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Unit-10

HIGHER EDUCATION

NTA UGC NET PAPER 1 STUDY MATERIAL

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Ancient Education in India

India was the top destination for travelers from various regions having different climates and cultures. To them, India was a land of wonder. The fame of Indian culture, wealth, religions, philosophies, art, architecture, as well as its educational practices, had spread far and wide. The education system of ancient times was regarded as a source for the knowledge, traditions, and practices that guided and encouraged humanity.

Sources of Education

The ancient system of education was the education of the **Vedas, Brahmanas, Upanishads, and Dharmasutras**. You all are aware of the names of **Aryabhata, Panini, Katyayana, and Patanjali**. Their writings and the medical treatises of **Charaka and Sushruta** were also some of the sources of learning. The distinction was also drawn between Shastras (learned disciplines) and Kavyas (imaginative and creative literature). Sources of learning were drawn from various disciplines such as **Itihas (history), Anviksiki (logic), Mimamsa (interpretation) Shilpashastra (architecture), Arthashastra (polity), Varta (agriculture, trade, commerce, animal husbandry) and Dhanurvedya (archery)**. Physical education, too, was an important curricular area, and pupils participated in **krida (games, recreational activities), vyayamaprakara (exercises), dhanurvedya (archery)** for acquiring martial skills, and **yogasadhana (training the mind and body)** among others. The Gurus and their pupils worked conscientiously together to become proficient in all aspects of learning. In order to assess pupils' learning, **shastrartha (learned debates)** were organised. Pupils at an advanced stage of learning guided younger pupils. There also existed the system of peer learning, like you have group/peer work.

Ancient Education System in India — A Way of Life

In ancient India, both formal and informal ways of education system existed. Indigenous education was imparted at home, in temples, pathshalas, tols, chatuspadis and gurukuls. There were people in homes, villages, and temples who guided young children in imbibing pious ways of life. Temples were also the centres of learning and took an interest in the promotion of knowledge of our ancient system. Students went to viharas and universities for higher knowledge. Teaching was largely oral, and students remembered and meditated upon what was taught in the class.

Many monasteries/viharas were set up for monks and nuns to meditate, debate, and discuss with the learned for their quest for knowledge during this period. Around these viharas, other educational centres of higher learning developed, which attracted students from China, Korea, Tibet, Burma, Ceylon, Java, Nepal, and other distant countries.

Viharas and Universities

The Jataka tales, accounts given by Xuan Zang and I-Qing (Chinese scholars), as well as other sources, tell us that kings and society took active interest in promoting education. As a result, many famous educational centres came into existence. Among the most notable universities that evolved during this period were situated at Takshashila, Nalanda, Valabhi, Vikramshila, Odantapuri and Jagaddala. These universities developed in connection with the viharas. Those at Benaras, Navadeep and Kanchi developed in connection with temples and became centres of community life in the places where they were situated. These institutions catered to the needs of advanced level students. Such students joined the centres of higher learning and developed their knowledge by mutual discussions and debates with renowned scholars. Not only this, there was also occasional summoning by a king to a gathering in which the scholars of the country of various viharas and universities would meet, debate and exchange their views. In this section we will give you glimpses of two universities of the ancient period. These universities were considered among the best centres of learning in the world. These have been recently declared heritage sites by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).

Ancient Institutions in Higher Learning in India

There are several famous ancient institutions; they are:

1. **Takshashila** (Taxila): It was located in modern-day Pakistan. It is estimated to exist around 5th century BC. It is believed that Chanakya composed the Arthashastra at this place. Both Buddhist and Hindu theologies were taught here. Subjects like Political Science, Hunting, medicine, law, military tactics were taught here. Noted teachers and students from Takshashila include Chanakya, Charaka, Panini, Jivaka, Prasenajit, etc
2. **Nalanda**: The most renowned university in South Asia. It is not clear as to who established it; it was in existence during the Gupta period. It gained prominence under Harshavardhana's reign and Pala kings. All three Buddhist doctrines were taught here; however, it was a major site for Mahayana Buddhist teachings. Subjects like Vedas, fine arts, grammar, philosophy, logic, medicine, etc. were also taught here. It had eight separate compounds and even had dormitories for students. It attracted scholars from Central Asia, South-East Asia and other parts of the world. The teachings of the university deeply influenced Tibetan Buddhism. Famous scholars of

Nalanda are Nagarjuna (Madhyamika Shunyavad) and Aryabhata the astronomer. Hsuan Tsang spent two years at the university. Another Chinese scholar I-Tsing, spent ten years at Nalanda in late 7th century.

3. **Valabhi:** It was situated in Saurashtra, Gujarat. It was an important centre of learning for the Hinayana Buddhism. Various disciplines like administration and statecraft, laws, philosophy etc were taught here. It was visited by the Chinese scholar, Hseun Tsang. It was supported by the grants of rulers of Maitraka Dynasty of Gujarat.
4. **Vikramshila:** It is located in present-day Bhagalpur district of Bihar. It was established by King Dharampala of Pala dynasty, primarily as a Buddhist learning centre. The scholars were invited by kings outside India to spread Buddhist teachings. The Vajrayana sect flourished here and Tantric teachings were taught. Other subjects like logic, Vedas, astronomy, urban development, law, grammar, philosophy, etc were also taught.
5. **Odantapuri:** This University had been established long before the Kings of Pala dynasty came into power in Magadha. Odantpuri could not attain that level of fame and repute which either Nalanda or Vikramshila had accomplished. Still, nearly 1000 monks and students resided and received an education there. Odantapuri contributed its share in spreading the tenets of Buddhism. It attracted students from Tibet too.
6. **Jagaddala:** Jagaddala Pal King, Raja Ram Pal of Bengal, had set a city on the banks of Ganga. It was the beginning of the 11th century and it was named as Ranavati. He also constructed a monastery and named it as Jagaddala. Soon after this University became the center of learning it remained the center of Buddhist culture for about 100 years. It was destroyed by Muslims in 1203 A.D. In Jagaddala there were many scholars notable for their knowledge. Their reputation reached Tibet and their books were translated in Tibetan language.
7. **Mithila:** In the Upanishadic age Mithila became a prominent seat of Brahmanical system of education. It was named as Videha. Raja Janak used to hold religious conferences, wherein learned Rishis and pandits took part in religious discussions. Even in the Buddhist period, it continued its glorious task and remained an important

center of learning and culture. Later on this place produced devotees of Lord Krishna. Famous poet Vidyapati, who had written in Hindi and Jaideo who was a prominent poet of Sanskrit literature were born here.

8. **Nadia:** Nadia was formerly called Navadweep. It is situated at the confluence of Ganga and Jalangi rivers in Bengal. It was the center of trade and commerce as well as learning and culture. It had produced innumerable scholars from time to time. The lyrics of Gita Govind by Jaideva still reverberate in the ears of the people. Even during the Mohammedan rules, Nadia enjoyed popularity and fame as an important center of education, especially for such branches of learning as Logic, Vyakaran, Politics and Law.
9. **Kancheepuram:** It was a centre of learning for Hinduism, Jainism and Buddhism from 1st century AD and achieved great name under the rule of Pallavas.
10. **Manyakheta:** It is now called Malkhed (Karnataka). It rose to prominence under the Rashtrakuta rule. Scholars of Jainism, Buddhism and Hinduism studied here. It has a 'matha' of Dvaita school of thought.
11. **Pushpagiri Vihara and Lalitagiri (Odisha):** It was established by Kalinga kings around 3rd century AD near the Udayagiri hills. It was mainly a Buddhist learning centre.
12. **Sharada Peeth:** It is located in present-day Pakistan-occupied-Kashmir. It was an important place for the Sanskrit scholars and many important texts were written here. It also has a Sharada Devi temple.
13. **Nagarjunakonda:** It is situated 160 km from Amaravathi in Andhra Pradesh, and it was a major Buddhist centre with scholars from Sri Lanka, China, etc. coming for higher-education. It had many Viharas, Stupas, etc. It was named after Nagarjuna, a south Indian scholar of Mahayana Buddhism.

Apart from the above-mentioned institutions, there was a system of gurukuls, Matth, and

Ashrams for education and learning which were not worked as institutions of higher learning in ancient India.

Evolution of Higher Learning and Research in Post-independence India

Our country has always been identified as a knowledge hub since the beginning of human civilization. Indian higher education system has been witnessing metamorphic changes and challenges through the years, i.e., from the ancient Gurukul system to the modern technology-based learning system have changed the lives of millions of people. This is evident from centres of learning which existed in the 7th century BC were the Buddhist monasteries and in the 3rd century AD was Nalanda (Perkin, 2006). A few of these centres were very large, having several faculties. Invasions and disorder in the country have extinguished the ancient Indian education system. Britishers brought western and secular education, with an emphasis on scientific inquiry, to India.

To eradicate such prevailing systems in the pre-independence era. Many commissions were set up to propose recommendations to make a change in the educational system.

After independence, India legally delegated all powers regarding education to the provincial governments which laid more stress on the objective of increasing access than quality. As per the recommendation of the **Sarkar Committee (1945)** higher technical institutes were formed based on the **Massachusetts Institute of Technology** in the four regions of India. This resulted in the setting up of the five **Indian Institutes of Technology** at Kharagpur (1950), Bombay (1958), Kanpur (1959), Madras (1960) and Delhi (1961). The **All India Council for Technical Education was set up in 1945**, to oversee all technical education (diploma, degree and post-graduate) in the country. Under the able leadership of Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, the Government of India set up the **University Education Commission (UEC)** under the chairmanship of **Dr. S. Radhakrishnan in 1948**. The UEC discussed all aspects of university education, and based on its recommendation, the **University Grants Commission (UGC) was set up in 1953** for the coordination of development and maintenance of standards in higher education. **UGC became a statutory organization by the act of parliament in 1956**. Since then, UGC has been effectively contributing to the Indian higher education system, framing appropriate policies needed to reform and revamp the higher education system.

The Nehruvian Period (1947-1964) was more focused on large-scale industrialization which thereby gave impetus to growth of **higher technical institutions**, but with **Indira Gandhi** taking over in 1964, the **focus shifted to poverty and rural issues** and the **same tone is seen to be reflected in education as well**. Set up in **1964**, under the chairmanship of D.S. Kothari, the Education Commission (**Kothari Commission**) submitted its report in

1966 which set in motion the **National Policy on Education (NPE) in 1968**, still considered to be a landmark event in the history of India. The NPE became the basis of reforms that helped strengthen higher education system in India. Another important development that followed was the **42nd Amendment to the Constitution**, (as a part of the Centralization Agenda of Indira Gandhi during internal Emergency) **which made Education a concurrent subject in Indian Constitution**, that is, now education became a joint responsibility of the central and the state governments, while earlier it was solely in the hands of the state governments. All this while, the **Planning Commission (established in 1950 by Nehru)** with the **Prime Minister as the ex-officio chairman**, has formulated its five-year plans and the chief recommendations (with respect to higher education) of the first six five-year plans are presented in the following table.

Five-Year Plans covering the period 1951-1985

Five-Year Plan	Major strides in the area of higher education
First FYP (1951-1956)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ UGC was set up in 1953 for proper funding, development and quality maintenance in higher education ☐ Five Indian Institutes of Technology (IITs) were started as major technical institutions.
Second FYP (1956-1961)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ With an overall shift in focus from agriculture to manufacturing, more stress was laid on setting up of technical and professional institutes to produce skilled manpower ☐ The Tata Institute of Fundamental Research was established as a research institute ☐ Eleven Rural Institutes were established to educate the rural youth
Third FYP (1961-1966)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Rapid increase in the number of universities and colleges led to deterioration of quality. Thus, UGC tried to introduce reforms in the institutions through improvement in the teacher-pupil ratio, introduction of post-graduate courses, improvements in libraries, laboratories and other infrastructures ☐ Larger facilities were provided for diverting students to vocational and technological education
Fourth FYP (1969-1974)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Main emphasis was on consolidation and improvement of higher education through the strengthening of staff and library and laboratory facilities. ☐ Affiliated colleges which provide education to more than 88 per cent of the university students were helped. ☐ Assistance for fuller development given to a few colleges selected on the basis of their achievements, existing facilities and potentialities.
Fifth FYP (1974-1978)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Fostering equity by providing additional facilities to weaker sections of society and the backward areas ☐ Expansion of facilities through evening colleges and correspondence courses ☐ Strengthening post-graduate and research by developing centres of advanced study ☐ Introduction of programmes of faculty development, like summer institutes, seminars and orientation programmes.
Sixth FYP (1980-1985)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Low emphasis on expansion ☐ Greater priority to improvement of quality of higher education ☐ Regulation of admission ☐ Stress on equity by assisting the disadvantaged groups ☐ Restructuring of courses for practical orientation and greater relevance

As may be noticed above, the shift in focus from agriculture to manufacturing in the Second Plan led to a parallel shift in emphasis from elementary education to higher and

higher technical education. This trend continued for quite some time, till the mid-1980s when the bias against school education was recognized.

Thus, came the watershed year 1986, when PM Rajiv Gandhi-led Government of India decided to launch long pending revision of the 1968 National Policy on Education in order to prepare India to face challenges of the 21ST century.

The National Policy on Higher Education (1986) translated the vision of Radhakrishnan Commission and Kothari Commission in five main goals for higher education, which include Greater Access, Equal Access (or Equity), Quality and Excellence, Relevance and Value Based. The NPE of 1986 revamped the higher education system by its recommendations of expansion of Higher Educational Institutions (HEIs), development of autonomous colleges, redesigning of courses, enhancing quality research, training of teachers, increasing coordination between national and state level bodies, fostering mobility between institutions. In 1992, the policy was revised by a committee under Janardhana Reddy, recommending planned development of higher education through different measures. The Action Plan of 1992 included schemes and programs which were directed towards expansion of intake capacity in general, and that of the disadvantaged groups such as the poor, SC, ST, minorities, girls, the physically challenged persons, and those in the educationally backward regions, in particular. The Schemes/Programmes were designed to improve the quality through strengthening academic and physical infrastructure, to promote excellence in those institutions which have exhibited potential for excellence, and to develop curriculum to inculcate right values among the youth.

Summary and journey of Higher education after 1986 to 2015

Five-Year Plans covering the period 1986-2014

Five-Year Plan	Major strides in the area of higher education
Seventh FYP (1985-90)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☑ More stress on speedy implementation of various reforms already initiated ☑ Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) was established ☑ Emphasis on quality and equity
Eighth FYP (1992-97)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☑ After a period (1989-91) of political instability, this plan highlighted several weaknesses such as substandard institutions, outdated curriculum, lack of research ☑ Focus on integrated and cost-efficient higher education without compromising excellence and equity ☑ An information and library network “INFLIBNET” was proposed.

Ninth FYP (1997-2002)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☑ Focused on the deterioration of quality, the resource crunch and the problems of governance in higher education ☑ Stress on enhancing access and equity ☑ Target to grant autonomous status to 10% of eligible colleges
Tenth FYP (2002-2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☑ Target to raise the enrolment in higher education of the 18-23 year age group from the present 6 per cent to 10 per cent by the end of the Plan period through strategies of increasing access, quality, adoption of state-specific strategies and the liberalization of the higher education system ☑ Emphasis on relevance of the curriculum, vocationalization, and networking on the use of information technology
Eleventh FYP (2007-2012)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☑ As a wake-up call to prolonged neglect of higher education, the GOI set targets for massive expansion ☑ Also, inclusion and rapid movement in quality by enhancing public spending, encouraging private initiatives and initiating the long overdue major institutional and policy reforms ☑ Improve quality by working on a detailed reforms agenda including a) admission, curriculum and assessment; b) accreditation & ratings; c) teachers competence and motivation; and d) restructure affiliated colleges and research for policy formulation. ☑ Establish 30 new Central Universities, 16 in States where they do not exist and 14 as World Class Universities, 8 new IITs, 7 new IIMs, 10 new NITs, 3 IISERs (Indian Institutes of Science, Education and Research), 20 IIITs and 2 new SPAs (School of Planning and Architecture)
Twelfth FYP (2012-2014) Planning Commission has been abolished in 2014 to usher in the NITI AAYOG	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☑ Plans for inclusive expansion brought in under the RUSA (Rashtriya Uchchar Shiksha Abhiyan) which would include up gradation of autonomous and A rated colleges into universities, increasing the intake capacity of existing higher education institutions, encouraging existing universities to start undergraduate programmes or integrated UG-PG programme; and creation of small, affiliating College Cluster Universities at the regional level ☑ Other step would be to promote equal access to quality

University and Higher Education System

Higher Education sector has witnessed a tremendous increase in the number of Universities/University level Institutions & Colleges since Independence. The number of Universities has increased 50 times from 20 in 1950 to 993 in 2019. **The sector boasts of 54 Central Universities of which 43 are under the purview of Ministry of Human Resource Development, 409 State Universities, 349 State Private universities, 127 Deemed to be Universities, 95 Institutions of National Importance (established under Acts of Parliament) under MHRD and four Institutions (established under various State legislations). The number of colleges has also registered manifold increase of 84 times with just 500 in 1950 growing to 41,901 as on 31st March 2020.**

The quantum growth in the Higher Education sector is spear-headed by Universities,

which are the highest seats of learning.

In India, "University" means a University established or incorporated by or under a Central Act, a Provincial Act or a State Act and includes any such institution as may, in consultation with the University concerned, be recognised by the University Grants Commission (UGC) in accordance with the regulations made in this regard under the UGC Act, 1956. Every year, millions of students from within the country and abroad, enter these portals mainly for their graduate, post graduate studies while millions leave these portals for the world outside.

Higher Education is the shared responsibility of both the Centre and the States. The coordination and determination of standards in Universities & Colleges is entrusted to the UGC and other statutory regulatory bodies.

The Central Government provides grants to the UGC and establishes Central Universities/Institutions of National Importance in the country. The Central Government is also responsible for declaring an educational institution as "Deemed-to-be University" on the recommendations of the UGC.

At present, the main categories of University/University-level Institutions are: Central Universities, State Universities, Deemed-to-be Universities and University-level institutions. These are described as follows:

Central University:

A university established or incorporated by a Central Act.

State University:

A university established or incorporated by a Provincial Act or by a State Act.

Private University:

A university established through a State/Central Act by a sponsoring body viz. A Society registered under the Societies Registration Act 1860, or any other corresponding law for the time being in force in a State or a Public Trust or a Company registered under Section 25 of the Companies Act, 1956.

Deemed-To-Be University:

An Institution Deemed to be University, commonly known as Deemed University, refers to a high- performing institution, which has been so declared by the Central Government under Section 3 of the University Grants Commission (UGC) Act, 1956.

Institution of National Importance:

An Institution established by Act of Parliament and declared as Institution of National Importance.

Institution Under State Legislature Act:

An Institution established or incorporated by a State Legislature Act.

University Grants Commission (UGC)

The University Grants Commission is a statutory organization established by an Act of Parliament in 1956 for the coordination, determination and maintenance of standards of university education. Apart from providing grants to eligible universities and colleges, the Commission also advises the Central and State Governments on the measures which are necessary for the development of Higher Education. **It functions from New Delhi as well as its Seven Regional offices located in Bangalore, Bhopal, Delhi, Guwahati, Hyderabad, Kolkata and Pune.**

National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), New Delhi

NCERT is an organisation set up by the Government of India, with headquarters located at Sri Aurobindo Marg in New Delhi, to assist and advise the central and state governments on academic matters related to school education. It was established in 1961.

Inter University Centres (IUCs)

The UGC establishes autonomous Inter-University Centres within the university system under Clause 12(ccc) of the UGC Act. The objectives for setting up these centres are:

- To provide common advanced centralized facilities/services for universities which are not able to invest heavily in infrastructure and other inputs.
- To play a vital role in offering the best expertise in each field to teachers and researchers across the country.
- To provide access for research and teaching community to the state-of-the-art equipment and excellent library facilities which are comparable to international standards.

The Nuclear Science Centre at New Delhi (now called Inter University Accelerator Centre) was the first research centre established in 1994. As of today, six Inter University Centres are functioning within the university system, which are as follows:

Inter University Accelerator Centre (IUAC), New Delhi

Inter University Accelerator Centre was the first Inter-University Centre to be established by the UGC in 1984. The primary objective of the Centre is to establish within the university system a world class facility for accelerator-based research. Its aim is to formulate common research programmes of research and development in collaboration with universities, IITs and other research institutions. It promotes group activities and human research development in experimental science and other branches of knowledge.

Inter University Centre for Astronomy and Astro-Physics (IUCAA), Pune

Information IUCAA, Pune was set up in 1988 as an autonomous centre of excellence to help initiate and nurture, research and developmental activities in Astronomy and Astrophysics in the University sector. IUCAA was set up with the basic purpose of providing advanced centralized facilities for subjects not adequately covered in the university departments and colleges.

UGC-DAE Consortium for Scientific Research (UGC-DAECSR), Indore

UGC-DAE was created in the year 1990 with the broad objective of developing competence and promoting research in front line areas of science and technology in Indian Universities by providing institutional framework for optimum utilisation of major research facilities established by the department of Atomic Energy such as Dhruv Reactor of Mumbai, VECC at Kolkata and Synchrotron Radiation Sources at Indore. The facilities of IUC can be availed by scientists from any university.

Information and Library Network (INFLIBNET), Ahmedabad, Estd. 1996

An Inter-University Centre of UGC the INFLIBNET serves towards modernization of Libraries, serves as Information Centre for transfer and access of information, supporting scholarships and learning and academic pursuits through a National Network of Libraries in around 264 Universities, Colleges and R&D Institutions across the country.

Consortium for Educational Communication (CEC), New Delhi

The Consortium for Educational Communication popularly known as CEC is one of the Inter University Centres set up by the University Grants Commission. It has been established with the goal of addressing the needs of Higher Education through the use of powerful medium of Television alongwith the appropriate use of emerging Information Communication Technology (ICT). Realizing the potential and power of television to act as means of Educational Knowledge dissemination, UGC started the Countrywide Classroom Programmes in the year 1984. For production of

educational programmes, initially Media Centres were set up at 6 Universities. Subsequently CEC was setup in 1993 as a nodal agency to coordinate, guide & facilitate such educational programme production through its Media Centres. Today 22 Media Centres now known as Educational Multimedia Research Centres (EMRCs) are working towards achieving this goal under the umbrella of CEC.

National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC), Bangalore

National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) was established by the UGC in September 1994 at Bangalore for evaluating the performance of the Universities and Colleges in the Country. NAAC's mandate includes the task of performance evaluation, assessment and accreditation of universities and colleges in the country. The philosophy of NAAC is based on objective and continuous improvement rather than being punitive or judgmental so that all institutions of higher learning are empowered to maximize their resources, opportunities, and capabilities. Assessment is a performance evaluation of an institution and /or its units and is accomplished through a process based on self-study and peer review using defined criteria. Accreditation refers to the certification given by the NAAC, which is valid for a period of five years. At present, the Assessment and Accreditation by NAAC are done on a voluntary basis.

Inter University Centre for International Studies

Osmania University Campus Hyderabad.

The UGC has established Inter-University Centres (IUCs) for centrally providing state-of-the-art equipment & facilities for the benefit of researchers working in different universities. So far, these IUCs have been established mainly in the field of science and technology. The UGC proposed to build the first IUC in the field of Humanities and Social Science by taking over academic and physical infrastructure available at Indo-American Centre for International Studies.

Inter-University Centre for Teacher Education, Kakinada

List of Central Universities (as on 01-06-2020)

	ANDHRA PRADESH
1	Central University of Andhra Pradesh, Anantapuramu
2	Central Tribal University of Andhra Pradesh, Vizianagaram
3	The National Sanskrit University, Tirupati
	ARUNACHAL PRADESH

HIGHER EDUCATION

4	Rajiv Gandhi University, Itanagar
	ASSAM
5	Assam University, Silchar
6	Tezpur University, Tezpur
	BIHAR
7	Central University of South Bihar, Gaya
8	Mahatma Gandhi Central University, East Champaran (Motihari)
9	Dr. Rajendra Prasad Central Agricultural University, Pusa, Samastipur
10	Nalanda University, Rajgir, Nalanda, Bihar. (established under Central Act)
	CHHATTISGARH
11	Guru Ghasidas Vishwavidyalaya, Bilaspur (Converted State University to Central University).
	GUJARAT
12	Central University of Gujarat, Gandhinagar
	HARYANA
13	Central University of Haryana, Mahendragarh,
	HIMACHAL PRADESH
14	Central University of Himachal Pradesh, Dist. Kangra
	JAMMU & KASHMIR
15	Central of University of Kashmir, Srinagar
16	Central University of Jammu, Jammu
	JHARKHAND
17	Central University of Jharkhand, Ranchi
	KARNATAKA
18	Central University of Karnataka, Gulbarga
	KERALA
19	Central University of Kerala, Kasargod
	MADHYA PRADESH
20	Dr Harisingh Gour Vishwavidyalaya, Sagar (Converted from State University to Central University).
21	The Indira Gandhi National Tribal University, Amarkantak
	MAHARASHTRA
22	Mahatma Gandhi Antarrashtriya Hindi Vishwavidyalay, Wardha
	MANIPUR
23	Central Agricultural University, Imphal
24	Manipur University, Canchipur, Imphal
25	National Sports University, Koutruk
	MEGHALAYA
26	North Eastern Hill University, Shilong
	MIZORAM

HIGHER EDUCATION

27	Mizoram University, Aizawal
	NAGALAND
28	Nagaland University, Kohima
	ODISHA
29	Central University of Orissa, Koraput
	PUNJAB
30	Central University of Punjab, Bathinda
	RAJASTHAN
31	Central University of Rajasthan, Ajmer
	SIKKIM
32	Sikkim University, Tadong, Gangtok.
	TAMILNADU
33	Central University of Tamil Nadu, Thiruvavur
34	Indian Maritime University, Chennai
	TELANGANA
35	Hyderabad University, Hyderabad
36	Maulana Azad National Urdu University, Hyderabad
37	The English and Foreign Languages University, Osmania University Campus, Hyderabad
	TRIPURA
38	Tripura University, Suryamanianagar, Agartala
	UTTAR PRADESH
39	Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh
40	University of Allahabad, Allahabad
41	Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar University, Lucknow.
42	Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi
43	Rajiv Gandhi National Aviation University, Raebareli
44	Rani Lakshmi Bai Central Agricultural University, NH-75, Near Pahuj Dam, Gwalior Road, Jhansi
	UTTRAKHAND
45	Hemwati Nandan Bahuguna Garhwal University, Srinagar (Converted from State University to Central University).
	WEST BENGAL
46	Vishwa Bharati, Shanti Niketan
	NCT OF DELHI
47	Delhi University, Delhi
48	Indira Gandhi National Open University
49	Jamia Millia Islamia, Jamia Nagar
50	Jawaharlal Nehru University

51	South Asian University, JNU Campus, (established under Central Act)
52	The Central Sanskrit University, Janakpuri, New Delhi
53	Shri Lal Bahadur Shastri National Sanskrit University, Katwaria Sarai, New Delhi-110 016
	PONDICHERRY
54	Pondicherry University, Pondicherry

Central Universities Which Are Not Under Ministry of HRD (not funded by UGC)

1. SOUTH ASIAN UNIVERSITY

The South Asian University is an International University sponsored by the eight Member States of the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC). The eight countries are: Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. The formal Agreement to establish the University was signed on April 4, 2007. The first academic session of the university started in August 2010 with two post-graduates academic programmes, one each in Economics and Computer Sciences.

2. NALANDA UNIVERSITY

Nalanda University was established in November 2010. The University came into being by a special Act of the Indian Parliament – a testimony to the important status that Nalanda University occupies in the Indian intellectual landscape.

3. CENTRAL AGRICULTURAL UNIVERSITY

The Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR), an apex body, which plans, undertakes aids, promotes, and coordinates agricultural education, research and extension education in India, constituted a research review committee in 1982 under the National Agricultural Research Project (NARP) to suggest the ways and means to strengthen the research capability of the NE Region. The committee was also given an additional mandate to look into the manpower needs of agriculture and allied sectors and suggests the remedial measures.

4. INDIAN MARITIME UNIVERSITY

The Indian Maritime University, came into being through an Act of Parliament (Act 22) on 14th November, 2008 as a Central University and is poised to play a key role in the development of trained human resource for the maritime sector. November 14th is

celebrated as 'IMU Day' every year.

5. RAJIV GANDHI NATIONAL AVIATION UNIVERSITY

Rajiv Gandhi National Aviation University (RGNAU) is an autonomous public central university located in the Fursatganj Airfield, Amethi district, Uttar Pradesh. It is a specialized institution and comes directly under the Government of India. It will be financed primarily by Ministry of Civil Aviation, Ministry of Science and Technology, and collaboration with International Aerospace and Aviation organizations.

6. INDIRA GANDHI NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY

Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) was established in 1985 by an Act of Parliament with the dual responsibilities of (i) enhancing access and equity to higher education through distance mode and (ii) promoting, coordinating and determining standards in open learning and distance education systems. Since then, the IGNOU has undergone rapid expansion and emerged as an international institution in the field of Open and Distance Learning.

7. RANI LAKSHMI BAI CENTRAL AGRICULTURAL UNIVERSITY

The Rani Lakshmi Bai Central Agricultural University has been established as an Institution of national importance under Department of Agricultural Research and Education (DARE) by an Act of Parliament (Act No. 10 of 2014) and notified on 5th March 2015. This second Central Agricultural University in India established and named in the memory of great freedom fighter known as warrior queen of Jhansi Late Rani Lakshmi Bai who sacrificed her life at the altar of the freedom. The objectives of the university are to impart education in different branches of agriculture and allied sciences, undertake research in agriculture, programmes of extension education and promote linkages with national and international educational institutes. The University became functional with the joining of Dr. Arvind Kumar as first Vice-Chancellor on May 9, 2014. The University headquarter is at Jhansi located in Bundelkhand region covering six districts, namely: Chhatarpur, Damoh, Datia, Panna, Sagar and Tikamgarh of Madhya Pradesh and seven districts, namely: Banda, Chitrakoot, Hamirpur, Jalaun, Jhansi, Lalitpur and Mahoba of Uttar Pradesh.

Association of Indian Universities (AIU)

The Association of Indian universities (AIU) is a registered society under the Societies Registration Act, 1860 with membership of Indian Universities. It provides a forum for administrators and academicians of member universities to exchange views and discuss

matters of common concern. It acts as a bureau of information exchange in higher education and brings out a number of useful publications, including the “Universities Handbook”, research papers and a weekly journal titled “University News”. The present membership of the Association is 527 including seven Associate Members viz. Kathmandu University, Kathmandu, Nepal, Mauritius University, Mauritius, University of Technology, Mauritius, Royal University of Bhutan, Thimpu, Open University of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, Middle East University, UAE, and Semey State Medical University, Semey, Kazakhstan.

The Association is substantially financed from the annual subscription of the member universities. The Government of India, Ministry of Human Resource Development provides grants for meeting a part of the maintenance and development expenditure, including research studies, workshops, training programmes for university administrators, orientation programmes and creation of Data Bank of Global (of which Universities (the preliminary document Access to Global Universities is completed). AIU has Evaluation Division, Students Information Service Division, and Publication Sales Division, Sports Division to sponsor Inter-University Tournaments and World University Games:2007, Youth Affairs Division, Library and Documentation Division, Finance Division, Administration Division, Computer Division and Meeting Division. The AIU is also empowered to grant Associate Membership to universities of the neighboring countries of India.

Councils

1. Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR), New Delhi

The Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR) was established in 1969 for promoting social science research, strengthening different disciplines, improving quality and quantum of research and its utilization in national policy formulation. To realize these objectives, the ICSSR envisaged development of institutional infrastructure, identifying research talents, formulating research programmes, supporting professional organizations and establishing linkages with social scientists in other countries. The ICSSR provides maintenance and development grants to various Research Institutes and Regional Centres across the country. Regional Centres have been set-up as extended arms of the ICSSR to support research and development of local talents and its programmes and activities in a decentralized manner.

Since 1976, the ICSSR has been carrying out surveys of research in different disciplines of social sciences. With a view to give special emphasis to the promotion of social science research in the North Eastern Region, initiatives have been taken in the ICSSR to support research proposals and other activities.

2. Indian Council of Philosophical Research (ICPR), New Delhi

Indian Council of Philosophical Research (ICPR) was set up in 1977 by the Ministry of Education, Government of India as an autonomous organization for the promotion of research in Philosophy and allied discipline. The ICPR was born out of the conviction that Indian philosophy tradition deserves to have an exclusive and special agency in the country.

The Council has a broad-based membership comprising of distinguished philosophers, social scientists, representatives of the University Grants Commission, Indian Council of Social Science Research, Indian Council of Historic Research, Indian National Science Academy, the Central Government and the Government of Uttar Pradesh. The Governing Body (GB) and the Research Project Committee (RPC) are the main authorities of the council. These bodies are vested with well-defined powers and functions.

3. Project of History of Indian Science, Philosophy & Culture (PHISPC)

PHISPC was launched in the year 1990 under the aegis of Indian Council of Philosophical Research (ICPR) with the basic objective of undertaking inter-disciplinary study so that inter-connection between Science, Philosophy and Culture as developed in the long history of Indian civilization, could be brought out in detail. From April 1, 1997, PHISPC was officially de-linked from Indian Council of Philosophical Research (ICPR) for a greater autonomy to complete the Project by the stipulated period, and is now affiliated to Centre for Studies in Civilizations (CSC). Government of India has recognized CSC as the nodal agency for the purposes of funding the ongoing research project, PHISPC.

The major programme of PHISPC is to publish several volumes on the theme mentioned in the 'Introduction'.

4. Indian Council of Historical Research (ICHR) , New Delhi

Indian Council of Historical Research is an autonomous organization which was established under Societies Registration Act (Act XXI of 1860) in 1972. The prime objectives of the Council are to give a proper direction to historical research and to encourage and foster objective and scientific writing of history. The broad aims of the Council are to bring historians together, provide a forum for exchange of views between them, and give a national direction to an objective and rational presentation interpretation of history, to sponsor historical research programmes and projects and to assist institutions and organizations engaged in historical research. It has a broad view of history so as to include in its fold the history of Science and Technology, Economy, Art, Literature, Philosophy, Epigraphy, Numismatics, Archaeology, Socio-Economic formation processes and allied subjects containing strong historical bias and contents.

The ICHR has established two Regional Centres, one at Bangalore and the other at

Guwahati with a view to reach out the far-flung areas of the country.

5. National Council of Rural Institutes (NCRI), Hyderabad

The National Council of Rural Institute is a registered autonomous society fully funded by the Central Government. It was established on October 19, 1995 with its Headquarters at Hyderabad. Its main objectives are to promote rural higher education on the lines of Mahatma Gandhi's vision for education so as to take up challenges of micro planning for the transformation of rural areas as envisaged in National Policy on Education (NPE) 1986. In order to achieve its objectives, the NCRI has been identifying various programmes for providing support and financial assistance, to be taken up by suitable institutions, including voluntary organizations.

Other Institutions of Higher Learning

1. Indian Institute of Advanced Study, Shimla

The Indian Institute of Advanced Study (IIAS), Shimla was established in the year 1965, under the Societies Registration Act 1860 and housed in Rashtrapati Nivas, Shimla. It is a residential center for free and creative enquiry into the fundamental themes and problems of life and thought. The functions of the Institute are:

- To promote creative thought in areas which have deep human significance and to provide environment suitable for academic research and also to undertake, organize, guide and promote advanced research in Humanities, Social Sciences, Science, Technology and Development; Methodologies and Techniques;
- To provide facilities for advanced consultation, collaboration and exhaustive library and documentation facilities; including financial assistance for advanced study for teachers and other scholars for specific period to be determined in each case;
- To organize National Seminars, Lectures, Symposia, Conferences etc;
- To invite Visiting Professors and Visiting Scholars from India and abroad to deliver lectures or conduct research;
- To start, conduct, print, publish and exhibit any magazines, periodicals, newspapers, books, pamphlets, monographs or posters that may be considered desirable for the promotion of the object;
- To make arrangements for pooling the results of research, analyzing

and adopting them in terms
of their social relevance for the publication;

- To collaborate with other academic or governmental bodies in the dissemination of knowledge; and
- To award Fellowships for conduct of independent research by scholars and researchers.

2. Dr. Zakir Husain Memorial College Trust, New delhi

Dr. Zakir Husain Memorial College Trust, Delhi was established in 1973 to manage and maintain Zakir Husain College (formerly Delhi College. Prime Minister is the Chairperson of the Trust and Minister of Human Resource Development is the Vice-Chairperson. Zakir Husain College is one of the constituent colleges of the University of Delhi. Earlier the college was housed in an old and dilapidated historical building situated at Ajmeri Gate in the walled city. That campus was more than 300 years old. The college had the blessings of national leaders such as Late Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, the First Prime Minister of India, and Late Dr. Zakir Husain, Former President of India. The University Grants Commission meets 95% of the recurring grants of the college and the balance 5% is meet by the Dr. Zakir Husain College Trust. Since the Trust has no resource of its own, grants are provided by the Department of Higher Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development. Besides, the maintenance expenditure of the College, the Trust and the University Grants Commission meet on 50:50 percent bases, the cost of the construction of the new campus, the land of which was allotted by the Ministry of Urban Development. With the completion of the first phase of the college buildings, the college shifted to its new campus from the old building at Ajmeri Gate in 1991.

3. Shri Lal Bahadur Shastri Rashtriya Sanskrit Vidyapeethya, New Delhi

Shri Lal Bahadur Shastri Rashtriya Sanskrit Vidyapeetha, New Delhi was established in 1962 and declared a 'Deemed to be University' in 1987.

The Vidyapeetha provides courses of study from Shastri to Vidya Vachaspati (D. Litt.). Since 1997-98, Vidyapeetha is also offering diploma in Vedic and conducting refresher courses for teachers. It also offers programmes in faculties namely: Sahitya; Sanskrit; Darshan and Veda Vedanga. These faculties have eighteen departments viz. Sahitya, Puranetihasa, Prakit, Nyaya Vashaishik, Sankhya Yoga, Advaita Vedanta, Jain Darshan, Sarva Darshan, Mimamsa, Vishishtadvaita Vedanta, Veda, Dharam Shastra, Vyakaran, Paurohitya, Jyotish, Shiksha Shastra, and Shikshacharya. The Vidyapeeth also offers P.G. Diploma in Vastu Shastra and Medical Astrology.

4. Rashtriya Sanskrit Vidyapeetha, Tirupati

Rashtriya Sanskrit Vidyapeetha, Tirupati was established in 1986 with the objective of preserving learning of Shastras as well as promotion of Sanskrit language, literature, philosophy through teaching and research. These institutions were declared as 'Deemed to be University' in the year 1987. A number of programmes and activities for realising their objectives in effective manner have been started by both these institutions. These institutions receive annual grants through the University Grants Commission for meeting their expenses. The Vidyapeetha provides courses of study in various disciplines ranging from Prak Shastri (Intermediate) to Vidya Varidhi (Ph.D) and Diploma and Certificate Courses. The Department Pedagogy of this Vidyapeetha is functioning as an Institute of Advanced Study in Education (IASE) as a measure to use modern technology. A computer center was established in Vidyapeeth to accelerate its publication activities. The Vidyapeetha has the following departments: Sahitya, Vyakarana, Nyaya, Jyotisha, Advaitavedanta, Dvaita Vedanta, Visistadvaita Vedanta, Research and Publication, Physical Education and Education (IASE).

5. National University of Education Planning And Administration (NUEPA), New Delhi

The National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA) is a Deemed to be University set up and fully financed by the Department of Higher Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development. The objectives of the Institute are to undertake, promote and coordinate research in educational planning and administration, provide training and consultancy services in this field, to train and orient key level functionaries as well as senior level administrators from the centre and states, to collaborate with other agencies, institutions and organisations, to provide facilities for training and research to other countries particularly of the Asian region in the field of educational planning and administration and to prepare, print and publish papers, periodicals and books, to share experience and expertise in the area of educational planning and administration with other countries and to conduct comparative studies for the furtherance of these objectives.

The NUEPA maintains a well-stocked Library/Documentation Centre on Educational Planning and Administration and Inter Disciplinary subjects. It is perhaps one of the richest libraries in the field of Educational Planning and Management in the Asian Region. It serves the faculty, research scholars and participants of the various programmes, as also other organizations through Inter Library Loan system.

6. Rashtriya Sanskrit Sansthan (RSKS), New Delhi

The Rashtriya Sanskrit Sansthan (RSKS) was established on October 15, 1970 as an autonomous organisation registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860 (Act XXI of 1860) for the development and promotion of Sanskrit all over the country. It was

declared a Deemed to be University in May 2002. It is fully funded by Government of India. It functions as an apex body for propagation and development of Sanskrit and assists the Ministry of Human Resource Development in formulating and implementing various plans and schemes for the development of Sanskrit studies. It has assumed the role of a nodal body for the effective implementation of various recommendations made by the Sanskrit Commission set up by the Government of India, Ministry of Education in 1956 to consider the propagation and development of Sanskrit language and education in all its aspects.

Rashtriya Uchchatar Shiksha Abhiyan (RUSA)

Rashtriya Uchchatar Shiksha Abhiyan (RUSA) is a Centrally Sponsored Scheme (CSS), launched in 2013 aims at providing strategic funding to eligible state higher educational institutions. The central funding (in the ratio of 65:35 for general category States and 90:10 for special category states) would be norm based and outcome dependent. The funding would flow from the central ministry through the state governments/union territories to the State Higher Education Councils before reaching the identified institutions. The funding to states would be made on the basis of critical appraisal of State Higher Education Plans, which would describe each state's strategy to address issues of equity, access and excellence in higher education.

Objectives

- The salient objectives of RUSA are to;
- Improve the overall quality of state institutions by ensuring conformity to prescribed norms and standards and adopt accreditation as a mandatory quality assurance framework.
 - Usher transformative reforms in the state higher education system by creating a facilitating institutional structure for planning and monitoring at the state level, promoting autonomy in State Universities and improving governance in institutions.
 - Ensure reforms in the affiliation, academic and examination systems.
 - Ensure adequate availability of quality faculty in all higher educational institutions and ensure capacity building at all levels of employment.

- Create an enabling atmosphere in the higher educational institutions to devote themselves to research and innovations.
- Expand the institutional base by creating additional capacity in existing institutions and establishing new institutions, in order to achieve enrolment targets.
- Correct regional imbalances in access to higher education by setting up institutions in un-served & underserved areas.
- Improve equity in higher education by providing adequate opportunities of higher education to SC/STs and socially and educationally backward classes; promote inclusion of women, minorities, and differently abled persons.

Components

RUSA would create new universities through upgradation of existing autonomous colleges and conversion of colleges in a cluster. It would create new model degree colleges, new professional colleges and provide infrastructural support to universities and colleges. Faculty recruitment support, faculty improvements programmes and leadership development of educational administrators are also an important part of the scheme. In order to enhance skill development the existing central scheme of Polytechnics has been subsumed within RUSA. A separate component to synergise vocational education with higher education has also been included in RUSA. Besides these, RUSA also supports reforming, restructuring and building capacity of institutions in participating state.

Institutional Hierarchy

RUSA is implemented and monitored through an institutional structure comprising the National Mission Authority, Project Approval Board and the National Project Directorate at the centre and the State Higher Education Council and State Project Directorate at the state level.

Open Universities

A. Central Open University

INDIRA GANDHI NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY

Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) was established in 1985 by an Act of Parliament with the dual responsibilities of (i) enhancing access and equity to higher education through distance mode and (ii) promoting, coordinating and determining standards in open learning and distance education systems. Since then, the IGNOU has undergone rapid expansion and emerged as an international institution in the field of Open and Distance Learning.

B. State Open Universities

1	Dr. B.R. Ambedkar Open University (BRAOU), Hyderabad, A.P. - (1982)
2	Vardhman Mahaveer Open University (VMOU), Kota, Rajasthan - (1987)
3	Nalanda Open University (NOU). Patna, Bihar - (1987)
4	Yashwantrao Chavan Maharashtra Open University (YCMOU), Nashik, Maharashtra - (1989)
5	Madhya Pradesh Bhoj Open University (MPBOU), Bhopal, M.P. - (1991)
6	Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar Open University (BAOU), Ahmedabad, Gujarat - (1994)
7	Karnataka State Open University (KSOU), Mysore, Karnataka – (1996)
8	Netaji Subhas Open University (NSOU), Kolkata, W.B. - (1997)
9	U.P. Rajarshi Tandon Open University (UPRTOU), Allahabad, U.P. - (1998)
10	Tamil Nadu Open University (TNOU), Chennai, Tamil Nadu - (2002)
11	Pt. Sunderlal Sharma Open University (PSSOU), Bilaspur, Chhattisgarh - (2005)
12	Uttarakhand Open University, Haldwani, Distt. Nainital, Uttarakhand
13	Krishna Kanta Handique State Open University, Guwahati, Assam

State-wise List of fake Universities as in November 2019

Andhra Pradesh

1. Christ New Testament Deemed University, # 32-23-2003, 7th Lane, Kakumanuvarithota, Guntur, Andhra Pradesh – 522 002 or # fit No. 301, Grace Villa Apts., 7/5, Srinagar, Guntur, Andhra Pradesh – 522 00

Delhi

2. Commercial University Ltd., Daryaganj, Delhi.
3. United Nations University, Delhi.
4. Vocational University, Delhi.
5. ADR-Centric Juridical University, ADR House, 8J, Gopala Tower, 25 Rajendra Place, New Delhi– 110 008.
6. Indian Institute of Science and Engineering, New Delhi.
7. Viswakarma Open University for Self-employment, India, Rozgar Sewasadan, 672, Sanjay Enclave, Opp. GTK Depot, New Delhi – 110 033
8. Adhyatmik Vishwavidyalaya (Spiritual University), 351-352, Phase-1, Block-A, Vijay Vihar, Rithala, Rohini, Delhi – 110 08

Karnataka

9. Badaganvi Sarkar World Open University Education Society, Gokak, Belgaum, Karnataka.

Kerala

10. St. John's University, Kishanattam, Kerala.

Maharashtra

11. Raja Arabic University, Nagpur, Maharashtra.

West Bengal

12. Indian Institute of Alternative Medicine, Kolkatta.
13. Institute of Alternative Medicine and Research, 8-A, Diamond Harbor Road BUILTECH inn, 2nd Floor, Thakurpukur, Kolkata – 700 063

Uttar Pradesh

14. Mahila Gram Vidyapith/Vishwavidyalaya, (Women's University) Prayag, Allahabad, Uttar Pradesh.

15. Gandhi Hindi Vidyapith, Prayag, Allahabad, Uttar Pradesh.
16. National University of Electro Complex Homeopathy, Kanpur, Uttar Pradesh.
17. Netaji Subhash Chandra Bose University (Open University), Achaltal, Aligarh, Uttar Pradesh.
18. Uttar Pradesh Vishwavidyalaya, Kosi Kalan, Mathura, Uttar Pradesh.
19. Maharana Pratap Shiksha Niketan Vishwavidyalaya, Pratapgarh, Uttar Pradesh.
20. Indraprastha Shiksha Parishad, Institutional Area, Khoda, Makaanpur, Noida Phase-II, Uttar Pradesh.
21. Gurukul Vishwavidyala, Vridanvan, Uttar Pradesh.

Odisha

22. Nababharat Shiksha Parishad, Anupoorna Bhawan, Plot No. 242, Pani Tanki Road, Shaktinagar, Rourkela-769014.
23. North Orissa University of Agriculture & Technology, University Road Baripada, Distt. Mayurbhanj, Odisha – 757 003

Puducherry

24. Sree Bodhi academy of Higher Education, No. 186, Thilaspeta, Vazhuthavoor Road, Puducherry – 605 009

*** Bhartiya Shiksha Parishad, Lucknow, UP – the matter is subjudice before the District Judge – Lucknow**

Oriental, Conventional and Non Conventional Learning in India

The word “Oriental” is derived from the term “Orient”. According to the oxford dictionary, the meaning of “Orient” is “the countries of the East, especially East Asia.” Merriam-Webster dictionary defined as “regions or countries lying to the east of a specified or implied point, the eastern regions or countries of the world.”

The Orient is a historical term for the East, traditionally comprising anything that belongs to the Eastern world. The term oriental is often used to describe anything from the Orient (East Asia).

Before the East India Company embarked on its political career in India, there was no organised education organised and supported by the state. Both Hindus and Muslims, had their own indigenous systems, each deeply rooted with great tradition of learning

and scholarship behind them. The study of ancient and traditional education was called Oriental learning by European and Britishers.

Oriental learning

In ancient India, both formal and informal ways of education system existed. Indigenous education was imparted at home, in temples, pathshalas, tols, chatuspadis and gurukuls. There were people in homes, villages and temples who guided young children in imbibing pious ways of life. Temples were also the centres of learning and took interest in the promotion of knowledge of our ancient system. Students went to viharas and universities for higher knowledge. Teaching was largely oral, and students remembered and meditated upon what was taught in the class.

With the disappearance of the Gurukula system and the ancient universities like those at Nālandā and Takṣaśilā (Taxila, now in Pakistan) as also the gradual dissolution of the powerful kingdoms by conquests from outside, it became necessary to evolve a method by which the ancient knowledge and wisdom of the East, especially of India, could be revived and preserved.

It is the Western scholars of the 19th and the 20th centuries who were mainly responsible for this revival, though many an Indian scholar too has contributed considerably to it. Further, they started to preserve the ancient knowledge and education system, information, culture, etc. by setting up institutes and libraries.

Oriental Research Institutes

A lot of the ancient wisdom has been buried in the millions of manuscripts lying uncared for, in our temples, Maṭhas (monasteries) and private libraries of scholars or their descendants. The various Oriental Research Institutes in our country have successfully collected quite a lot of them, are taking care of them and are also bringing them out as printed books. Modern science and technology are being put to good use in this noble work. But for the struggle of these institutes, our appalling ignorance of our glorious ancient culture would have been more appalling.

There are around 16 institutes/libraries whose work is consisted chiefly in collecting and collating rare manuscripts in the oriental languages (like Prākṛt and Sanskrit) dealing with religion, philosophy, literature, grammar, arts and sciences, editing them and publishing them with or without translations and explanatory notes.

1. Adyar Library

The Theosophical Society of Madras was started in A. D. 1882 at Adyar (a suburb of Madras) and the Library in A. D. 1886 by Col. Olcott (A. D.

1832-1907). This Library has gradually grown into a research centre in oriental studies.

The Library also has been publishing a journal **Brahmavidyā** since A. D. 1937. It gives all help and assistance to those scholars who intend to do research and special study.

2. Asiatic Society:

One of the good results of the British conquest of India is the deep interest aroused in Indological studies in the Western intellectuals and scholars. The person who gave an institutional framework to such studies was **Sir William Jones (A. D. 1746-94)**. He did it by starting 'The Asiatic Society' in A. D. 1794.

The name of the Society underwent several changes during the last two centuries, such as: the Asiatic Society (A. D. 1784-1825); The Asiatic Society (A. D. 1825-1832); The Asiatic Society of Bengal (A. D. 1832-1935); The Royal Society of Bengal (A. D. 1936-1951) and the Asiatic Society again since July 1951.

3. Bhaṇḍārkar Oriental Research Institute (Pune)

This institute (often abbreviated as BORI) was started in A. D. 1917 at Pune to commemorate the life and works of R. G. Bhaṇḍārkar (A. D. 1875-1950), a distinguished pioneer of scientific Orientology in India. The Institute is also bringing out periodically, **the Annals**, containing research papers.

4. Gaṅgānāth Jhā Kendrīya Saṁskṛta Vidyāpīṭha (Allahabad)

Established in A. D. 1934, it was formerly known as G. N. Jhā Research Institute. It was started to perpetuate the memory of Gaṅgānāth Jhā (A. D. 1872-1941) who was an eminent Indologist, a great scholar in Sanskrit and a Vice-chancellor of the Allahabad University for nine years. The Institute was taken over by the Government of India in A. D. 1945, placed under the Rāṣṭrīya Saṁskṛta Saṁsthāna of Delhi and renamed 'Gaṅgānāth Jhā Kendrīya Saṁskṛta Vidyāpīṭha'.

5. Kuppusvāmi Śāstrī Research Institute (Madras/Chennai)

This Institute was founded in A. D. 1944 in memory of the great savant S. Kuppusvāmi Śāstrī (A. D. 1880-1943) in A. D. 1944. It is bringing out a **Journal of Oriental Research**.

6. Madras Sanskrit College (Chennai)

The College was founded in A. D. 1905 by V. Krishnaswamy Iyer (b. A. D. 1863) and started working from February 1906. The course was for a duration of five years and was modelled on the traditional methods of teaching. The certificate awarded to successful students was for Viśārada degree, the subjects being Vedas, Vedānta, Mīmāṃsā, Smṛtis and some allied subjects.

7. Mythic Society (Bangalore)

An institution devoted to the study and research of religion, philosophy, history, ethnology and culture, the Mythic Society of Bangalore (Karnataka State) was founded in A. D. 1909, primarily at the initiative of F. J. Richards, the then Collector of Civil and Military Station (Cantonment) of Bangalore.

8. Oriental Institute (Baroda)

This institute was first founded at the instance of Sayyāji Rao Gāyakvād (Gaekwad), the third (A. D. 1875-1939), by the then dewan in A. D. 1893 with a small collection of manuscripts and printed texts. It formed a part of the Sanskrit section of the central library of Baroda. The now famous Gaekwad's Oriental Series was started in A. D. 1915. The Kāvyaṃīmāṃsā of Rājaśekhara (circa A. D. 900) was the first publication.

9. Oriental Manuscripts Library (Trivandrum)

Started in A. D. 1911 as a department of the Government of Travancore, it was amalgamated with the Manuscripts Library of the Kerala University in A. D. 1940. It has a collection of over 50,000 manuscripts in Sanskrit, Malayāḷam and other languages. It is publishing two journals, one in Sanskrit (Journal of the Kerala University Oriental Manuscripts Library) and the other in Malayāḷam (Bhāṣātraīmāsikam).

10. Oriental Research Institute (Mysore)

Chamaraja Wodeyar (A. D. 1863-1894) the Mahārāja (king) of the erstwhile Mysore State, who was a staunch admirer and follower of Hindu values of life, founded this Oriental Institute in A. D. 1891. It was then known as 'Oriental Library'. Starting with the publication of the Āpastambasūtra (with the commentary of Sudarśanācārya) in A. D. 1893, and the Ādipurāṇa (in Kannaḍa) of the great poet Pampa (A. D.

941) the institution has so far brought out a very large number of books both in Sanskrit and in Kannada. By A. D. 1979, 127 Sanskrit books had been published.

11. Oriental Research Institute (Tirupati)

The temple town of Tirupati in Andhra Pradesh is not only a place of pilgrimage but also a place of oriental learning. The management of the Tirumala-Tirupati Devasthānams has been spending a part of the surplus funds for the propagation of education and spread of Hindu religion and culture. As a part of this, the Oriental Research Institute of Tirupati came into being in A. D. 1941. When the Sri Venkateshwara University was started in A. D. 1954, Tirupati became its seat. The Institute was handed over to it in A. D. 1956.

12. Samskr̥ta Academy (Madras/Chennai)

The Samskr̥ta Academy of Madras (now Chennai) was started in A. D. 1927 in the Senate Hall of the Old Senate building of the University of Madras by Paṇḍit Madan Mohan Mālavīya (A. D. 1861- 1946). The wellknown savant Kuppusvāmi Śāstrī [Kuppuswami Sastry (A. D. 1880-1943)] was chosen as the first president.

13. Samskr̥ta Sāhitya Pariṣat (Calcutta/Kolkata)

This institution owes its origin to a handful of Sanskrit pundits with limited financial resources but endowed with unlimited love and zeal for the rich heritage of the country. Founded in A. D. 1916 in a tiny rented house, it is now housed in its own spacious three storeyed building. It has now become an advanced centre of Sanskrit learning and research.

14. Government Sanskrit College (Calcutta/Kolkata)

This College was established in A. D. 1824 by the East India Company. The method of teaching Sanskrit was traditional. The subjects taught too were the usual traditional ones like Nyāya and other systems of philosophy, grammar, astrology and āyurveda (health-sciences). When Īśvaracandra Vidyāsāgara (A. D. 1820-1898) became its principal in 1851, he introduced the Western method of teaching in the college.

15. Sarasvati Mahal Library (Tanjavur)

Known to contain one of the largest and the most important collection

of Indian manuscripts in the world, the Sarasvatī Mahal Library of Thanjavur (in Tamil Nadu) was probably established by the end of the 16th Century A. D. Its full official name is ``**Thanjavur Maharaja Serfoji's Sarasvati Mahal Library**''.

16. Viśveśvarānand Viśvabandhu Institute of Sanskrit and Indological Studies (Hoshiarpur)

Two samnyāsins, Svāmis Viśveśvarānanda and Nityānanda, launched a project at Simla (now in Himachal Pradesh) in A. D. 1903 to prepare word-indices for the four principle Vedic Samhitās. After the passing away of Svāmi Nityānanda and after changing the place ultimately to Lahore (now in Pakistan) in A.D. 1923, Svāmi Viśveśvarānanda handed over the work and the project to Ācārya Viśvabandhu.

The Institute was originally known as `The Vishveshvaranand Vedic Research Institute' (at Sadhu Ashram). The Punjab University took it over in A. D. 1965 and renamed it as `The Vishveshvaranand Vishvabandhu Institute of Sanskrit and Indological Studies' (VVBIS & IS).

Conventional Learning (Education)

Conventional education, also known as back-to-basics, traditional education or customary education, c- learning refers to long-established customs that society traditionally used in schools and colleges or universities. It also refers to conventional education within a brick-and-mortar classroom facility.

Conventional education uses traditional teaching-learning methods in which instructors (teachers) and students (learners) are involved by interacting in a face-to-face manner in the classroom. These instructors initiate discussions in the classroom and focus exclusively on knowing content in textbooks and notes. Students receive the information passively and reiterate the information memorized in the exams.

Characteristics of Convention education

- ☐ It is on campus education with fixed time
- ☐ Require regular attendance
- ☐ Prescribed curriculum
- ☐ Emphasis more on teaching, not on learning
- ☐ Teacher centred learning

- ❑ Student learn through listening and observation
- ❑ Student assessment through traditional way i.e. written exams.

Non-Conventional Education

The Education system in which teaching learning activities is offered other than the on-campus with fixed time classrooms. For examples, evening learning, distance learning, vocational studies, skill-based courses, online learning, etc.

Non-conventional education is inspired by the **P.H. Coombs, and Ahmed** who has worked on non-formal education for poor.

Characteristics of Non-conventional education

- ❑ Learners oriented
- ❑ No fixed curriculum
- ❑ Cost effective
- ❑ Linked to employment
- ❑ Continuous
- ❑ For improvement of Quality

Target groups of non-conventional education are unemployed youths, school dropped out, Under-privilege group, Women and girls, Tribal and Minority population. This type of education is also for literacy programmes.

Professional, Technical and Skilled Based Education

The Indian education system is based on (10+2+3) pattern under the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD). The MHRD was created on **September 26, 1985**, through the 174th amendment to the Government of India (Allocation of Business) Rules, 1961.

The main objectives of the Ministry would be:

- Formulating the National Policy on Education and to ensure that it is implemented in letter and spirit
- Planned development, including expanding access and improving quality of the educational institutions throughout the country, including in the regions where people do not have easy access to education.
- Paying special attention to disadvantaged groups like the poor, females and the minorities
- Provide financial help in the form of scholarships, loan subsidy, etc to deserving students from deprived sections of the society.
- Encouraging international cooperation in the field of education, including working closely with the UNESCO and foreign governments as well as Universities, to enhance the educational opportunities in the country.

The MHRD works through two departments:

- Department of School Education & Literacy
- Department of Higher Education

Structure of Indian Education System

The Indian education system works for primary education to research specialised education. It can be categorised as following:

- A. School Education & Literacy
 - a. Primary Schooling
 - b. Secondary education
 - c. Senior Secondary Education
- B. Higher Education (Tertiary Education)
 - a. Academic Degrees (Non-professional)
 - b. Professional Degrees
 - c. Technical Degrees
- C. Vocational Education (Skilled Based)

According to New Revised Syllabus of UGC NET, we have to study only related to higher and skilled based education.

Higher Education

Higher education is also called **tertiary education system**. Indian higher education system is the third largest in the world, next to the United States and China, comprising academic, professional and technical degrees.

Academic Degrees (Non-Professional Education)

Non-professional education emphasize on theory and are not primarily designed as preparation for professional careers. These degree programs may lead to research, thereby conferring the title of 'doctor'. These courses prepare the student for a life of scholarship in an academic discipline, rather than specific applications of knowledge to professional practices. Moreover, students earning academic qualification do not often make use of the degree in their profession.

Examples of such degree courses are Bachelor of Arts (B.A.), Bachelor of Science (B.Sc), Master of Arts (M.A.), Master of Science (M.Sc), Master of Philosophy (M.Phil), Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D), etc.

Academic degrees, such as BA, B.Sc. and B.Com have been considered more 'traditional' and well- established forms of higher education and are available in a variety of specializations, such as B.A Economics, B.A English, B.A Hindi, B.Sc. Physics, B.Sc.

Computer Science, B.Sc Applied Science, and the list goes on. An academic degree typically provides a thorough education and knowledge on the specific subject, after which the student can pursue a master's degree or a professional course.

Traditionally, academic degree courses held more value, but the popularity of professional courses in recent times have firmly established their ground in the job market.

Non-professional Education:

1. Keeps More Career Options Open
2. Helps You Specialise
3. Doesn't Make You Job-Ready like professional degrees

Professional Education

A **professional degree** helps students prepare for careers in specific fields, such as law, pharmacy, medicine, and education. Professional education is a formalized approach to specialized training in a professional school through which participants acquire content knowledge and learn to apply techniques.

Some common goals of professional education include:

- incorporating the knowledge and values basic to a professional discipline;
- understanding the central concepts, principles, and techniques applied in practice;
- attaining a level of competence necessary for responsible entry into professional practice; and
- accepting responsibility for the continued development of competence.

Examples of Professional Education (degrees)

- Surgery and Medicines (MBBS, MS, MD)
- Dentistry (BDS)
- Management Studies (MBA)
- Law (LLB, LLM)
- Education (B.Ed., M.Ed.)

- CA, ICWA, CS etc.

Technical Education (Technical Degree)

According to Britannica, “Technical education is the academic and technical preparation of students for jobs involving applied science and modern technology. It emphasises the understanding and practical application of basic principles of science and mathematics.

In Indian context, technical education covers programmes in engineering, technology, management, architecture, town planning, pharmacy, applied arts & crafts, hotel management and catering technology.

The apex body of Technical Education is All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE). was set up in November 1945 as a national-level apex advisory body to conduct a survey on the facilities available for technical education and to promote development in the country in a coordinated and integrated manner. Later, AICTE was established by AICTE Act, 1987.

Examples of Technical Education:

- Engineering and Technology (Diploma, B.Tech, M.Tech)
- Architecture (B.Arch, M.Arch)
- Pharmacy (B.Pharma, M.Pharma), etc.

Skill Based Education (Vocational Education)

Vocational education also called Career and Technical Education (CTE), prepares learners for jobs that are based in manual or practical activities, traditionally non-academic and totally related to a specific trade, occupation or vocation, hence the term, in which the learner participates. It is sometimes referred to as technical education, as the learner directly develops expertise in a particular group of techniques or technology.

Vocational Education is a skill-based education, where learners get skill by practical and academical knowledge. The Skill based Education is fully job oriented for a specific field.

Examples of Skill Based Education (Vocational Education):

- ITIs
- Pradhan Mantri Kaushal Vikas Yojana (PMKVY)

- SANKALP (Skills Acquisition and Knowledge Awareness for Livelihood Promotion)
- Udaan
- Polytechnic Schemes
- Promote Vocational education in School and Higher Education

Professional Councils

Professional councils are responsible for recognition of courses, promotion of professional institutions and providing grants to undergraduate programmes and various awards. The statutory professional councils are:

- A. All India Council of Technical Education (AICTE)
- B. Medical Council of India (MCI)
- C. Indian Council for Agricultural Research (ICAR)
- D. National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE)
- E. Dental Council of India (DCI)
- F. Pharmacy Council of India (PCI) Indian
- G. Nursing Council (INC)
- H. Bar Council of India (BCI)
- I. Central Council of Homeopathy (CCH) Central
- J. Council for Indian Medicine (CCIM)
- K. Council of Architecture
- L. Distance Education Council (DEC)
- M. Rehabilitation Council
- N. National Council for Rural Institutes (NCRI)
- O. State Councils of Higher Education (SCHE)

A. All India Council of Technical Education (AICTE), Faridabad

All India council for Technical Education has been established under the AICTE Act, 1987. The council is authorized to take all steps that are considered appropriate for ensuring coordinated and integrated development of technical education and for maintenance of standards. The Council may, amongst other things:

- i. Coordinate the development of technical education in the country at all levels;
- ii. Evolve suitable performance appraisal system for technical

institutions and universities imparting technical education, incorporating norms and mechanisms for enforcing accountability;

- iii. Laydown norms and standards for courses, curricula, physical and instructional facilities, staff pattern, staff qualifications, quality instruction, assessment and examinations;
- iv. Grant approval for starting new technical institutions and for introduction of new course or programmes in consultation with the agencies concerned.

B. Medical Council of India (MCI), New Delhi

The Medical Council of India (MCI) was set up by the Indian Medical Council Act, 1956, amended in 1993. The council is empowered to prescribe minimum standards for medical education required for granting recognized medical qualifications by universities or medical institutions in India.

C. Indian Council for Agricultural Research (ICAR), New Delhi

ICAR has established various research centres in order to meet the agricultural research and education needs of the country. It is actively pursuing human resource development in the field of agricultural sciences by setting up numerous agricultural universities spanning the entire country. It provides funding to nearly 30 (Thirty) State Agricultural Universities, one Central University and several Deemed Universities. These universities employ about 26,000 scientists for teaching, research and extension education; of these over 6000 scientists are employed in the ICAR supported coordinated projects.

D. National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE), New Delhi

The National Council for Teacher Education is a statutory body set up under the National Council for Teacher Education Act, 1993 to facilitate planned and coordinated development of the teacher education system in the country, and for regulation and proper maintenance of norms and standards in the teacher education system. The mandate given to the NCTE is very broad and covers the whole gamut of teacher education programs including research and training of persons to equip them to teach at pre-primary, primary, secondary and senior secondary stages in schools, and non-formal education, part-time education, adult education and distance (correspondence) education courses.

E. Dental Council of India (DCI), New Delhi

Dental Council of India, constituted under the Dentists Act, 1948, is a Statutory Body incorporated under an Act of Parliament to regulate the dental education and the

profession of Dentistry throughout India. The Council is responsible for according recognition to dental degree awarded by various universities and also for maintaining uniform standards of dental education in India. The Dental Council of India (DCI) lays down minimum requirements in respect of staff and infrastructure and prescribes the syllabus and the scheme of examinations.

F. Pharmacy Council of India (PCI), New Delhi

The Pharmacy Council of India (PCI), also known as Central council, was constituted under section 3 of the Pharmacy Act, 1948. The PCI controls pharmacy education and profession in India up to graduate level. The Council prescribes the minimum standard of education for qualification as pharmacist.

G. Indian Nursing Council (INC), New Delhi

The Indian Nursing Council is a statutory body constituted under the Indian Nursing Council Act, 1947. The Council is responsible for regulation and maintenance of a uniform standard of training for Nurses, Midwives, Auxilliary Nurse•Midwives and Health Visitors.

H. Bar Council of India (BCI), New Delhi

The Bar Council of India is empowered to make rules to discharge its functions under the Advocates Act 1961. A significant rule-making power is with reference to laying down guidelines for the standards of professional conduct and etiquette to be observed by advocates. The Bar Council of India Rules may prescribe for a class or category of the person entitled to be enrolled as an advocate. The Bar Council of India can also specify the conditions subject to which an advocate must have the right to practice and the circumstances under which a person must be deemed to practice as an advocate in a court.

I. Central Council of Homeopathy (CCH), New Delhi

The Central Council of Homoeopathy was established under the Homoeopathy Central Council Act, 1973. The Council prescribes and recognizes all homeopathic medicine qualifications. Any university or medical institution that desires to grant a medical qualification in homeopathy is required to apply to the Council. The Council is responsible for the constitution and maintenance of a Central Register of Homoeopathy and for matters connected therewith. All universities and boards of medical institutions in India are required to furnish all information regarding courses of study and examination. The Council is empowered to appoint inspectors at examinations and visitors to examine facilities.

J. Central Council for Indian Medicine (CCIM), New Delhi

The Central Council of Indian Medicine is the statutory body constituted under the Indian Medicine Central Council Act, 1970. This Council prescribes minimum standards of education in Indian Systems of Medicine viz. Ayurved, Siddha, Unani Tibb. The Council is responsible to maintain a Central Register on Indian Medicine and prescribes Standards of Professional Conduct, Etiquette and Code of Ethics to be observed by the practitioners. The Council is empowered to appoint medical inspectors to observe the conduct of examinations, and visitors to inspect facilities in colleges, hospitals and other institutions imparting instruction in Indian medicine.

K. Council of Architecture, New Delhi

The Council of Architecture (COA) was constituted under the provisions of the Architects Act, 1972, enacted by the Parliament of India. The Act provides for registration of Architects, standards of education, recognized qualifications and standards of practice to be complied with by the practicing architects. The Council of Architecture is responsible to regulate the education and practice of profession throughout India besides maintaining the register of architects. Any person desirous of carrying on the profession of "Architect" must register himself with Council of Architecture.

L. Distance Education Council, New Delhi

Distance Education Council was constituted under statute 28 arising from Section 25 of the Indira Gandhi National Open University Act, 1985. The Distance Education Council (DEC) is responsible for the promotion and coordination of the open university and distance education system and for determination of its standards. The Council provides academic guidelines to promote excellence, encourage use of innovative technologies and approaches, enable convergence of all systems and sharing of resources through collaborative networking for access to sustainable education, skill upgradation and training to all.

M. Rehabilitation Council of India, New Delhi

The Rehabilitation Council of India was set up as a registered society in 1986. However, it was soon found that a Society could not ensure proper standardization and acceptance of the standards by other Organizations. The Parliament enacted Rehabilitation Council of India Act in 1992. The Rehabilitation Council of India become Statutory Body on 22nd June 1993. The RCI Act was amended by the Parliament in 2000 to work it more broad based. The Act casts onerous responsibility on the Council. It also prescribes that any one delivering services to people with disability, who does not possess qualifications recognized by RCI, could be prosecuted. Thus the Council has the twin responsibility of standardizing and regulating the training of personnel and professional in the field of

Rehabilitation and Special Education.

N. National Council for Rural Institutes, Hyderabad

National Council of Rural Institutes is an autonomous society fully funded by the Ministry of HRD, Govt. of India. Registered on 19th October, 1995 with its Headquarter at Hyderabad, It was established with a main objective of promoting Rural Higher Education for advancing rural livelihoods with the instrument of education on the lines of Mahatma Gandhiji's revolutionary concept of Nai Talim, a functional education based on the values proposed by Gandhiji. Other objectives of the council include teachers training, extension and research by networking with policy making bodies such as UGC, AICTE and research organizations like CSIR, AICTE etc., in addition to encouraging other educational institutions and voluntary agencies to develop in accordance with Gandhian Philosophy of education.

O. State Councils of Higher Education

Following the National Policy on Education, respective state governments have established State Councils of Higher Education (SCHE). These councils prepare coordinated programmes of development of higher education in each state. Thus they seek to consolidate the efforts and investments of institutions of higher education with the state.

- a. Andhra Pradesh State Council for Higher*
- b. Education Tamil Nadu State Council for Higher Education*
- c. UP State Council for Higher Education*

Value Education and Environmental Education

What are Values?

Values are principles, fundamental convictions, ideals, and standards of life which act as general guide to behaviour or as a reference point in decision making. Values are beliefs

about what is right and what is wrong and what is important in life.

- It is a set of principles which guide the standard of behaviour. Values are desirable and held in esteem. They give strength to a person's character by occupying a central place in his life. It reflects one's attitudes, choices, decisions, judgments, relationships, dreams and vision.
- Values are virtues, ideals and qualities on which actions and beliefs are based. Values are guiding principles that shape our world outlook, attitudes and conduct. The moral values present a true perspective of the development of any society or nation. They tell us to what extent a society or nation has developed itself.

Value Education

Value education is a process of teaching and learning about the ideals that a society considers them to be important. Value education can take place in different forms, but the main aim of providing it to students in their educational institutions is to make them understand the importance of good values; use and reflect them in their behaviour and attitudes; and finally contribute to the society through their good responsibility and ethics.

In simpler terms, Value education is defined as the process by which people give moral values to others. It can be seen as an activity taken place in an institution or organisation in which people are assisted or helped by others, who are elder or have more experience or have an authority over the people. This activity of value education will be used to make an individual better and it is important to assess the result of it in order to see the long-term well-being of an individual and others.

In the words of **John Dewey (1966)**, "Value education means primarily to prize to esteem to appraise, holding it dear and also, the act of passing judgment upon the nature and amount of its value as compared with something else".

Objectives of Value Education:

- To improve the integral growth of human begins.
- To create attitudes and improvement towards sustainable lifestyle.
- To increase awareness about our national history our cultural heritage, constitutional

- rights, national integration, community development and environment.
- To create and develop awareness about the values and their significance and role.
- To know about various living and non-living organisms and their interaction with environment

Need for Value Education

Mahatma Gandhi found that there is a great deal of moral degradation in the society. The main causes of moral degeneration are:

- Lack of respect for the sanctity of human life.
- Breakdown of parental control of children in families
- Lack of respect for authority, seen through the brazen breaking of the law and total disregard for rules and regulations
- Crime and corruption
- Abuse of alcohol and drugs
- Abuse of women and children, and other vulnerable members of society.
- Lack of respect for other people and property.

Other reasons for the need of Value Education

- to teach the values of the culture and society
- to enable them to distinguish between right and wrong
- to form the conscience of youngsters
- to continue the traditions of the society
- to make meaningful the practices and beliefs
- to connect to every human being in the right way

Value Education in India

In the history of **Value Education**, we see rather a slow development of the system in India. In the 1980s, the government was more responsive to the needs of **Value Education** in our schools.

Ancient India: Value Education in India from the ancient times has held a prime place of importance. From the gurukul stage the child not only learnt skills of reading and archery but more the philosophy of life in relation with its impermanence. Hence education in India was born of this vision to achieve one's experience in the absolute as a spark of the divine and in this process practice of one's duty accompanies the acquisition of knowledge.

In the modern school system value education, was termed moral education or moral science. British were absolutely neutral in their policy towards religion and value education.

CABE – (1943-46) emphasized spiritual and moral education. It was the responsibility of home and community.

Committee on Emotional Integration (1961) pointed out that the science students should have at least some background of humanities; it opined that there should be a compulsory paper on India's cultural heritage.

Education Commission (1964-66) recommended moral, social and spiritual values at all levels.

UNESCO (1972) felt that the education system should promote values of world peace and international understanding and unity of mankind.

National Policy on Education (NPE 1986) proposed readjustments in curriculum to make education a forceful tool to inculcate social and moral values; to eliminate obscurantism, fanaticism, superstition, illiteracy and fatalism. The National Policy on Education (NPE), 1986 envisages a national system of education based on a National Curricular Framework containing a common core along with other components that are flexible.

The common core includes the history of India's freedom movement, the constitutional obligations and other content essential to nurture national identity. These elements will cut across subject areas and will be designed to promote values such as India's common cultural heritage, etiquette, egalitarianism, democracy and secularism, equality of the sexes, protection of the environment, removal of social barriers, observance of the small family norm and inculcation of the scientific temper.

Environmental Education

Environmental education has been defined and redefined over the last twenty-five years. Definitional issues are inherent in a field this broad and encompassing. It is generally agreed that environmental education is a process that creates awareness and understanding of the relationship between humans and their many environments-natural, 17 man-made, cultural and technology. Environmental education is concerned with knowledge, values, attitudes, application and has as its aim responsible environmental behaviour (NEEAC, 1996).

Environmental education is a process that allows individuals to explore environmental issues, engage in problem solving, and take action to improve the environment. As a result, individuals develop a deeper understanding of environmental issues and have the skills to make informed and responsible decisions.

The components of environmental education are:

- **Awareness and sensitivity** to the environment and environmental challenges
- **Knowledge and understanding** of the environment and environmental challenges
- **Attitudes** of concern for the environment and motivation to improve or maintain environmental quality
- **Skills** to identify and help resolve environmental challenges
- **Participation** in activities that lead to the resolution of environmental challenges

Environmental education does not advocate a particular viewpoint or course of action. Rather, environmental education teaches individuals how to weigh various sides of an issue through critical thinking and it enhances their own problem-solving and decision-making skills.

Need for Environmental Education

The need to protect the environment hence the rationales for environmental education arise as a result of the following:

1. Environment is the basis of all life and therefore deserves proper care and management.
2. If the environment is threatened on a continuous basis, numerous problems which would constitute a danger to human existence could arise.
3. The environment is part of our cultural heritage which should be handed down to prosperity.
4. Some resources of the environment are not easily replaceable and should be managed on a sustainable basis, to prevent the extinction of certain components of the environment such as plants and animals.
5. There is need to enhance the sanity and aesthetic quality of our environment in order to promote healthy living.
6. The environment is part of nature and needs to be preserved for its own sake.

GOVERNANCE, POLITY AND ADMINISTRATION

Basics of Indian Constitution

The Constitution of India is the supreme law of India. It lays down the framework defining fundamental political principles, establishes the structure, procedures, powers,

and duties of government institutions, and sets out fundamental rights, directive principles, and the duties of citizens.

The Constitution of India is the longest written constitution of any sovereign country in the world, containing 448 articles in 25 parts, 12 schedules and 104 amendments.

But Indian Constitution has 395 articles in 22 parts and 8 schedules at the time of commencement. Besides the English version, there is an official Hindi translation.

Various Subject Committees like the Committee on Fundamental Rights and Union Constitution Committee had submitted their respective proposals and after a general discussion on all the proposals, a Drafting Committee chaired by **Dr. BR Ambedkar** was appointed. The Drafting Committee had the full authority to add, modify or delete any of the proposals submitted by the committees. The finalized draft of the Indian Constitution got the signature of the President of the Constituent Assembly, Dr. Rajender Prasad on Nov 26, 1949, which is referred to as the ***Date of Passing***. Since the Constituent Assembly, which finalized the Constitution was duly elected by means of indirect election by the people of India, *The Constitution of India derives its authority from the people of India*. The Constitution was thus enacted by the Constituent Assembly on **26 November 1949 and came into effect on 26 January 1950**. The date 26 January was chosen to commemorate the **Purna Swaraj** declaration of independence of 1930. With its adoption, the Union of India officially became the modern and contemporary Republic of India and it replaced the Government of India Act 1935 as the country's fundamental governing document.

The Indian Constitution has borrowed heavily from other constitutions of the world and can be called a “**beautiful patchwork**”.

Some of the prominent features which have been borrowed are as under.

Feature	Source / Inspiration
1. Fundamental Rights	USA
2. The Parliamentary System of Government	UK
3. Directive Principles of State Policy	Ireland (Eire)

4. Emergency Provisions	Germany (Third Reich)
5. Amendment Procedure	South Africa
6. Preamble to The Constitution of India	France
7. Federal Model of Governance	Canada

Salient Features of Constitution:

1. It is the longest written constitution in the world.
2. It proclaims India a Sovereign Democratic Republic.
3. Fundamental Rights are guaranteed to all citizens of India.
4. Directive Principles of State Policy are incorporated.
5. It established the parliamentary system of government, *i.e.*, the President of the Union is the constitutional head, the Council of Ministers or the Union Cabinet is the real executive and is responsible to the Lok Sabha.
6. It is federal in form (in normal times) but unitary in spirit (in emergencies).
7. It is neither too rigid (as some provisions can be amended by a simple majority) nor flexible (as some provisions require special majority for amendment).
8. It declares India a secular state.
9. It guarantees single citizenship to all citizens.
10. It introduced adult franchise, *i.e.*, every adult above 18 years has the right to vote and the system of joint electorates.
11. It established an independent judiciary; the Supreme Court acts as a guardian of the Constitution in place of the Privy Council.

Structure: The Constitution, in its current form, consists of a preamble, 25 parts

containing 448 articles, 12 schedules, 2 appendices and 104 amendments.

The Preamble: The draft of the Preamble was prepared by Jawaharlal Nehru and is based on the American model. The 42nd Amendment added the words "Secular and Socialist" and now the preamble reads as follows.

"We the People of India, having solemnly resolved to constitute India into a Sovereign Socialist Secular Democratic Republic and to secure to all its citizens:

Justice; social, economic and political;

Liberty; of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship;

Equality; of status and of opportunity; and to promote among them all;

Fraternity; assuring the dignity of the individual and the unity and integrity of the nation; In our Constituent Assembly, November 26, 1949, do hereby adopt, enact and give to ourselves this constitution".

The Preamble is, technically, *not* a part of the Constitution (and this has been confirmed by the SC also), but it contains the basic philosophy of the whole Constitution and the ideals of the constitution-makers. It can be used by the Courts to help them in interpretation of the Constitution in certain matters where the Constitution itself is silent.

Parts: The individual Articles of the Constitution are grouped together into the following Parts:

Preamble

Part I – Union and its Territory

Part II– Citizenship.

Part III – Fundamental Rights.

- **Part IV** – Directive Principles of State Policy

Part IVA – Fundamental Duties.

Part V – The Union.

Part VI – The States.

Part VII – States in the B part of the First schedule (*Repealed*).

Part VIII– The Union Territories

Part IX – The Panchayats.

Part IXA – The Municipalities.

Part IXB – The Cooperative Societies

Part X – The scheduled and Tribal Areas

Part XI – Relations between the Union and the States.

Part XII – Finance, Property, Contracts and Suits

Part XIII – Trade and Commerce within the territory of India

Part XIV – Services Under the Union, the States.

Part XIVA – Tribunals.

Part XV – Elections

Part XVI – Special Provisions Relating to certain Classes.

Part XVII – Languages

Part XVIII – Emergency Provisions

Part XIX – Miscellaneous

Part XX – Amendment of the Constitution

Part XXI – Temporary, Transitional and Special Provisions

Part XXII – Short title, date of commencement, Authoritative text in Hindi and Repeals

Part	Article	Articles of the Constitution Deals with
Part I	Articles 1-4	Territory of India, admission, establishment or formation of new states
Part II	Articles 5-11	Citizenship
Part III	Articles 12-35	Fundamental Rights
Part IV	Articles 36-51	Directive Principles of State Policy
Part IV A	Article 51-A	Duties of a citizen of India. It was added by the 42nd Amendment in 1976
Part V	Articles 52-151	Government at the Union level

HIGHER EDUCATION

Part VI	Articles 152-237	Government at the State level
Part VII	Article 238	Deals with states in Part B of the First Schedule. It was repealed by 7th Amendment in 1956
Part VIII	Articles 239-241	Administration of Union Territories
Part IX	Article 242-243	Territories in Part D of the First Schedule and other territories. It was repealed by 7th Amendment in 1956
Part X	Articles 244-244 A	Scheduled and tribal areas
Part XI	Articles 245-263	Relations between the Union and States
Part XII	Articles 264-300	Finance, property, contracts and suits
Part XIII	Articles 301-307	Trade, commerce and travel within the territory of India
Part XIV	Articles 308-323	Services under the Union and States
Part XIV A	Articles 323A-323B	Added by the 42nd Amendment in 1976 and deals with administrative tribunals to hear disputes and other Complaints
Part XV	Articles 324-329	Election and Election Commission
Part XVI	Articles 330-342	Special provision to certain classes ST/SC and Anglo Indians
Part XVII	Articles 343-351	Official languages
Part XVIII	Articles 352-360	Emergency provisions
Part XIX	Articles 361-367	Miscellaneous provision regarding exemption of the President and governors from criminal proceedings
Part XX	Article 368	Amendment of Constitution
Part XXI	Articles 369-392	Temporary, transitional and special provisions
Part XXII	Articles 393-395	Short title, commencement and repeal of the Constitution

Schedules: Schedules are lists in the Constitution that categorize and tabulate bureaucratic activity and policy of the Government.

First Schedule (Articles 1 and 4)- This lists the states and territories of India, lists any changes to their borders and the laws used to make that change.

Second Schedule (Articles 59, 65, 75, 97, 125, 148, 158, 164, 186 and 221)- – This lists the salaries of officials holding public office, judges, and Comptroller and Auditor-General of India.

Third Schedule (Articles 75, 99, 124, 148, 164, 188 and 219)—Forms of Oaths – This lists the oaths of offices for elected officials and judges.

Fourth Schedule (Articles 4 and 80) – This detail the allocation of seats in the *Rajya Sabha* (the upper house of Parliament) per State or Union Territory.

Fifth Schedule (Article 244) – This provides for the administration and control of Scheduled Areas and Scheduled Tribes (areas and tribes needing special protection due to disadvantageous conditions).

Sixth Schedule (Articles 244 and 275) — Provisions for the administration of tribal areas in Assam, Meghalaya, Tripura, and Mizoram.

Seventh Schedule (Article 246)—the union (central government), state, and concurrent lists of responsibilities.

Eighth Schedule (Articles 344 and 351)—the official languages.

Ninth Schedule (Article 31-B) – Originally Articles mentioned here were immune from judicial review on the ground that they violated fundamental rights. but in a landmark judgment in 2007, the Supreme Court of India held in *I.R. Coelho v. State of Tamil Nadu* and others that laws included in the 9th schedule can be subject to judicial review if they violated the fundamental rights guaranteed under Article 14, 15, 19, 21 or the basic structure of the Constitution.

Tenth Schedule (Articles 102 and 191)—"Anti-defection" provisions for Members of Parliament and Members of the State Legislatures.

Eleventh Schedule (Article 243-G)—*Panchayat Raj* (rural local government)

Twelfth Schedule (Article 243-W)—Municipalities (urban local government).

The Federal System & Territory of The Union

1. The Federal System:

Article 1 of the Indian Constitution describes India as a “Union of States”. The term “Union” implies that:

I. The Indian federation is *not* the result of a voluntary agreement by the states themselves. As is well known, after India’s independence, more than 550 states were integrated into the Union of India by the then Home Minister, Sardar Vallabh Bhai Patel,

leading to his being branded as the “Iron Man of India”. So, their inclusion in India is purely involuntary.

II. The components of the Indian Union have no freedom to secede from it. (unlike the erstwhile USSR or the present-day USA where such freedom was/is vested in the states).

The Indian federal system is unique in the sense that in spite of its being a federal set-up, it still does not have many features characteristic of a typical federal set-up (like the USA). In general, the Indian set-up has been mostly described as ***quasi-federal or semi-federal*** due to the fact that the balance of power tilts heavily in favour of the Centre i.e. the states enjoy comparatively lesser powers in most spheres as compared with the Centre.

2. Territory of the Union

The territory of India comprises the entire geographical territory over which the sovereignty of India, for the time being, prevails. On the other hand, the Union of India includes only those component units, i.e., the states, which share power with the Centre. The UTs are centrally administered areas governed by the President acting through an Administrator appointed by him. As on date, the territory of **India consists of 28 states, 7 UTs and 1 National Capital Territory of Delhi (NCT- Delhi is neither a full state nor a UT)**. India is a federal constitutional republic governed under a parliamentary system consisting of 28 states and 7 union territories. All states, as well as the union territories of Puducherry and the National Capital Territory of Delhi, have elected legislatures and governments, both patterned on the Westminster model. A newly created UT, Jammu & Kashmir will also have legislatures and governments. The remaining five union territories are directly ruled by the centre through appointed administrators. In 1956, under the States Reorganisation Act, states were reorganised on a linguistic basis.

Making use of this provision, several landmark changes have been brought about in the political composition of the Indian territory, some of which are found in the table below:

ACT/LEGISLATION	CHANGE
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1	States Reorganization Act, 1956	Andhra, Kerala formed (Andhra-first state on linguistic basis)
2	Bombay Reorganization Act, 1960	Gujarat, Maharashtra born as new states
3	The Panjab Reorganization Act, 1966	Panjab, Haryana and Chandigarh created
4	Mysore State Act, 1973	The name Mysore changed to Karnataka
5	State of Mizoram Act, 1986	Mizoram, earlier a UT, made a State
6	State of Arunachal Pradesh Act, 1986	Arunachal Pradesh elevated to statehood
7	Goa, Daman and Diu Reorganization Act, 1987	Goa made a state

Fundamental Rights

Fundamental rights are the basic human rights enshrined in the Constitution of India which are guaranteed to all citizens. They are applicable without discrimination on the basis of race, religion, gender, etc. Significantly, fundamental rights are enforceable by the courts, subject to certain conditions.

These rights are called fundamental rights because of two reasons:

1. They are enshrined in the Constitution which guarantees them.
2. They are justiciable (enforceable by courts). In case of a violation, a person can approach a court of law.

The Constitution provided for seven Fundamental Rights, but one right was removed later.

- Right to equality (Article 14-18)
- Right to freedom (Article 19-22)
- Right against exploitation (Article 23-24)
- Right to freedom of religion (Articles 25-28)
- Cultural & educational rights (Articles 29-30)
- Right to Property (Article 31) (It was removed later)
- Right to constitutional remedies (Article 32).

List of Fundamental Rights

There are six fundamental rights mentioned in the Indian Constitution. They are listed below:

1. Right to equality (Articles 14-18)

Article 14: Equality before law and equal protection of law

Article 15: Prohibition of discrimination on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth.

Article 16: Equality of opportunity in matters of public employment.

Article 17: End of untouchability Article 18 :- Abolition

2. Right to freedom (Articles 19-22)

Article 19: It guarantees the citizens of India the following six fundamentals freedoms:

- Freedom of Speech and Expression
- Freedom of Assembly
- Freedom of form Associations
- Freedom of Movement
- Freedom of Residence and Settlement

- Freedom of Profession, Occupation, Trade and Business

Article 20- Protection in respect of conviction for offences

Article 21- Protection of life and personal liberty

Article 21A- Right to education

Article 22- Protection against arrest and detention in certain cases

3. Right against exploitation (Articles 23-24)

Article 23: Prohibition of traffic in human beings and forced labour

Article 24: Prohibition of employment of children in factories, etc.

4. Right to freedom of religion (Articles 25-28)

Article 25: Freedom of conscience and free profession, practice and propagation of religion

Article 26: Freedom to manage religious affairs

Article 27: Prohibits taxes on religious grounds

Article 28: Freedom as to attendance at religious ceremonies in certain educational institutions

5. Cultural and educational rights (Articles 29-30)

Article 29: Protection of interests of minorities

Article 30: Right of minorities to establish and administer educational institutions

Article 31: Omitted by the 44th Amendment Act

6. Right to constitutional remedies (Articles 32-35)

Article 32: Right to move to Supreme Court (and high courts also) for getting his fundamental rights protected

Article 33: Power of Parliament to modify the rights.

Article 34: Restriction on rights while martial law is in force in any area.

Article 35: Legislation to give effect to the provisions.

What is a Writ?

Writs are written order issued by the Supreme Court of India to provide constitutional remedies in order to protect the fundamental rights of citizens from a violation.

Type of Writs

The Constitution empowers the Supreme Court and High Courts to issue orders or writs.

The types of writs are:

- Habeas Corpus
- Certiorari
- Prohibition
- Mandamus
- Quo Warranto

Fundamental Duties

The fundamental duties which were added by the 42nd Amendment of the Constitution in 1976, in addition to creating and promoting culture, also strengthen the hands of the legislature in enforcing these duties vis-a-vis the fundamental rights.

The list of 11 Fundamental Duties under article 51-A to be obeyed by every Indian citizen is given below:

1. Abide by the Constitution and respect its ideals and institutions, the National Flag and the National Anthem.
2. Cherish and follow the noble ideals that inspired the national struggle for freedom.
3. Uphold and protect the sovereignty, unity and integrity of India
4. Defend the country and render national service when called upon to do so.
5. Promote harmony and the spirit of common brotherhood amongst all the people of India transcending religious, linguistic and regional or sectional diversities and to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women.
6. Value and preserve the rich heritage of the country's composite culture
7. Protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers and wildlife and to have compassion for living creatures.
8. Develop scientific temper, humanism and the spirit of inquiry and reform.
9. Safeguard public property and to abjure violence.
10. Strive towards excellence in all spheres of individual and collective activity so that the nation constantly rises to higher levels of endeavour and achievement.
11. Provide opportunities for education to his child or ward between the age of six and fourteen years. This duty was added by the 86th Constitutional Amendment.

The President:

At the head of the Union Executive stands the President of India, who is elected by indirect election i.e. by an electoral college, in accordance with the system of

proportional representation by a single transferable vote.

This electoral college comprises -

- A. Elected members of both Houses of Parliament
- B. Elected members of State Legislative Assemblies

Eligibility Conditions:

In order to contest for Indian Presidency, a person must

- be a citizen of India
- have completed 35 years of age
- be eligible election to the Loksabha
- not hold any office of profit under the Government of India or any State Government or under any local or other authority subject to the control of Central/State Governments.

The office tenure of the President is 5 years from the date of assuming office, but he will be eligible for re-election. **There is no bar on the number of times** for which a person can become the President of India. However, his office may terminate before 5 years in case of -

1. his resignation in writing which is addressed to the Vice-President of India
2. his removal by impeachment.

Emoluments and Allowances: The President gets a monthly salary of Rs. 5,00,000/- only apart from an official residence for use (free of cost) with other allowances. He is also eligible for an annual pension, if he is not re-elected as President.

Powers, Privileges, Duties: The Constitution says that the all the executive powers of the Union are vested in the President, making him the Head of the Indian State. Executive functions are those, which are left after taking out legislative and judicial functions.

Different Powers:

A. **Administrative Powers:** The Indian President remains the formal Head of the Union Administration and as such, all executive functions of the Union are expressed to be taken in his name. Further, all officers of the Union shall be subordinate to him and *“He will have a right to be informed of the affairs of the Union”*. (Art 78)

But simply, it means that he can ask for any file/document or information relating to the affairs of the Union.

The administrative power includes the power to appoint and remove certain high dignitaries of the State. The President enjoys the power to appoint-

1. The Prime Minister
2. Other Central Ministers on PM's advice
3. The Attorney-General of India
4. The Comptroller and Auditor-General of India
5. Supreme Court Judges including the CJI
6. High Court Judges including the Chief Justice
7. The Governor of a State
8. The Finance Commission
9. The Union Public Service Commission and Joint Commission for a group of States
10. A special officer for SC/STs
11. A Commission on Scheduled Areas
12. A Commission on Official Languages
13. A special officer for Linguistic Minorities
14. The Chief Election Commissioner and other Election Commissioners
15. A Commission for Backward Classes

He is competent to remove

1. the Union Ministers (on the advice of the PM)
2. the Attorney-General of India
3. the Chairman or a member of the Union Public Service Commission on the report of the Supreme Court.

4. a Supreme Court/High Court Judge/Election Commissioner, on an address of Parliament.
- B. **Military Powers:** The President is the Supreme Commander of the Armed Forces in India and as such, has the right to declare *war* or *peace* with any country. However, such powers are subject to parliamentary control.
- C. **Diplomatic Powers:** The task of negotiating international treaties and agreements belongs to the President, who acts according to ministerial advice in such matters. This again is subject to ratification by the Parliament.
- D. **Legislative Powers:** The President is component part of the Union Parliament (though not a member of either House) and enjoys the following legislative powers:
1. **Summoning, Prorogation, Dissolution:** The President has the power to summon (call) or prorogue (end the session) the Houses of Parliament and to dissolve the Lok Sabha.
 2. He also enjoys the right to call a Joint Sitting of both the Houses to resolve a deadlock over any bill (Art 108)
 3. He addresses the first session after each general election and at the first session of each year.
 4. He can nominate 12 members to the Rajya Sabha from persons with special achievements/experience in literature, science, art and social service. Similarly, he has the right to nominate 2 Anglo-Indians to the Lok Sabha, if he feels their representation is not sufficient.

It is obligatory to obtain Presidential sanction beforehand in case of certain bills like -

1. a bill for forming a new state/change of state boundaries
2. a money bill
3. a bill affecting taxation in which states are also interested

A Bill becomes an Act only after getting Presidential assent. The President is competent to take any of the following steps if a Bill is presented to him for his assent:

- A. He may give assent to the Bill enabling it to become a law
- B. He may withhold his assent
- C. He may return the Bill for reconsideration (except Money Bills) to the Parliament. If the Bill is re-presented to him in this case after reconsideration, it is obligatory for him to give his assent to it.

The above is true of ordinary bills (bills except Money and Amendment Bills).

The President of India **cannot refuse to sign a bill**. At the most, he can withhold his assent from the bill, which is the equivalent of not approving a Bill. Also, there is no time-limit prescribed for him to give his assent to a Bill. Theoretically speaking, he may keep the Bill in his pocket for an indefinite time.

An example in this regard is Mr. Zail Singh's, who kept the Postal Amendment Bill with him, and it lapsed without his approval once he retired from office. This type of veto power is known as "**Pocket Veto**". In case of sending back the Bill for re-consideration, if the Bill again comes back to him, the only effect of sending back the bill is suspending the process of assent for some days. This is referred to as "**Suspensive Veto**".

Ordinance-Making Power: The President enjoys the power to issue an ordinance at a time, when the Parliament is not in session. An ordinance, for all practical purposes, has the effect of a normal law passed by the Parliament. This power is exercised by him on Cabinet advice. The ordinance issued by the President must be passed by the Parliament within 6 weeks of reassembly otherwise it will cease to be in operation. (Art 123)

The Pardoning Powers: He can grant pardon, reprieve, respite, suspension, remission or commutation in punishment in cases where death sentence is awarded by the Courts (even by a Court-Martial). He is the only authority for pardoning a death sentence.

Miscellaneous Powers:

1. Power to draw up and notify the lists of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes for each state separately and UTs.
2. To refer any matter to the Supreme Court for its advice (Art. 143)

Emergency Powers

Three types of emergency have been prescribed under the Constitution to deal with exigencies.

The President can -

A. declare a **“Proclamation of Emergency”** due to *threat to the security of India or any part of it*. It can be imposed even in the anticipation of such a threat. The proclamation of emergency must be passed by both Houses with special majority within one month of its issuance. It can last for six months by passing each such resolution by the requisite majority.

Because of war, external attack or armed rebellion. (Art.352). An example is the infamous emergency imposed in 1975 by Mrs. Indira Gandhi. Please note that whenever the word “Emergency” alone is used, it refers to the National Emergency.

During such an Emergency, the Union can direct the States to perform their Executive functions in the manner specified by it, thus bringing the States under the complete control of the Union (without suspending it). During such times, the Parliament will be authorized to make laws in respect of the State List also (which it normally does not do). Whenever a proclamation of emergency is issued, the rights granted by Art. 19 are immediately suspended. Any other FR can be suspended depending on a special presidential order *except* the Right To Life. But since the emergency order has to be ultimately approved by the Parliament and it is within its right to disapprove it, the *final authority* to suspend any FR in India remains the Indian Parliament.

B. *proclaim a state emergency (Art 356) due to breakdown of governmental machinery in any state* if he is satisfied that the government there cannot be carried out according to Constitutional

provisions. Such breakdown may occur due to a political deadlock (as in UP where no government could be formed even after election owing to a hung assembly) or failure of the state government to comply with directions of the Union.

In such cases, the President suspends the assembly of that state and rules the state through the Governor, who is his nominee. That is why this is popularly known as the “President’s Rule”. It has been applied

more than 106 times till date. In such cases, the President may assume to himself any or all of the powers of the State Legislature. Normally, it is imposed for two months initially, and is to be approved by the Parliament. This duration can be extended, however, by six months each upto maximum of three years by passing resolutions in the Parliament.

C. declare a Financial Emergency under Art. 360 if he feels that the creditworthiness of India or any part of it is in danger. The objective of such an emergency is to maintain financial stability of India by controlling the expenditures and by reducing the salaries of all government servants. Such an emergency has never been imposed so far.

The Union Council of Ministers:

While the Prime Minister is selected by the President, all other ministers are appointed by him on the advice of the Prime Minister. While selecting a Prime Minister, the President is restricted to the leader of the majority party at the Centre or the person who is in a position to form a government and prove is majority later on. The allocation of portfolios to the Ministers is also done by the President as per the Prime Ministerial advice.

The PM is at the head of the Council of Ministers and the Council *cannot* continue to exist in the event of resignation or death of the Prime Minister.

Eligibility to be the Prime Minister of India:

The person should be an elected member of either Lok Sabha or Rajya Sabha.

Powers and functions of Prime Minister

- recommends persons who can be appointed as ministers by the President.
- can recommend dissolution of the Lok Sabha to the President at any time.

The PM is the chairman of the Niti Ayog, National Development Council, National Integration Council, Inter-State Council and National Water Resources Council.

The term Council of Minister refers to all the Ministers, whether Cabinet, State or Deputy Ministers.

The Union Legislature: *Comprises the President, the Loksabha and the Rajyasabha.*

1. **The Lok Sabha:** The maximum strength of the House envisaged by the Constitution is 552, which is made up by election of up to 530 members to represent the States, up to 20 members to represent the Union Territories and not more than 2 members of the Anglo-Indian Community to be nominated by the Hon'ble President, if, in his/her opinion, that community is not adequately represented in the House.

Members of the Lok Sabha are elected by an electoral college of all adult citizens (of **not less 18 years** and who is **not disqualified for non-residence, unsoundness of mind, crime or corrupt or illegal practices-Universal Adult Franchise –Art. 326**). The normal duration of a Lok Sabha is **5 years**, unless dissolved earlier by the President. **The duration can be increased by a maximum of 1 year at a time only during an Emergency.**

2. **The Speaker:** The Speaker is the person who presides over the Lok Sabha sittings. Soon after its formation, the new Lok Sabha chooses its Speaker and the Deputy

Speaker.

The Speaker may cease to be so

1. if he loses the Lok Sabha membership for some reason
2. if he submits his resignation in writing to the Deputy Speaker and vice-versa.
3. If he is removed from the post by a Lok Sabha resolution supported by a majority all the members of the House. Normally, the Speaker exercises the **casting vote** in case of a tie over a bill in the House. Besides, the LS Speaker presides over a Joint Sitting of both the Houses. The Speaker also ratifies a bill as Money Bill and his decision in this matter is final. During a vacancy in the office of the LS Speaker, the Deputy Speaker performs his duties.

After the first General Elections in 1951, GV Mavlankar became the *first* Speaker of the Lok Sabha.

3. The Rajya Sabha: It is a permanent House (cannot be dissolved) with a member having a **term of 6 years**. One-thirds of its members retire after every two years. Consequently, there will be an election of one-thirds of the Rajya Sabha at the beginning of every 3rd year.

It is the duty of the President to summon both Houses of Parliament at such intervals that not more than 6 months elapse between two successive sessions. The Vice-President of India is the ex-office Chairman of the Rajya Sabha. During his absence, the Deputy Chairman discharges his duties in the House.

4. **The State Executive:** Our Constitution provides for a federal set-up and contains provisions for the administration of the Union and the State governments. The procedure laid down for the governance of the States is equally applicable to all, except Jammu and Kashmir.

5. **The Governor:** The State Governor is largely parallel to the Union President in matters of his role in the legislative and executive process. The Governor, appointed by the President, holds office at the President's pleasure and enjoys the formal executive authority in a state. Any Indian Citizen above **35 years of age** is eligible for Governorship,

but he must not hold any office of profit, nor he be a member of the Union or a State Legislature. The powers of appointment to the State Council of Ministers, the Advocate-General, recommending Money- Bills etc. enjoyed by the Governor are largely analogous to those held by the President at the Centre.

The normal office term of a Governor is 5 years, terminable earlier by resignation to the President or dismissal by the President.

6. **The State Legislature:** Some of the states are unicameral i.e. have got only the State Legislative Assembly. In some others, apart from it, there is a State Legislative Council e.g. Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir. The SLC is largely analogous to the Rajyasabha while the State Legislative Assembly is the equivalent of the Rajyasabha.

The Indian Judicial System:

The Supreme Court of India sits at the apex of the judicial system in India and the Parliament is competent to make any changes regarding its constitution, jurisdiction and the salaries payable to its judges. The Supreme Court comprises a Chief Justice of India and 33 other Judges. Besides, the CJI, with presidential consent, can request a retired SC Judge to act as a Temporary Judge in case of lack of quorum.

Qualifications and Tenures of Judges

A person, in order to be appointed an SC Judge must

1. be a citizen of India
2. Be either a distinguished jurist or have at least 10 years' High Court practice as an advocate OR
3. have been a High Court Judge for at least 5 years.

No minimum age nor any fixed tenure has been prescribed. An SC Judge may cease to be so

1. on attaining the age of 65 years
2. by sending his resignation to the President
3. being impeached

The only grounds upon which an SC Judge can be removed are:

- A. *proven misbehavior*
- B. *incapacity*

As A Guarantor of the Constitution: The Supreme Court is the final interpreter the Constitution and Other laws. It tries to ensure adherence to both and thus acts a guarantor of individual rights in India granted by the law and the Constitution.

The High Courts: A High Court stands at the head of the judiciary in each state. But the Parliament has the power to establish a common High Court for two or more states (like the common HC for the North- Eastern states). A High Court comprises a Chief Justice and a number of other Judges, as may be decided by the President.

The HC enjoys the jurisdiction over the territorial limits of the state and has the power of superintendence and control over all Courts and Tribunals in that area.

In order to be appointed an HC Judge, a person must

1. be an Indian citizen
2. not be above 62 years of age
3. have held a judicial office in India OR
4. have been an advocate of an HC or of two more such courts in succession

In appointing HC Judges, the President shall consult the CJI, the State Governor (and also the CJ of the State HC in case a judge other than the CJ is to be appointed) an HC Judge holds office till 62 years of age. However, the Judge may vacate his post-

1. by resignation in writing to the President
2. on appointment as an SC Judge
3. by impeachment in Parliament.

The mode of removal of both SC and HC Judges is the same i.e. impeachment by Parliament and both hold office during “good behaviour”. Both categories of Judges, in addition to a monthly salary, are entitled to the use of an official residence, free of cost.

Some Important Political Terms

1. **Lame duck Government:** Is defined as that government which has lost the motion of no-confidence in the Lok Sabha and does not have the constitutional authority to

run the government. Still on being asked by the President, such a government has to continue until alternative arrangements are made. Such a government is referred to as a lame duck government.

2. **Left Parties:** Are those parties that adopt a radical political ideology. For instance, the CPI, CPI(M) and RSP etc.
3. **Right Parties:** Are defined as those parties which adopt a politically conservative ideology e.g. the BJP, Shiv Sena etc.
4. **Centrist Parties:** Are those which adopt a political position which is a via media between the leftist and the rightist political ideologies.
5. **Cut Motion:** A motion moved to affect a cut in the Annual Budget. If an insignificant cut is proposed, such a motion is known as a token cut-motion. It has great political significance because if it is carried through in the Parliament, the government is under moral obligation to resign as a consequence.
6. **Zero Hour:** That time during parliamentary proceedings in the day when any matter of urgent national importance without any prior notice.
7. **Starred Question:** Those the answers to which are given orally by the Minister concerned in the Parliament.
8. **Unstarred Questions:** The answers to which are given in writing in Parliament by the Minister concerned.
9. **Vote-On-Account:** Is passed without discussions pending final approval by the Parliament if money is required urgently.
10. **Guillotine:** A motion is said to be guillotined if it is passed without any discussion on it in parliament in view of urgency of the issue under question.
11. **Filibuster:** Is a person who, in order to block the passage of a bill in Parliament, makes a long speech just before voting is going to take place. This term has British origins. Such a person and such a speech, both are referred to as filibuster.
12. **Whip:** A whip is a person who regulates the presence and conduct of the members of a particular political party in Parliament. He is supposed to ensure their presence and voting on particular days and in a particular manner. Before voting on any matter in Parliament, an order is issued by the whip to all party MPs. Such an order is also

known as a whip. Under the provisions of the Anti-Defection Law, violating a party whip can attract disqualification from Parliament. However, as per current provisions, which are likely to undergo drastic change in future, party splits (i.e. if one-thirds or more legislators from a particular party leave it and join another one) are not termed as defections and do not attract penal provisions.