19). Next Big Spenders: India's Middle Class. *Newsweek International- Mckinse Global Institute* .

Faure, E., Herrera, F., Kaddoura, A.-R., Lopes, H., Petrovsky, A. V., Rahnema, M., et al. (1972). *Learning to Be: the world of education today and tomorrow.* Paris: UNESCO.

FCCI. (2012). *Higher Education in India: Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-2017) and Beyond - FCCI Higher Education Summit-2012.* New Delhi: FCCI.

FCCI. (2009). *Making the Indian Higher Education System Fiture Ready- FCCI Higher Education Summit 2009.* New Delhi: FCCI.

Field, J. (2006). *Lifelong Learning and the New Educational Order.* Sterling: Trentham Books.

Field, J., & Leicester, M. (2000). *Lifelong Learning: Education Across the Lifespan.* London: Routledge.

Fontana, A., & Frey, J. H. (2000). The Interview: From Structurd Questions to Negotiated Text. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. Lincoln, *Hadbook of QUalitative Research: Second Edition* (pp. 645-672). London: Sage.

Freidman, T. (1999). *The Lexus and the Olive Tree.* New York: Farrar Straus Giroux.

Frey, J. H. (2004). Grounded Theory. In M. S. Lewis-Beck, A. Bryman, & T. F. Liao, *The Sage Enclyclopedia of Social Science Research Methods* (pp. 440-445). London: Sage.

Fulcher, G. (1989). *Disabling policies? A comparative approach to education policy and disability.* London: Falmer Press.

Galser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The Doscovery of Grounded Theory:Strategies for Qualitative Research.* Chicago: Aldine.

Giddens, A. (1990). *The Consequences of Modernity.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Giddens, A. (1998). *The Third Way.* Cambridge: Polity.

Glasers, B. G. (1992). *Basics of Grounded Theory Analysis: Emergence vs. Forcing* . Mill Valley: Sociology Press.

Godin, B. (2003). *Knowledge-Based Economy: Conceptual Framework or Buzzword? Project on the History and SOciology of S&T Statistics Working Paper in the European Commission (2004) Innovation Management and The Knowledge Driven Economy.* Brussels: ECSC-EC-EAEC.

Gordon, I., Lewis, J., & Young, R. (1977). Perspectives on Policy Analysis. *Public Administration Bulletin 25* , 26-35.

Gould, S. (1989). Equality of access to education? *Modern Law Review* (540-550).

Government of India. (1994). *1993-94 Aanual Report of the Development of Education.* New Delhi: Ministry of Human Resource and Development, Government of India.

Government of India. (2011). *Faster, Sustainable and More Inclusive Growth: An Approach to the Twelfth Five Year Plan .* New Delhi: Government of India.

Govt. of India. (1992). *8th Five Year Plan.* New Delhi: Government of India.

Govt. of India. (2001). *Approach Paper to The Tenth Five Year Plan (2002-2007).* New Delhi: Givernment of India.

Govt. of India. (2007). *Eleventh Five Year Plan - Education.* New Delhi: Government of India.

Govt. of India. (2007). *Eleventh Five Year Plan. VOlume 1- Inclusive Growth .* New Delhi: Government of India.
Govt. of India. (1966). *Kothari Commission Report- Education and National Development.* New Delhi: Government of India.
Govt. of India. (1968). *National Policy on Education.* New Delhi: Government of India.
Govt. of India. (1992). *National Policy on Education 1986 as Modified in 1992 .* New Delhi: Government of India.
Govt. of India. (1997). *Ninth FIve Year Plan (1997 - 2002).* New Delhi: Government of India.
Govt. of India. (2006). *Population Projection for Idia and States: 2001-2026.* Retrieved 05 03, 2012, from Census of India - 2001: http://www.jsk.gov.in/projection_report_december2006.pdf
Govt. of India. (2011). *Provitional Census Figures 2011.* New Delhi: Govt. of India.
Govt. of India. (1949). *Radhakrishnan Report .* New Delhi: Government of India.
Govt. of India. (2002). *Tenth Five Year Plan 2002-2007.* New Delhi: Government of India.
Govt. of India. (2012). *The Planning Commission Approach to the 12th Plan- Enhancing SKills and Faster GEneration of Employment.* New Delhi: MHRD.
Govt. of India: MInistry of Human Resourse an Development. (2010). *Shakshar Bharat: MIssion 2012.* New Delhi: Govt. of India.
Govt., o. I. *SSA Final Report on RTE Act 2009.* New Delhi.
Green, A. (2006). *Education, Globalisation and the Role of Comparative Research.* London: Institute of Education .
Gubrium, J. F., & Holstein, J. A. (2002). *International Handbook of Interview Research: Context& Method.* London: Sage.
Guri-Rosenblit, S. (2009). *Digital Technologies in Higher Education: Sweeping Expectations and Actual Effects.* New York: Nova Science.
Gustavsson, B. (2002). What do We mean by Lifelong Learning and Knowledge? *International Journal of Lifelong Education , 21* (1), 13-23.
Gutman, A. (1987). *Democratic Education.* Prinecton: Princeton University Press.
Habermas, J. (2006). *Time of Transition (Edited and translated by Pensky, M).* Cambridge: Polity.
Haddad, W., & Draxler, A. (. (2002). *echnologies for Education: Potentials, Parameters and Prospects.* Paris: UNESCO and the Academy for Educational Development (AED).
Harman, G. (1984). Conceptual and Theoretical Issues. In J. R. Hough, *Education Policy: An International Survey* (pp. 13-29). London: Croom Helm.
Hawkins, B. L., & Battin, P. (. (1998). *The Mirage of Continuity: Reconfiguring Academic Information Resources for the 21st Century.* Washington DC: Council on Information and Library Resources.
Hayward, G., & Fernandez, R. M. (2004). From core skills to key skills: Fast forward or back to the future? *Oxford Review of Education* , 117-145.
Held, D. T., McGrew, J. P., & Goldblatt, D. (1999). *Global Transformations.* Cambridge: Polity.
Held, D., & McGrew, T. (2002). *Globalisation/ Anti Globalisation.* Cambridge: Polity.
Held, D., McGrew, D., Goldblatt, D., & Perraton, J. (1999). *Global Transformations: Politics, Economics and Culture.* Stanford : Stanford University Press.
Henry, M., Lingard, B., Rizvi, F., & Taylor, S. (2001). *The OECD Globalisation and Education Policy.* London: IAU Press.
Hogwood, B. W., & Gunn, L. A. (1984). *Policy Analysis for the Real World .* New York: Oxford Univerity Press.
Holford, J., & Jarvis, P. (2000). The Learning Society. In A. L. Wilson, & E. R. Hayes, *Handbook of Adult and COntinuing Education .* San Fransisco: Jossey Bass.
Hollway, W., & Jefferson, T. (2000). *Doing Qualitative Research Differently.* London: Sage.
House, P. W. (1982). *The Art of Public Policy Analysis.* New York: Sage.
IAEA. (November, 2011). *IAEA Newsletter (Vol-20, No-11).* New Delhi: IAEA.

Ilon, L. (2010). Higher Education Responds to Global Economic Dynamics. In L. M. Portnoi, V. D. Rust, & S. S. Bagley, *Higher Eduation, Policy and The Global Competition Phenomenon* (pp. 15-28). New York: Pelgrave Macmillan.

Institute of International Education. (2013, 01 28). *Open Doors Data- International Students: Leading Places of Origin*. Retrieved from Institute of International Education 2011-12: http://www.iie.org/en/Research-and-Publications/Open-Doors/Data/International-Students/Leading-Places-of-Origin/2010-12

Intel. (2007, August 1). *Intel Education- Experiences in Enabling 21st Century world Through Sustained Teacher Professional Development Practices.* Retrieved 01 02, 2012, from www.eindia.net.in: www.eindia.net.in/digitallearning/Presentation/anshul.pdf

Jain, R., & Agrawal, R. (2007 vol. 11 no. 2). ICT EDUCATION AND TRAINING SERVICES: CURRENt SCENARIO AND FUTURE PROSPECTS IN INDIA. *The Journal of Business Perspective* , 41-55.

Jairam, N. (2007). National Perspective: India. In J. J. Forest, & P. G. Altbach, *International Handbook of Higher Education - Part Two* (pp. 747-767). Netherlands : Springer .

Jarvis. (2007). During the speach on the International conference on Cognitive capitalism, knowledge economy and politics of knowledge. Copenhagen: Danish School of Education.

Jarvis, P. (1988). *Adult and Continuing Education: Theory and Practice.* London: Routledge.

Jarvis, P. (2008). *Democracy Lifelong Learning and Learning Society.* New York: Routledge.

Jarvis, P. (2007). *Globalization, Lifelong Learning and the Learning Society.* New York: Routledge.

Jarvis, P. (1999). *International Dictionary of Adult and Continuing Education.* London: Kogan Page.

Jarvis, P., Holford, J., & Griffin, C. (2003). *The Theory and Practice of Learning* . Oxon: ROutledge.

Jaypalan, N. (2005). *History of Education in India.* New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers and Distributers .

Jayram, N. (2007). "Beyond Retailing Knowledge: Prospects for Research-Oriented Universities in India. In P. G. Altbach, & J. Balán, *World Class Worldwide: Transforming Research Universities in Asia and Latin America* (pp. 70-94). Johns Hopkins University Press: Baltimore.

Jayram, N. (2006). India- Regional Perspective. In J. J. Forest, & P. G. Altbach, *International Handbook of Higher Education. Part Two : Regions and Countries* (pp. 747-768). Dordrecht: Springer .

Jena, V. K., & Mathew, A. (2009). *Leading The Way: NEw Initiatives in Adult Education.* New Delhi: National Literacy Mission, MHRD, Govt. of India.

Jensen, T. W. (2006). World System and Lifelong Learning: a comment. In S. (. Ehlers, *Milestones Toward Lifelong Learning Systems* (pp. 203-214). Copenhagen: Danish University of Education Press.

Jhaveri, N. (2003). India's Growth Chase: High Aspiration, Low Inspiration. *Economic and Political Weekly , 38* (41), 4338-4350.

JNU. (2013, 02 18). *International Student Association, JNU*. Retrieved from International Student Association: http://www.jnu.ac.in/main.asp?sendval=ISA

Kapur, D., & Mehta, P. B. (2004). Indian Higher Education Reform: From Hal-Baked Socialism to Half-Baked Capitalism. *CID Working Paper. No. 108* . Harvard: Harvard University Press.

Kenway, J. (1990). *Gender and Education Policy: A call for New Directions.* Geelong: Deakin University Press.

Khan, A. (1994). European common market and education. *Journal of Law and Education , 1*.

Khan, H., & Williams, J. (2007). Poverty Alleviation Through Access To Education: Can E-Learning Deliver? . In C. Tisdell, *Poverty, Poverty Alleviation and Social Disadvantage- Analysis, Case Studies and Policies* (pp. 156-172). New Delhi: Serials Publications.

Kiely, R. (2009). Globalization Theory or Therries of (Capitalist) Globalization: The Political Implications of the Distinction. In S. Dasgupta, & J. N. Pieterse, *Politics of Globalization* (pp. 116-146). New Delhi: Sage.

King, K. (1991). *Aid and Education in the Developing World: The Role of the Donor Agencies in Educational Analysis.* Hong Kong: Longman Group.

Knight, J. (2006). Internationalization: Concepts, Complexities and Challenges. In J. J. Forest, & P. G. Altbach, *International Handbook of Higher Education* (pp. 207-228). Dordrecht: Springer.

Knight, J. (2002). Trade in Higher Education Services: The Implications of GATS. London, United Kingdom: The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education.

Konana, P., & Balasubramanian, S. (2001). *India as a Knowledge Economy:Aspirations versus Reality.* Retrieved 12 15, 2011, from misbridge.mccombs.utexas.edu: http://misbridge.mccombs.utexas.edu/knowledge/facpubs/articles/india_and_info_economy.pdf

Kulich, J. (1982). Lifelong Education and the UNiversities : a Canadian Perspective. *International Journal of Lifelon Education* , 123-142.

Kumar, K. (1998). Education and Society in Post-Independence India: Looking towards the Future. *Economic and Political Weekly , 33* (23), 1391-1396.

Kunzel, K. (2000). Europe and Lifelong Learning: Investigating the political and educational rationale of expansionism. In J. Field, & M. (. Leicester, *Perspective on Lifelong Learning: Education across the lifespan.* London: Falmer Press.

Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An Introduction to Qualitative Research Interviewing* . Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Latin, D. (1989). Language Policy and Political Strategy in Indi'a. *Policy Science* , 415-436.

Lauder, H., Brown, P., Dillabough, J. A., & Halsey, A. H. (2006). *Education, Globalization and Social Change.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Le, Gibson, T. J., & Oxley, L. (2005, 10 5). Measures of Human Capital. A Review of the Literature. Wellington , New Zeland: New Zealand Treasury.

Leicester, M., & Parker, S. (2001). From Adult Education to Lifelong Learning. In D. Aspin, J. Chapman, M. Hatton, & Y. Sawano, *International Handbook of Lifelong Learning* (pp. 109-118). Dordecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers BV.

Lewis-Beck, M. S., Bryman, A., & Liao, T. F. (2004). *The Sage Enclyclopedia of Social Science Research Methods.* London: Sage.

Lindensjo, B. (1981). Hogskolereformen. En studie i offentlig reforstrategi. *20*.

Livingstone, S. (1999). Livingstone 1999) in Reddi 2008. *New Media and Society* , 59-66.

Longworth, N., & Davis, W. K. (1996). *Lifelong Learning: New Vision, New Implications, New Roles for People, Organizations, Nations and Communities in the 21st Century.* London: Kogan Page.

Loomba, S., & Mathew, A. (2007). India's National Adult Education Programme. In M. Singh, & L. C. Mussort, *Literacy, Knowledge and Development: South South Policy Dialouge on Quality Education for ADults and Young People.* Hamburg: Unesco Institute for Lifelong Learning.

Luke, A. (2002). Beyond science and ideology critique: developments in critical discourse. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* , 96-110.

Luke, A. (2002). Beyond science and ideology critique: developments in critical discourse analysis. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics 22* , 96-110.

Lukes, S. (2005). *Power: a Radical View.* Basingstoke: Palgrave.

Lyotard, J. f. (1984). *The Postmodern Condition.* Manchester : Manchester University Press.

Maitra, S. (1982). *Adult and Non-Formal Education- a few observation* . Kolkata: State Resource Centre for Adult Eucation.

Maitra, S. (1982). *Adult and Non-Formal Education- Further Observation.* Kolkata: State Resource Centre for Adult Education.

Majchrzak, A. (1984). *Methods For Policy Research.* London: Sage.

Majone, G., & Quade, E. S. (1980). *Pitfalls of Analysis* . New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Mandal, S. (2012). From Policy to Guideline: Metamorphosis of Lifleong Learning in India. *International Journal of Lifelong Education* , 1-19.

Mandal, S. (1993). *Gana Saksharata: Dharana O Rupayan (In Bengali).* Kolkata: National Book Agency .

Mandal, S. (2012). ICT and Economy on the Changing Dimensions of Education and Learning in India – A Double-Edged Sword? *Indian Journal of Adult Education 73, No. 2* , 1-17.

Mandal, S. (2012). Learners of Geography Today- Skills and Competences for Today and Tomorrow. *eTraverse* , 1-7.

Mandal, S. (2012). Why Learning Not Education? - Analysis of Transnational Education Policies in the Age of Globalization. *US-China Education Review B* , 363-374.

Mandal, S., & Mandal, S. (2012). *Lifelong Learning in India: a complex dynamics.* Saarbrücken: Lambert Academic Publishing.

Marginson, S., & Wende, M. V. (2009). The New Global Landscape of Nations and Institutions. In OECD, *Higher Education in 2030: Volume 2- Globalisation* (pp. 17-62). New York: OECD.

Mason, J. (2002). *Qualitative Researching (2nd Ed.)* . London: Sage.

Mason, J. (2004). Semistructured Interview. In M. S. Lewis-Beck, A. Bryman, & T. F. Liao, *The Sage Encyclopedia of Social Science Research Methods* (pp. 1020-1021). London: Sage.

Mason, R. (2004, April 16-17). *ICT and Lifelong Learning.* Retrieved 11 28, 2011, from www.moec.gov.cy/conferences/lifelong: www.moec.gov.cy/conferences/lifelong/pres/RobinMason.doc

Mass Education Extension Department, Govt. of West Bengal, India. (2005). *Literacy in West Bengal.* Kolkata: Govt. of West Bengal.

Mathew, J. V. (2009). *Leading the Way- New Initiatives in Adult Education.* New Delhi: National Literacy Mission.

Mathew, L. (2007). India's National Adult Education Programme. In M. Singh, & L. (. Mussort, *Literacy, Knowledge and Department: South- SOuth Policy Dialouge on Quality Education for Adult and Young People.* Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning.

McKinse Global Institute. (2003). *Offshoring: Is it a win-win game?* . San Fransisco: McKinsey Global Institute.

McKinse. (2011). *Internet Matters: The Net's Sweping Impact on Growth, Jobs and Prosperity.* San Fransisco: McKinse Global Institute.

Meredith, R. (2007). *The Elephant and the Dragon: The Rise of India and China and What it Means to All of Us.* New York: W W Norton & Company.

Mezirow, J. (2000). *Learning as Transformation: Critical Perspectives on a Theory in Progress.* San Fransisco: Jossey Bass.

Mezirow, J., & Edward, W. T. (2011). *Transformative Learning in Practice: Insights from Community, Workplace, and Higher Education.* San Fransisco: John Willey & Sons.

MHRD. (2010). *Report to the People of Education* . New Delhi: Government of India.

MHRD, Govt. of India. (1988). *National Literacy Mission.* New Delhi: Govt. of India.

Miller, S. (2003). Impact of Mixed Methods and Design on Inference Quality. In A. Tashakkori, & C. Teddlie, *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social & Behavioral Research* (pp. 423-456). London: Sage.

Minisry of Education and Culture. (n.d.). *Ministry of Human Resource Development.* Retrieved 11 29, 2011, from home: http://www.education.nic.in

MInistry of Education and Culture, Gov. of India. (1984). *Adult Education Programme: Policy Perspectives and Strategies for Implementation.* New Delhi: Govt. of India.

Ministry of Finance, Govt. of India. (2003). *Econmoic Survey 2003-2004.* Retrieved 09 03, 2011, from Econmoic Survey 2003-2004: http://indiabudget.nic.in/es2003-04/esmain.htm

Ministry of Human Resource and Development. (1992). *National Policy on Education 1986 (as modified in 1992).* New Delhi: Government of India.

Ministry of Statistics and Program Implementation. (n.d.). *India Statistics*. Retrieved 04 04, 2012, from Ministry of Statistics and Program Implementation, Govt. of India: http://mospi.nic.in/Mospi_New/site/India_Statistics.aspx

Mohankumar, V. (2012, October 24). Personal Interview with author . (S. Mandal, Interviewer)

Mohanty, J. (1999). Non Formal and Adult Education in India. In B. M. Sankhdher, *Encyclopedia of Education System in India, Vol- 12*. New Delhi: Deep and Deep Publication.

Morse, J. M. (1991). Approaches to Qualitative and Quantitative Methodological Triangulation. *Nursing Research 40* , 120-123.

Mukherjee, S., & Chanda, R. (2012, May). *Indian Students Mobility to Selected European Countires-An Overview.* Retrieved from Research @ IIMB: http://www.iimb.ernet.in/research/working-papers/indian-student-mobility-selected-european-countries-overview

Mundy, K. (1999). Educational Multiculturalism in a changing world order: UNESCO and the limits of the possible. *22* (6).

Mundy, K. (2005). Globalization and Educational Change: New Policy Words. In N. Bascia, A. Cumming, A. Datnow, K. Leitwood, & D. Livingstone, *International Handbook of Educational Policy* (pp. 3-18). Dordrecht: Springer .

Murphy, M. (2005). Oil, Recession and te Search for the European Champions:Exploring Lifelong Learning in the European Union . In N. Papadakis, & D. Gravaris, *Education and Education Policy Between the State and the Market.* Athens: Savvalas.

Murthy, N. (2011, October 3). Poor quality of students entering IITs: Narayana Murthy. *Times of India* .

Naik, J. (1997). *The Education Commission and After.* New Delhi: Indian Adult Education Association.

Naik, J. (1997). *The Education Commission and After.* New Delhi: APH Publishing House.

Narang, R. (2000). *Indian Universities and the Future of Adult Education in the Twenty-First Century.* Paris: UNESCO.

Narrang, R. (1997). Universities and the Future of Adult Education in Twenty First Century. Opinion Papers. ERIC ED 410384.

NASSCOM. (2009). *Perspective 2020: Transforming Business, Transfroming India*. New Delhi: NASSCOM.

National Bureau of Census, India. (n.d.). *Population Census*. Retrieved from http://censusindia.gov.in/

National Commission of Population, India. (n.d.). *Population and Human Social Development: Facts. Part I.* Retrieved 05 12, 2012, from National Commission of Population: http://populationcommission.nic.in/facts1.htm#

National Knoledge Commiccion. (2009). *Report to the Nation 2006-2009.* New Delhi: National Knowledge Commission.

National Knowledge Commission. (n.d.). *home*. Retrieved 01 06, 2012, from National Knowledge Commission: http://www.knowledgecommission.gov.in/

National Knowledge Commission. (2006). *National Knowledge Commission (NKC) of India: An Overview.* New Delhi: National Knowledge Commission.

National Knowledge Commission. (2007). *Report to the Nation.* New Delhi: National Knowledge Commission.

National Literacy Mission. (n.d.). *National Literacy Mision home*. Retrieved 09 23, 2011, from National Literacy Mission : http://www.nlm.nic.in

Newman, M. (2006). *Teaching Resistance*. San Fransisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

NIIT. (2013, 01 29). *NIIT offers India's first Cloud Campus*. Retrieved from NIIT: http://www.niit.com/newsandevents/Lists/NIIT%20News/disformCustomv3.aspx?List=a325a1cf-a064-4573-b17a-3ce893a0d178&ID=270

Nutley, S., & Webb, J. (2000). Evidence and Policy Process. In H. Davis, S. Nutley, & P. (. Smith, *What Works? Evidence -Based Policy and Practice in Public Services* (pp. 13-41). Bristol, UK: Policy Press.

O'Meara, P., Mehlinger, H. D., & Karim, M. (2000). *Globalization and the Challenges of a New Century: A Reader.* Bloomington: Inidiana University Press.

OECD. (2007, October). *Economic Survey of India 2007.* Retrieved 05 14, 2011, from Policy Brief-OECD: http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/17/52/39452196.pdf.

OECD. (1989). *Education and the Economy in a Changing Context.* Paris: OECD.

OECD. (2008). *Higher Education to 2030- Volume 1- Demography.* Paris: OECD.

OECD. (n.d.). *History*. Retrieved 03 04, 2011, from OECD: Better Policies for Better Lives: http://www.oecd.org/pages/0,3417,en_36734052_36761863_1_1_1_1_1,00.html

OECD. (2012). *India-OECD Collaborative Workshop on Education and Innovation: New Delhi, 9-10 May 2012.* New Delhi: OECD.

OECD. (1996). *Lifelong Learning for All.* Paris: OECD.

OECD. (1997). *Lifelong Learning to Maintain Employability, Paper prepared for the Meeting of OECD Labour Ministers, DEELSA/ELSA(97)4REV2 (drafted by G. Wurzburg & P. McKenzie).* Paris: OECD.

OECD. (2002). *OECD Global Forum on Knowledge Economy, the Digital Economy.* Paris: OECD.

OECD. (1973). *Recurrent Education: a strategy for lifelong learning.* Paris: OECD.

OECD. (1997b). *Societal Cohesion and the Globalising Economy: What does the future hold.* Paris: OECD.

Oliver, D. E., & Nguyen, K. D. (2010). Global Competition as a Two-Edged Sword- Vietnam Higher Education Policy. In L. M. Potnoi, V. D. Rust, & S. S. Bagley, *Higher Education, Policy and The Global Competition Phenomenon* (pp. 127-142). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Oliver, R. (2002). The role of ICT in higher education for the 21st Century: ICT as a change agent for education. *Higher Education for the 21st Century Conference.* Sarawak: Curtin University.

Oxenham, J., Diallo, A. H., Katahoire, A. R., Mwangi, A. P., & Sall, O. (2002). *Skills and Literacy Training for Better Livelihoods: A Review of Approaches and Experiences.* Washington DC: World Bank, Africa Region Human Development Working Paper Series.

Oxford Dictionaries. (2013, 04 22). *Dimensions* . Retrieved from Oxford Dictionaries: http://oxforddictionaries.com/us/definition/american_english/dimension

Ozdemir, Z. D., & Abrevaya, J. (2007). Adoption of technology-mediated distance education: A longitudinal analysis. *Information & Management* , 467-479.

Papadakis, N., & Gravaris, D. (2002). Towards the End of Education Systems? Europe in a World Perspective. London: XXth Cooperative Society in Europe (CESE).

Papadopoulos, N. (1994). *Education 1960-1990. The OECD Perspective.* Paris: OECD.

Parson, S. (1990). Lifelong Learning and the Community School. In C. Poster, & A. Kruger, *Community Education in Western World.* London: Routledge.

Pena-Borreo, M. (1984). Lifelong Education and Social Change. *International Journal of Lifelong Education* , 1-15.

Pitroda, S. (2010). *We have discussed a lot, now it's time to act (speach at the Pan IIT 2010 Higher Education Round table at IIT Delhi).* Retrieved 03 22, 2012, from India Education Review: http://www.indiaeducationreview.com/article/we-have-discussed-lot-now-its-time-act

Planning Commission. (2010). *Evaluation Report on Sarva Siksha Abhiyan.* New Delhi: Planning Commission, Govt. of India.

Planning Commission- Government of India. (2007). *Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007-2011) Inclusive Growth.* New Delhi: Oxford University Press.

Planning Commission of India. (n.d.). *home*. Retrieved 12 23, 2011, from Planning Commission of India: http://planningcommission.nic.in

Planning Commission, Government of India. (2013a). *Draft- Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-2017)- Faster, More Inclusive and Sustainable Growth- Volume-I.* New Delhi: Government of India.

Planning Commission, Government of India. (2013b). *Draft- Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-2017)- Faster, More Inclusive and Sustainable Growth- Volume-II.* New Delhi: Government of India.

Planning Commission, Government of India. (2013c). *Draft- Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-2017)- Faster, More Inclusive and Sustainable Growth- Volume-III.* New Delhi: Government of India.

Planning Commission, Govnment. of India. (2001). *India as Knowledge Superpower: Strategy for Transfromation.* New Delhi: Government of India.

Pogrow, S. (1985). Shifting Policy Analysis and Formation from an Effectiveness Emphasis on Cost Perspective . *Policy Studies Review Annual* , 632-639.

Post, D., Clipper, L., Enkbaatar, D., Manning, A., Riley, T., & Zaman, H. (2004). World Bank Okays Public Interest in Higher Education. *Higher Education , 48* (2), 213-229.

PTI. (2011, February 6). India's middle class population to touch 267 million in 5 yrs. *The Economic Times* .

Raghavan, J. V. (2003). Education planning in India'. In J. B. Tilak, *Education, Society and Development: National and International Peerpective.* New Delhi: NUEPA.

Raghavan, P. (2007, August 13). India Has The Brains, But Where's The Beef? *Forbes* .

Raja, M., & Malhotra, N. (1991). *Higher Education in India: a comprehensive bibligraphy.* New Delhi: Concept Publishing Company.

Rajan, R. (1998). *Adult Education by NASS Volunteer.* Chennai: Sangeetha Publication.

Rajesh. (2009). Comparative Adult and Lofelong Education- An Emerging Approach. In N. K. Chadha, *Readings in Lifelong Learning* (pp. 28-45). New Delhi: University of Delhi.

Rajesh, & Dixit, V. K. (2011). *Lifelong Learning: Issues and Challenges* . New Delhi: Global Book Organization.

Ram, A. (1990). *Higher Education in India: Issues and Perspectives.* New Delhi: Mittal Publication.

Rani, G. P. (2003). *Economic Reform and Financing Higher Education in India.* Retrieved 06 3, 2012, from www.ibbc.lt: http://www.ibbc.lt/economicreformshighereducation.pdf

Rasmussen, P. (2006). Globalization and Lifelong Learning. In S. Ehlers, *Milestones Towards Lifelong Learning Systems.* Copengahen: Danish University Press.

Rawls, J. (1971). *A Theory of Justice.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Raza, M., Aggarwal, Y. P., & Hasan, M. (1985). Higher education in India: An assessment. In J. V. Raghavan, *Higher education in the eighties* (pp. 95-173). New Delhi: Lancer International .

Reddi, U. V. (2008). *Role of ICT in education and development- Potential, Pitfalls and Chllenges .* Retrieved 01 02, 2012, from www.unesco.org/education/aladin/paldin: http://www.unesco.org/education/aladin/paldin/pdf/course01/unit_13.pdf

Rein, M. (1983). *From Policy to Practice.* Michigan: University of Michigan.

Rizvi, F., & Lingard, B. (2006). Globalization and the Changing Nature of the OECD's Educatioanl Work. In H. Lauder, P. Brown, J. Dillabough, H. A. Halsey, & (eds.), *Globalization and Social Change.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Rizvi, F., & Lingard, B. (2010). *Globalizing Education Policy.* New York: Routledge.

Robinson, K. (2010, October). Changing education paradigms.

Roe, E. (1994). Introduction and Apendix A: Narrrative Policy Analysis: Why is it, what is it and how is it? *Narrative Policy Analysis* , 1-19, 155-162.

Rosenberg, J. (2000). *The Follies of Globalisation Theory* . New York: Verso.

Rubenson, K. (2006). Constructing the Lifelong Learning Paradigm: Competing vision from the OECD and UNESCO. In S. Ehlers, *Milestones towards lifelong learning systems.* Copenhagen: Danish University of Education Press.

Rubenson, K. (2004). Global Directions in Adult Education. In J. M. Steinøien, A. M. Laginder, T. Mörkved, K. Rubenson, & S. Tøsse, *Utfordringer for voksnes læring. Et nordisk perspektiv*

(Challenges for adult learning. A Nordic perspective) (pp. p. 132-147). Trondheim: Vox & Mimer.

Rubenson, K. (2002). Lifelong Learning for All: Challenges and Limitations of Public Policy. Toronto: Published proceedings of the Canadian Association for the Study of Adult Education.

Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (1995). *Qualitative Interviewing: The Art of Hearing Data.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Rudestam, K. E., & Newton, R. R. (2007). *Surviving Your Dissertation: A Comprehensive Guide to Content and Process- Third Edition.* London: Sage.

Ryan, G. W., & Bernard, H. R. (2000). Data Management and Analysis Methods. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln, *Handbook of Qualitative Research: 2nd Ed.* (pp. 769-802). London: Sage.

Sarkar, R. (1992). *Paschim Banger Ganit Chinta (in Bengali).* Kolkata: Best Books.

SASNET. (2011, November 18). *Erasmus Mundus Action 2 Indo-European and South Asia Regional Partnership programmes 2008-2010*. Retrieved from SASNET- Swidish South Aian Studies Network: http://www.sasnet.lu.se/education/erasmus-mundus-action-2-indo-european-and-south-asia-regional-partnership-programmes-2008

Sen, A. (1999). *Development As Freedom.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Shah, S. (1993). *Indian Adult Education - istorical Perspectives.* New Dehi: Adult COntinuing Education and Etension Unit- Ministry of Human Resource and Development, Govt. of India.

Shah, S. (1993). *Indian Adult Education- a historical perspective.* New Delhi: Adult Continuing Education and Extension Unit, Jawaharlal Nehru Univeristy.

Shah, S. Y. (1999). *An Encyclopedia of Indian Adult Education.* New Delhi: National Literacy Mission, Government of India.

Shah, S. Y. (2009). Lifelong learning in India- Opportunities and Challanges. *Indian Journal of Adult Education* , 80-100.

Shah, S. Y. (2008). Teaching and Training in Adult and Lifelong Learning in India: Need for Professionalisation. *Indian Journal of Adult Education* , 2010.

Shah, S. Y. (2010). Teaching and training in adult and lifelong learning in India: Need for professionalisation. *Indian Journal of Adult Education 71-4* , 80-100.

Shamsu, S. (2012, October 4). Personal Interview with the author on the influence of the changing dimensions of lifleong learning on the national higher education policies in recet years. (S. Mandal, Interviewer)

Shaw, M. (1992). Education and the law in the European Community. *Journal of Law and Education , 3* (415-442).

Shields, R., & Edwards, R. M. (2010). Student Mobiity and Emerging Hubs in Higher Education. In L. M. Portnoi, V. D. Rust, & S. S. Bagley, *Higher Education, Policy and the GLobal Competition Pheomenon* (pp. 235- 248). New York: Palgrave Mcmillan.

Silverman, D. (2000). Analyzing Talk and Text. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln, *Handbook of Qualitative Research - 2nd Ed.* (pp. 821-834). London: Sage.

Singh, M. (2007). *New Companion to Adult Education.* New Delhi: International Institute of Adult & Lifelong Education .

Singh, M. (2005, August 2). *PM's remarks at the launch of the Knowledge Commission.* Retrieved 11 07, 2011, from Government of India: http://pmindia.nic.in/speech-details.php?nodeid=153

Singh, S. (1957). *History of Adult Education during British Period.* Delhi: Indian Adult Education Association.

Skolverket. (2000). *Lifelong Learning and Lifewide Learning.* Stockholm: National Agency for Education, Sweden .

Smith, J., & Spurling. (1999). *Lifelong Learning: Riding the Tiger.* London: Cassell.

Snehi, N. (2009). *ICT in Indian Universities and Colleges: Opportunitieas and Challenges* . Retrieved from IILM Institute for Higher Education: http://www.mimts.org/Management%20&%20Change/9-

ICT%20in%20Indian%20Universities%20and%20Colleges%20-%20Oppertunites%20and%20Challenges.pdf
Spring, J. (2009). *Globalization of Education.* New York: Routledge.
Steinøien, J. M., Laginder, A. M., Mörkved, T., Rubenson, K., & Tøsse, S. (2004). *Utfordringer for voksnes laering. Et nordisk perspektiv (Challenges for adult learning. A Nordic perspective).* Trondheim: Vox and Mimer.
Stewart, F. (1995). *Adjustment and poverty: options and choices.* London: Routledge.
Stromquist, N. P. (2002). *Education in a Globalized World- The connectivity of Economic Power, Technology and Knowledge .* Oxford: Oxford, Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.
Sykes, G., Barbara, S., & Ford, T. (. (2009). *Handbook of Education Policy Research.* New York: Routledge.
Taub, R. P. (1969). *Bureaucrats Under Stress: Administrators and Administration in an Indian State.* Califronia: University of California Press.
Taylor, S. (1997). Critical policy analysis: exploring contexts, texts and consequences. *Discourse: studies in the cultural politics of education 18* , 23-35.
Taylor, S. (2004). Researching educational policy and change in 'new times': using critical discourse analysis. *Journal of Education Policy* , 433-451.
Taylor, S., Rizvi, F., Lingard, B., & Henry, M. (2006). *Education Policy and the Politics of Change.* New York: Routledge .
The Wall Street Journal. (2011, April 5). *India Graduates Millions, but Too Few Are Fit to Hire.* Retrieved 12 10, 2011, from The Wall Street Journal-India: http://online.wsj.com/article/SB10001424052748703515504576142092863219826.html
Tickoo, C. (1980). *Indina Universities.* Madras (Chennai) : Orient Longman .
Tilak, J. B. (2004, May 22). Absence of Policy and Perspective in Higher Education. *Economic and Political Weekly* , pp. 2159-2164.
Tilak, J. B. (2005). Are We Marching towards Laissez-faireism in Higher Education Development? *Journal of International Cooperation in Education , 8* (1), 153-165.
Tilak, J. B. (2005). Higher Education in Trishanku. *Economic and Political Weekly , 40* (37), 4029-4037.
Tilak, J. B. (2012, March 31). Higher Education Policy in India in Transition. *Economic and Political Weekly* , pp. 36-40.
Times of India. (2000, November 19). Is emphasis on IT Justified. *The Times of India* .
Trafford, V., & Leshem, S. (2008). *Stepping Stone to Achieving Your Doctorate.* New York: Open University Press.
Tuijnman, A., & Brostrom, A. K. (2002). Changing Notion of Lifelong Education and Lifelong Learning. *48* (1/2).
TUNING. (n.d.). *TUNING Educational Structure*. Retrieved 09 23, 2011, from http://www.unideusto.org/tuningeu/
UGC. (2011). *Higher Education in India: Strategies and Schemes during Eleventh Plan.* New Delhi: University Grants Commission.
UGC. (1993). *Report of the Committee on Vocationalisation of Higher Education .* New Delhi: University Grants Commission.
UGC. (1993). *UGC Funding of Institutions of Higher Education.* New Delhi: University Grants Commission.
UGC. (n.d.). *University Grants Commission*. Retrieved 09 08, 2011, from Home: http://www.ugc.ac.in/
UNDP. (2001). *Information Communications Technology for Development.* New York: UNDP.
UNESCO. (n.d.). *CONFINTEA VI.* Retrieved 03 01, 2012, from UNESCO.org: http://www.unesco.org/en/confinteavi/
UNESCO. (2010). *CONFINTEA VI: Belém Framework for Action.* Paris: UNESCO.
UNESCO. (2011). *EFA Global Monitoring Report - 2011.* Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (2006). *EFA Global Monitoring Report.* Paris: UNESCO.
UNESCO. (2009). *EFA GLobal Monitoring Report.* Paris: UNESCO.
UNESCO. (2011). *EFA GLobal Monitoring Report.* PAris: UNESCO.
UNESCO. (2012). *EFA Global Monitoring Report.* Paris: UNESCO.
UNESCO. (2009). *GUIDE TO MEASURING INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES (ICT) IN EDUCATION.* Paris: UNESCO.
UNESCO. (1996). *Learning :The Treasure Within : Report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty First Century.* Paris: UNESCO.
UNESCO. (2002). *The Hyderabad Statement on Adult and Lifelong Learning.* Hamburg: UNESCO Institute of Eucation Publication.
UNESCO. (1998). *The Mumbai Statement on Lifelong Learning, Active Citizenship and the Refrom of Higher Education .* Hamburg: UNESCO Institute of Education Publication.
UNESCO. (n.d.). *The Right to Education*. Retrieved 03 16, 2012, from UNESCO: http://www.unesco.org/new/en/education/themes/leading-the-international-agenda/right-to-education/#
UNESCO. (2008). *Towards Information Literacy.* Paris: UNESCO.
UNESCO. (2005). *Towards Knowledge Societies.* Paris: UNESCO.
UNESCO. (2005). *Towards Knowledge Societies.* Paris: UNESCO.
UNESCO. (2011). *Transforming Education:the power of ICT Policies.* Paris: UNESCO.
UNESCO. (1998). *World Declaration on Higher Education.* Paris: UNESCO.
UNESCO, I. f. (n.d.). *Data Centre: China*. Retrieved 09 09, 2011, from UIS Statics in Brief: http://stats.uis.unesco.org/unesco/TableViewer/document.aspx?ReportId=121&IF_Language=eng&BR_Country=1560
United Nations. (n.d.). *The Universal Declaration of Human Rights*. Retrieved 03 11, 2012, from United Nations : http://www.un.org/en/documents/udhr/index.shtml
United Nations. (2009). *World Population Prospects: The 2008 Revision.* New York: United Nations Population Division, Department of Economic and Social Affairs.
University Grants Commision. (2010). *XI PLan Guideline on Lifelong Learning and Extension.* NEw Delhi: UGC.
University Grants Commission . (2012). *Higher Education in India at a Glance.* New Delhi: University Grants Commission.
University Grants Commission. (2006). *Annual Report 2005-2006.* New Delhi: Univerisy Grants Commission.
UNSTATS. (n.d.). *ICT SECTOR STATISTICS IN INDIA – CURRENT STATUS.* Retrieved March 27, 2012, from UNSTATS: unstats.un.org/unsd/economic_stat/ICT-Korea/.../Godavarkar_India.pdf
Wain, K. (1991). Lifelong Education: a duty on oneself? *Journal of Philosophy of Education 25, 2* , 273-8.
Wain, K. (2007). Lifelong Learning and the politics of the Learning Society. In N. D. Aspin, *Phylosophical Perspectives of Lifleong Learning* (pp. 39-56). London: Springer.
Washer, P. (2007). Revisiting Key Skills: A Practical Framework for Higher Education. *Quality in Higher Education* , 57-67.
Watson, K. (1999). UNESCO's VIsion for education in the twenty-first century: where is the moral high ground? *9*.
Weinraub, B. (1991, June 29). *Economic Crisis Forcing Once Self-Reliant India to Seek Aid.* Retrieved 07 29, 2012, from The New York Times: http://www.nytimes.com/1991/06/29/world/economic-crisis-forcing-once-self-reliant-india-to-seek-aid.html
West Bengal Adult Education Association. (1957). *Social Edcation in West Bengal.* Calcutta: Association Office.

White, J. P. (1982). *The Aims of Education Re-Stated.* London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
Willekens, F. (2008). Demography and Higher Education: The Impact on the Age Structure of Staff and Human Capital Formation. In O. C. Innovation, *Higher Education to 2030: Volume 1-Demography* (pp. 105-124). New York: OECD.
Williams, J. H., & Cummings, W. K. (2005). *Policy-Making for Education Refrom in Developing Countries: Contexts and Processes, Volume-1.* Oxford: Scarecrow Education .
Wilterdink, N. (1993). The European Ideal: an examination of European and national identity. *Archives europeenness se sociologie* , 119-36.
World Bank & European Commission. (2002). *Final Report of the Knowledge Economy Forum.* Paris: World Bank and European Commission.
World Bank. (n.d.). *About Us*. Retrieved 08 12, 2011, from http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXTABOUTUS/0,,pagePK:50004410~piPK:36602~theSitePK:29708,00.html
World Bank. (2007). *Building Knowledge Economies : Advanced Strategies for Development.* Wasington DC: World Bank.
World Bank. (2007). *Building Knowledge Economies: Advanced Strategies for Development.* Washington DC: Wold Bank.
World Bank. (1999). *Education Sector Strategy.* Washington DC: The International Bank for Reconstruction/ The World Bank.
World Bank. (2000). *Higher Education in Developing Countries: Peril and Promise.* Wasington DC: World Bank.
World Bank. (2009). *KEI and KI Indexes (KAM 2009)*. Retrieved 12 22, 2011, from http://info.worldbank.org/etools/kam2/KAM_page5.asp
World Bank. (2003). *Lifelong Learning in the Global Knowledge Economy: CHallenges for Developing COuntries.* Washington D C: World Bank.
World Bank. (n.d.). *Tertiary Education (Higher Education)*. Retrieved March 17, 2013, from http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTEDUCATION/0,,contentMDK:20298183~menuPK:617592~pagePK:148956~piPK:216618~theSitePK:282386,00.html#activity
World Bank. (2001). *World Development Report 2000/2001: Attacking Poverty.* Wasington DC: World Bank.
World Bank. (2011). *World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development.* Wasington DC: World Bank.
World Economic Forum. (2003). *The Global Information Technology Report 2002–2003: Readiness for the Networked World.* Oxford: World Economic Forum.
World Economic Forum. (2011). *The Global Information Technology Report 2010-2011.* Geneva: World Economic Forum.
Yash Pal Committee Report. (2009). *Report of The Committee to Advice on Revation and Rejuvenation of Higher Education.* New Delhi: Govt. of India.
Yeatman, A. (1990). *Bureaucrats, Technocrats, Femcrats: Essays on the Contemporary Australian State.* Sydney: Alen and unwin.
Young, K., Ashby, D., Boaz, A., & Grayson, L. (2002). Social-Science and the Evidence-Based Policy Movement . *Social Policy and Society 1 (3)* , 215-224.

Endnotes

[i] Examples of programs taken by the Indian government to promote ICT- to promote literacy initiatives, the government mainly takes the help of television and radio as major tools. Several pilot projects (e.g. PREAL, Khilti Kaliyan, Chauraha) are executed in different regions in this regard. To use the existing ICT infrastructure in public schools to promote ICT learning for out-of-school youth, 'Bridge to the Future Initiative' (BFI) program has been undertaken in South India. Some major projects are running or completed with the help of foreign funding. The Commonwealth of Learning (COL), a pilot project with the 'technology based community learning centre' model, was sponsored by the British Department of International Development (DFID). 'The ICT Application for Non-Formal Education' project aims at enabling learners to expand their livelihood opportunities and assist them in improving their quality of life. This project uses computer more than that in other mentioned programs in non-formal domain. However, the development of dedicated software for literacy development can be seen in the 'Tata Computer Based Literacy Program (CBFL), from the leading India based multinational company, Tata. Intel's initiative to develop teacher-professional development by the 'Intel-Tech' programs spreads in many countries including India, with the mission to 'accelerate 21st century education for the knowledge economy as a trusted partner to governments and educators' (Intel 2007).

[ii] Faculty wise student enrolment in Higher Education in India in 2010-11, showing that a majority of students still enroll in non-professional courses.

- [iii] VIT E.g. twinning programs University (Vellore, India) and Karlsruhe University of Applied Sciences(Karlsruhe, Germany); M.Sc. in Sensor Systems Technology
- SRM University (Chennai, India) and Bochum University of Applied Sciences(Bochum, Germany); B.Tech. in Mechanical and Computer Science Engineering
- Andhra University (Visakhapatnam, India) and Group T International University College (Leuven, Belgium); B.Eng. in Electro-Mechanical Engineering
- Christ University (Bangalore, India) and Loyola College (Chennai, India) have a twinning program arrangement with ISA Group (Lille, France); M.Tech in Sustainable Food Technology Management is awarded by the ISA Group
- E.g. Dual or Joint degree program
- Delhi University (Delhi, India) and seven partner institutions from France; M.Tech. in Nuclear Science and Technology
- Jawaharlal Nehru Technological University JNTU (Kakinada, India) and Blekinge Institute of Technology BTH (Karlskrona, Sweden); two-year dual degree master programs in Engineering, with M.Tech. from JNTU and M.Sc. from BTH
- Birla Institute of Technology (Mesra, India) and Aalaborg University (Aalaborg, Denmark); dual degree master program in Software Defined Radio Engineering
- Eindhoven University of Technology (Eindhoven, the Netherlands) and Manipal University (Manipal, India); dual degree masters program in Computer Science