

Policy Implementation: A Study of Higher Education in India Higher Education in India: Accessibility and Inclusion

Akanksha Anand, Ph.D. M.Phil MSW CIBE (Health & Policy)

Program Director and Faculty at Social Work

SUNY Plattsburgh

Education, Health & Human Services

Department of Social Work

Plattsburgh, NY 12901

Higher Education in India: An Introduction

India is one of the third largest higher education systems in the world after the United States and China. It has been witnessing a healthy growth in its number of institutions and enrollment in the last few decades to nearly 22 million students in more than 46,000 institutions (Agarwal, 2006; University Grants Commissions, UGC, 2013; RAND, 2013). The Indian higher education comprises of 33,657 institutions, made up of 634 universities and 33,023 colleges; it is the largest higher education system in the world. Higher education indicators are measured by gross enrollment ratios of different countries (Trow, 1973). India's Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) of 15 per cent with an increased focus on increased number of institutions and enrollment, India is still below the world's average. With the systems rapid expansion there has been an increased concern of quality, quantity, infrastructure, institutional governance, public funding in higher education (Altbach, & Knight, 2007, UGC, 2013).

Quality, funding, and efficiency of policy responses, these mechanisms have been insufficiently accompanied by poor policy regulations and its subsequent implementation (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Higher education has been found to be significantly related to the human development index and greater for the disadvantaged groups (Joshi, 2006). Despite various intervention measures to address equity objectives, disparity still exists in terms of gender, ethnic groups, and economic criteria and by location (Joshi & Ahir, 2013). The disadvantaged group stands at the lower strata of access and participation in higher education despite constitutional protection and strong government affirmative action policies. The Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) of these impoverished and socially disadvantaged groups has improved significantly during the last decade, but the participation in absolute terms is much below the national average (Joshi & Basu, 2013). Inter-regional variations in quality, quantity and equity dimensions of higher education are noticeable. Despite improvement in policies directing equity over the decades, higher education is not accessible to the poorest groups of population like those in lowest castes (Thorat, S., & Motilal, 2005). The strong wave of globalization and trends in internationalization of higher education stress the need to develop a strong a vibrant higher education system (Tilak, 2004; Altbach, & Knight, 2007).

The National Educational Policy (NEP) 2020 policy by the government of India envisions the development of inclusive and accessible education for the masses. This also aims to provide lifelong learning opportunities and processes by introducing flexibility into India's previously rigid educational system. As part of the global educational ecosystem, the NEP 2020 policy in India should also be looking at integrating the global educational policy guidelines. This policy has changed from "Education for all to enrolment to learning that is inclusive, equitable, effective and relevant," similar to the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 4 – Education 2030 Agenda, UNESCO (2017). All the member countries, including India, have agreed to integrate lifelong learning into their policies based on their national priorities, which will have an impact beyond social and economic development and facilitate sustainable development. The National Educational Policy (NEP) 2020 policy by the government of India envisions the development of inclusive and accessible education for the masses. This also aims to provide lifelong learning opportunities and processes by introducing flexibility into India's previously rigid educational system. As part of the global educational ecosystem, the NEP 2020 policy in India should also be looking at integrating the global educational policy guidelines. This policy has changed from "Education for all to enrolment to learning that is inclusive, equitable, effective and relevant," similar to the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 4 – Education 2030 Agenda, UNESCO (2017). All the member countries, including India, have agreed to integrate lifelong learning into their policies based on their national priorities, which will have an impact beyond social and economic development and facilitate sustainable development (Tholath, Ramasubramaniam, & Xavier, 2021).

Brief Historical Perspective

After 1947, the year of India's independence, National Policy of Education (NEP) was formulated in 1968 as a significant step to promote nation integration. This integration was a radical reconstruction of the Indian education system, to improve its quality at all stages, with an emphasis on science and technology, and educational advancements nationally. With education being a goal for public good, NEP in 1968, expanded education to all over the country at all levels. A common structure of education had been established throughout the Country with an introduction of the 10+2+3 system of education. Nearly 90 per cent of the country's rural habitations now have schooling facilities within a radius of one kilometer. However, the governments did not have a mechanism to implement the goal. They lacked assigning specific responsibilities, financial, and organizational support to achieve the goal. As a failure of not having a mechanism, problem of access, quality, quantity, utility, and financial plan massively accumulated over the years. The disparities of unequal access to women, Schedules caste/ Schedules tribes and muslin minorities remained (Agarwal, 2006).

Current Policy Implementation in India: At the Center and State Level

Against the rapid enrollment growth, declining education quality, and increasing financial pressures are India's key policy concerns for economic development through 2017 in the annual five-year plan. Now in the 12th Five-Year Plan with an economic focus, it has recommended that the country's higher education institutions be granted more autonomy over curriculum, staffing, and programs offered. Indian now needs to urgently develop a course of action to guide India's higher education system toward the "steer and evaluate" model proposed by the 12th Five-Year Plan (RAND, 2013). After the economic reforms were undertaken in the early 1990s their influence on development of higher education has been ignored. The private sector has come to occupy a central role in economic development of the nation.

The National Education Policy (NEP) of 1986 was formulated to account for disparities by making provisions for the disadvantaged groups. And importantly, stressed on science and technology education system because of the prevalent economic and technical developments. The 1986 policy led to encouragement to emerging sectors like Information Technology, which witnessed an upsurge following the opening of the technical education sector, particularly in capacity expansion in the private sector. Although NEP 1986 policy had been against commercialization of education, but there is an explosion in the number of private engineering and medical institutions. An important development of the 1990s refers to sustained efforts towards privatization of higher education in India (Tilak, 2004). In this context, it is important to develop a new national policy framework for higher education in the current and emerging

context. Such a policy framework in 2005 should not be developed by political processes but by a independent high expert and knowledge-based commission.

In the recent years, the National Education Policy (NEP) -2020, was drafted by a panel of experts under the leadership of the Former Chief of Indian Space Research Organization (ISRO) Shri K. Kasturirangan after five years of rigorous deliberations, which was then received and approved by the Union Cabinet of India on July 29, 2020. This new Policy amends the National Policy on Education, 1986 (Ayyar & Vaidyanatha, 2017, Aithal, & Aithal, 2020). The new National Education Policy in 2020 was announced by the government after thirty-four years with the vision of India's new education system. The NEP policy seem very timely and revolutionary with the COVID-19 pandemic and the growing demands of online education. Policies and program within this policy have the potential to develop transformative approaches in the India's Education System. The emphasis of the policy is to promote critical thinking, competency-based education, and incorporating experiential learning to improve students' job-readiness and growing work experience for an international labor market.

The New education policy incorporates a stakeholder analysis at a micro, mezzo, and macro levels. Stakeholders from gram panchayat, and several districts were consulted to make the policy-making a democratic and bottom-up approach. The policy making draft was translate in several regional languages to make it easily and accessible to non-English speakers and involving native's and stakeholders. These were the members of parliament from the center, state government representatives, community-based organizations, and educationists needed to frame and implement a policy.

Privatization of Higher Education: Based on the National Sample Survey (NSS) in 2004 there is strong emergence of the private sector is reflected in the funding pattern. While the government's share in overall education expenditure. It has declined from 80 percent in 1983 to 67 percent in 1999, private expenditure on education has increased more than ten times over the same period (Kapur and Mehta, 2004). In the field of professional training like engineering in particular, the size of the private sector is formidable. Kapur and Metha (2007) argue that massive privatization has not resulted from ideological commitments of key actors but is instead a result of collapse of the state system resulting in weak ideological and institutional foundations. And knowledge-based initiatives of private ownerships are expensive and risky proposition (Sengupta, 2007). And competition between the public and private institutions has begun to produce improvements on both sides (Khemani and Narayan, 2006). This competition has resulted invariably in exclusive access to high-income groups.

Ambiguity in Addressing Policy Concerns Influence Higher Education: At the federal or central level the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD), Department of Higher Education is the Apex body of governance of education India. Indian higher education consists of fifteen regulatory bodies performing overlapping roles in addition to influences from few other ministries too. The judicial interventions have at several times complemented or contradicted the objectives associated with higher education (Agarwal, 2006). This result in an uncertainty related to policy understanding, policy implementations, accountability, and answerability. It has also been often criticized that the higher education system is influenced by political ideologies (National Knowledge Commission (NKC) report, 2009). Higher education is a joint responsibility of both the central and, the state/provincial governments, they share about eighty percent and to that extent influence higher education (Government of India, 1956; Agarwal, 2006). The University Grants Commission (UGC) is an organization set up by the Government of India in 1956 with the first NEP. This organizations act as statutory body to fund, govern and implement policy plans of the education system in India. Most importantly it disburses funds to government-licensed universities and colleges at central or federal, state level schools while over viewing their progress to attain the educational outcomes of the particular state. This organization along with other research knowledge-based organizations oversees quality, quantity, and teaching, equipment and logistics of the universities and colleges, and curriculum development (Khemani and Narayan, 2006; Thorat, 2011) similar criticisms exist regarding the process through which positions of academic leadership are often filled (Basa 2001; Altbach & Knight, 2007). The rapid expansion with globalization has increased private institutions in education, which resulted in deterioration in quality. The concerns over quality led the Centre to review all deemed universities (UGC, 2011). With nearly 600 universities, more than 3,000 business schools, and 35,539

higher education institutes, makes India one of the largest networks of higher education across the world. The gross enrolment ratio was 18.8% in 2011 – less than the global average of 26%. The major problem remains that our national education policy in the past has remained closed to international universities collaborations to strengthen research, development, and employment. Unlike, China's international university set up, which have grown expansively. China and India are the two largest higher education systems in the world with total enrollment of 29.1 million and 26.7 million students as compared to 21 million in the U.S in 2010 (Choudaha, 2012). Both nations are now emphasizing on education being a strong source of employment for the people.

Organizational Theory and Implementation of Policy

Globalization in India demands skilled labor, knowledge, and educated professionals to expand progress toward social and economic developments. The greater level of education increases influences main components of human development index, life expectancy, and GDP per capita (Tilak, 2004; 2007). Institutional theory (Shafritz, & Ott, 1992) developed and applied to educational institution examines the deeper and more resilient aspect of social structure in education. These social structures in India's higher education can be recognized by their norms, values, and behaviors, which is largely political. Institutional change and deinstitutionalizations in higher education institutions are because of an influence of isomorphic processes of functional (regulative), social (normative) and political (culturally- cognitive) sources of power (Dacin, Goodstein, & Scott, 2002). Within both private and public organizations, their social values and behaviors differ greatly in promoting change and development. If there is mismatch in preferred behaviors and authority system power enforced on behaviors on employees, tension arises because of bureaucratic rules and hierarchical supervision (Scott 1965, 1966). Selznick (1996) emphasized the role of their formal structures and social networks on the power of institutions to exist in their legitimacy. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) stressed the importance of rationalization and bureaucratic ways transmit coercive or normative pressures on the state from institutional agents, professional bodies, or mimetic influences stemming from similar or related organizations; affecting recourse centralization, dependency, goals, and technical uncertainty.

Strengths & Weaknesses of Policy Implementation Considering Institutional theory

The strengths are the applicability of institutional theory (IT) in educational settings is the human resources like that in diffusion of equal opportunity, labor protection policies laws in public organization. Similarly, this theory has also been applied to other social welfare organizations working on aging (Scott, 1981), mental health (Scott and Black, 1986) had been examined for applicability and effectiveness. The limitation of this theory is because of its conformity to rationality. It assumes that coalitions are formed and influenced by coercive, normative, and mimetic forces (norms and values) around an organization to be in existence. Institutional theory is more macro in practice than micro. Theoretical details of organizational processes are emphasized by which institutions are formed and have existed. How do they operate regionally, national, globally? On the contrary there is no room for agents of change, e.g. institutional entrepreneurship. Search of legitimacy as a motivation factor but over access to legitimacy creates a misbalance in any organization for power. And not all institutions confirm to institutional demands (Shafritz, & Ott, 1992). It is not applicable at all organizational levels and settings. Because all organizations are not homogeneous regionally, nationally, and internationally an assumption of isomorphism seems difficult. It could be applied to non-profit organizations by combining other theories like resource dependency theory. This will help understand the organization isomorphic process and institutions.

Education: Means to Global Development

Developing countries India and China produce 40 % of the global graduate by 2020 (OCED, 2011). With the increased graduates in India, the question of employability arises in skill proficient emerging market in India. People in India now have access to private education, which is the more expensive, than government-subsidized education under the social welfare state. This would limit access of education to people living in poverty due to affordability. Privatization increases the schools and colleges but increases income inequality. Yet, two other issues of inequality are access and inclusion. Access is the availability of school in within the radius of home and inclusion is enrolment at school in completion. Both are unclear in the education system. Access would not result in inclusion of disenfranchised groups. So, social welfare

policies must include a strategic focus with an incentive of employability for the poor to come to school. Because on the prime reason for the drop out is the lost chill about income to the family while the child is at school.

Access to a school with professional qualities and skills offering to be employable would offer inclusivity to the disadvantage groups. Inclusivity in school would encourage diversity in education, which would then empower and enable individual to be productive. These economic empowerment avenues through education would be socially beneficial for the welfare state. Democratic social norms that are non-coercive permit to develop individual to have their own spheres of personal choices and to have say in how things are run. These are argued to be both more just and more promoting of psychological well-being than are social norms that are coercive, that intrude on sphere of personal choices and autonomy, or that fail to provide individual with a voice in decisions that affect them (Sen, 1999). Education is one instrumental way to promote this democratic development and national integration. A study by World Bank (2010) states investment in education to be good for the long-term growth of any developing nation's economy. And quality of education indicated saving the employability cost of training (Becker, 1967). Higher embodied human capital enables people to participate in better income earning opportunities. It cannot however be denied that this relationship is bi-directional.

“Indeed, it is arguable that higher education should *not* have highest priority claim on incremental public resources available for education in many developing countries, especially those that have not yet achieved adequate access, equity and quality at the primary and secondary levels. This is because of the priority these countries attach to achieving universal literacy; *because the social rates of return in investments in primary and secondary education usually exceed the rates of return on higher education* and because investment in basic education can improve equity because it tends to reduce inequalities. (World Bank, 1994, p.3)

India for a long period has been dealing with a high dropout rate in elementary and secondary education for women, scheduled caste, scheduled tribe (SC/ST), and minorities. Disenfranchised women due to living rural village in India, traditional patriarchal roles, limited access to resources, and poverty are left out in the established education system. Similarly, scheduled caste, scheduled tribes, and minorities parents living below the poverty lines are unable to send their children to ‘free’ schools because of costs other than the tuition fee and of forgone income from the children's work (Tilak, 1996). Even those who can meet the expenditure of the education of their children, spend less on the schooling of their daughters than the sons (Tilak, 1996; Chanana, 1996). Sustainable development even the poorest of the poor should be provided proper education and steps have to be taken to bring primary education to the doorsteps of the rural people, since more than 75 per cent of Indians live in rural areas (Sen, 1999).

After independence, the literacy rate of females has increased with a slight increase in scheduled caste, scheduled tribes, and minorities equal opportunities. In 1951, the female literacy was only 7.3 per cent. It has increased to 39.29 per cent in 1991 and according to the 53rd round of National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO), the literacy rate of female now stands at 50 per cent as compared to 73 per cent in male literacy at the end of December 1997.

Education Policies for Women's Equality

The efforts Government of India made to encourage education of women within the national Policy on Education (NPE), 1996 modified in 1992. This encouraged the participation of girls and women towards development of India. The major programs were (i) Mahila Samakhya program (Education for Women's Quality) is a women's empowerment project, one of the most successful efforts to link women's empowerment through education. Launched in 1989 is being implanted in about 6,877 villages in 51 districts of eight States namely, Uttar Pradesh, Gujarat, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Assam, Madhya Pradesh and Kerala. (ii) The Total Literacy Campaign is raising the demand for education, especially among women. This is in most of the 450 districts, women make up 60 per cent of adult enrolled in this program. (iii) Under the Scheme of Operation Blackboard, of the 1.47 lakh teachers appointed, 47 per cent are women. (iv) non-formal Education centers run exclusively for girls get 90 per cent assistance from the Central government. The share of such centers has been increased from 25 per cent to 40 per cent; (v) District primary Education Programme is under implementation in 163 low female literacy districts; (vi)

Vocational Education and Training- Vocational Education +2 Stage, Community Polytechnic, Shramik Vidyaiiths etc.; (vii) At the other end of the spectrum are the Navodaya Vidyalayas, centres for excellence, where at least one-third of the students are to be girls. In both, Navodaya Vidyalayas and Kendriya Vidyalayas, education for girls is free up to Class XII or higher education equivalent; (viii) In many states, free education for girls is already part of the effort to improve participation rates; (ix) The University Grants Commission (UGC) has been encouraging institutions to take up research projects in the area of women's studies by providing the necessary funds. UGC has also assisted 22 universities and 11 colleges to set up women's studies centers. This is in addition to the 40 positions of part-time research associate-ships for women; and (x) National strategy for ensuring greater participation of women in educational fields (under review of the Indian parliament).

Education for Historically Backward Communities

The National Policy on Education (NPE) 1986 as updated in 1992 lays special emphasis on removal of disparities and equalization of educational opportunities attending to the specific needs of those who have been denied equality, particularly Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and educationally backward minorities. Some of the important programs of the Department of Education are: (i) Norms of opening of primary school has been relaxed to have a primary school within one kilometer walking distance from habitations having a population of 200 persons instead of the earlier criteria of 300 persons; (ii) Abolition of tuition fee in all states in government schools at least up to Upper Primary level. Most of the states have abolished tuition fee for SC/ST students up to senior secondary level and also provide incentives like textbooks, uniforms school bags, etc., to these students; (iii) The major programs of the Department of Education like Universalization of Elementary Education, Operation Blackboard, No-Formal Education, District Primary Education Program etc., accord priority to areas of concentration of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Lok Jumbish and Shiksha Karmi projects which are community based non-formal education projects have a specific focus on SC/ST inhabited areas; (iv) Reservation of seats for SCs and STs in Central government institutions of higher education including IITs, Regional Engineering Colleges, Central Universities, Kendriya Vidyalayas and Navodaya Vidyalayas, etc. Reservation in universities and college and technical institutions apart from relaxation in the minimum qualifying cut off stages for admission. The UGC has established SC/ST Cells in 98 universities including Central Universities with a view to ensuring proper implementation of the reservation policy; (v) In order to improve the academic skills and linguistic proficiency of students in various subjects and raising their level of comprehension, remedial and special coaching is provided for SC and ST students. IITs have a scheme under which SC/ST students who marginally fail in the entrance examination are provided one year training and then admitted to the First Year of E. Tech course; (vi) Out of 43,000 scholarships, 13,000 scholarships are provided to SC/ST students under the scheme of National Scholarship at the secondary stage for talented children from rural areas. Seventy scholarships are exclusively reserved for SC/ST students under the national Talent Search Scheme; (vii) Junior Research Fellowship (50 annually), scholarships (25), Research Associate-ship (20), and Fellowships (50) are awarded by UGC exclusively to SC/ST students; (viii) The Central Institute of Indian Languages (CIIL) Mysore, prepares textbooks, primers, grammar books, dictionaries, bilingual text books facilitating translation from regional languages, etc., into tribal languages (ix) The NCERT has prepared/developed/published 10 textbooks in tribal dialects and prepared teaching learning material in 15 tribal dialects.

Minorities Education

In pursuance of the revised Programme of Action (POA) 1992, two new Centrally-sponsored schemes, i.e., (i) Scheme of Area Intensive Programme for Educationally Backward Minorities and (ii) Scheme of Financial Assistance for Modernization of Madarasa Education were launched during 1993-94. The objective of scheme of Area Intensive Programme for Educationally Backward Minorities is to provide basic educational infrastructure and facilities in areas of concentration of educationally backward minorities which do not have adequate provision for elementary and secondary schools. The scheme of Financial Assistance for Modernisation of Madara Education is being implemented to encourage traditional institutions like Madara and Maktabas to introduce science, mathematics, social studies, Hindi and English in their curriculum. The University Grants Commission introduced in 1984 a coaching scheme to prepare

students belonging to educationally backward minorities for various competitive examinations. Currently the scheme is being implemented in 22 universities and 57 colleges (including nine women coaching centres). An amount of Rs. 3.26 crore has been released from the year 1992-93 to 1998-99.

Limitations in the Existing Policy

In spite of all these policy allocations the school education system in India lacks a special focus on Women's, SC/ ST and minorities education. Enrollments in schools have improved substantially overall for women in recent years but the retention rates are poor, and only a fraction of enrolled students completes even the primary education. Completion of Middle and Secondary levels are still lower showing high drop out rates and particularly for SC/ST and minorities (Channa,1998; Shah, 2007; Kaul,2001; Ramachandran, 2004). Substantial gender, caste, and, class biases in access, inclusion, and completion of education is a major problem. Their major problem arises out of the existing complexities of regional variations in the education system across central and state institutions. While only a few states have performed moderately, others have low performance indicators, and continue to do so (Filmer and Pritchett, 1998; Filmer and Pritchett, 2001).

Factors like poverty, presence of a wide child-labor market, absence of assured employment after schooling, and infrastructural problems are identified as responsible for the ills plaguing the elementary education system in India. Providing incentives for attending schools, making the schooling process attractive to the children, streamlining the middle and high school curriculum to make it more vocational and job-oriented, and providing better infrastructure for the schools are some of the policies likely to improve the scenario.

Policy Analysis and Framework for the Social Group

Gilbert and Terrell, (2002) state policy analysis examines the different dimensions of choice or range of alternatives, which are available at the time of framing policy. These major dimensions of choices could be laid out as four questions. What are the bases of Social allocation? ; What are the types of social provisions to be allocated? ; What are the types of strategies for the delivery of these provisions? ; What are the ways to finance these provisions?. When policymaking and implementation involves making choices, a structure facilitated in place would make it manageable. The choices on the basis of social allocation, which is to addresses 'who' benefits from the policy and the nature of entitlement.

Although number of students enrolled in higher education doubled from nearly 8.4 million to 17 million in a decade, it grew a slower pace than number of colleges which grew 2.5 times in the same period, creating a paradoxical situation of excess capacity in a country where gross enrollment ratio is less than 20%., (University Grant Commissions, UGC, 2011). India added nearly 20,000 colleges in a decade (increased from 12,806 in 2000-01 to 33,023 in 2010-11) , which translate into a growth of more than 150%. Number of degree granting universities more than doubled from 256 to 564, primarily due to deemed-universities and private universities. India has a complex affiliation system where universities can have hundreds of public and teaching colleges affiliated to it (UGC, 2011).

1) For the targeted social group for educational policy the *social allocations* for women, SC/STs, and minorities. These social groups limited access and exclusion from education, has challenged them to be gainfully being educated and employed (Tilak, 1997; Thorat and Neuman, 2012). The need for educated, skilled labor and proficiency is an immediate need for the current global Indian markets. Along with regional, caste, class, and gender inequalities in the above-mentioned social group, education access has existing barriers making allocation difficult for the disenfranchised. The approach of selective versus universal in income maintenance is applied to distinguish the 'need' for the social allocation. A universal approach is taken for which "benefits are made available to an entire population as a basic right" (Gilbert and Terrell, 2005, p97). Quality education as a universal right would provide for women, SC/STs to receive education that facilitates their integration with the new economy in India. This universal approach when adopted as a goal directing the educational equality amongst women, who comprise of nearly half of a 1.2 billion people in India and the SC/STs of 3 million and more (Census of India, 2012). A World Bank study shows women are investments for the countries over all development (Hill and King, 1997). Females and males often receive the same percentage increase in their wage rates with advances in schooling. Because these returns decline with more schooling, the marginal returns for women will tend to exceed those for

men, especially in countries where women are much less educated (Schultz, 2002). Universalization also avoids social stigma and encourages social integration amongst historical excluded groups such as SC/STs (Gilbert and Terrell, 2005).

2) Secondly, the *nature of social provisions* focuses on the form of benefit, whether it is cash, in-kind, or an alternative form such as vouchers or power. The educational policies reflect the values from which the social provisions are driven. These values could be individualistic disposed to consumer sovereignty and collectivistic toward social direction. These values are an insight into the policy objective to articulate how cause and effect of the social problem are perceived. These evolve in policy formulation of recognizing individual, resource, and organizational deficiencies. This policy in India for education is providing employment opportunities as an objective in a individualized direction. This takes place through subsidized government sponsored institutions, employment oriented or professional education, public private partnerships, and international integration in educational policies as ways to addressing poverty and development of under privileged women, disadvantaged communities and their families (Gilbert and Terrell, 2005, p149). The collective dimension being missing from these designs of policy affects community engagement. Because engineering students who receive the education at premier institutions have remembering and learning skills but lack critical problem solving and innovative ways of thinking (Blom & Saeki, 2011).

3) Third, is the delivery system has two aspects of privatization and commercialization to deliver employment-based education opportunities under the new NEP. And issues would be addressed through fostering coherence and accessibility. These form the structural arrangements for structural delivery. With open and clear communication for coordination, means and access to services to reduce fragmentation; and means for clients and consumers to receive an input and decision-making power to reduce discontinuity. Also, perspectives of professionalism like service delivery question status enhancement and services are propositions for a productive structure (Gilbert and Terrell, 2005, p187). These practices are choices to facilitate strategies for effectiveness in service delivery of this employment-based education policy implementation.

4) Modes of finance for this policy implementation is largely through public spending by the government. According to Gilbert and Terrell, (2005) “public agencies established by law and directly accountable to elected officials are supported by government funds their programs are often referred to as ‘statutory’ or ‘legislative’.” Although for profit organizations that would hire these individuals from the universities and colleges could also donate to institutions that have provided them a workforce to build the organization within the nation. This would establish a membership of accountability.

There are three types of problems in implementation tractability of the problem, ability to structure implementation. Technical difficulties, diversity of behaviors in policy changes, tradability is advancement to the national level is disadvantageous to state level well doing policies. There must be a structure to implement the national education policy in stature to have clear objectives and validity of a casual theory. E.g., school segregation in rural versus urban areas. There could be initial allocation if financial cost at all levels, hierarchical integration within institution and coordinate it in action. And finally, decision making in implementation may be placed on the agency that received funding and there is a burden of proof on them. While implementations of policies variation in socio economics conditions is a variation of relative importance in addressing the problem.

Policy reform would require empirical evidence, public and private educational institutions dialogue representative of diverse groups from urban and rural universities to design effectively the “costs of structural changes”. Practitioners involved in immediate changes partnered with policy makers at a macro stage must be in communication that renders accessibility and inclusion. At every stage from micro to macro in policy implementation is a dynamic process. Upcoming status of enrollments, quality, access, diversity, disenfranchisement at all institutional levels including the training and development of teachers, teaching strategies, and methods are a sequential part of the process.

Based on a mezzo community level status or the wealth of the family, working condition of the families creates a difference in student’s accessibility to education. This status has lead to exclusion of women, children, members with special needs (e.g. a disability) and families in educational injustice. An in-depth

study of elementary education of the poorest and other deprived groups by Jha and Jhingran (2002) discussed key competing factors that frame educational decision-making in underprivileged households. They argue that enrolment and attendance is not only determined by economic situation but also by the social status of groups. In the caste/gendered segmentation of the labor market women are disproportionately found in agricultural/rural labor, traditional domestic, low skilled, low status, or caste related (sweeping – scavenging) services in rural sectors. In urban sectors, poor women are located in lowly unskilled, low status feminized service sectors in urban informal economy. At the micro level, educational careers of most Dalit girls are shaped by this structure (Padma Velaskar, 2005). The attitudes and prejudices of teachers and children regarding social and community identities of marginal groups in the school also play an important role in defining educational outcomes for the latter (Vimala Ramachandran, 2003). These are problems in India's educational policy implementation needs to address their inclusion practices for under privileged communities for development.

This policy review article could be considered a base for future research with empirical data to study the impact of NEP after its implementation. NEP 2020 is anticipated to be a considerable leap to higher education in India. This vision intends to create India 2.0 for the 21st century, which is bound to take a leadership role in the global education arena within technology-enabled environments. NEP 2020 is a progressive document engaging multiple stakeholders, with a comprehensive review of the current socio-economic landscape and the prospect of meeting future challenges. If appropriately implemented, it has everything to make India a global hub in education by 2030.

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