NATIONAL COMMISSION ON TEACHERS (HIGHER EDUCATION)

TEACHERS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Professional and Career Development

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NATIONAL COMMISSION ON TEACHERS
(Higher Education)

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PROFESSIONAL & CAREER DEVELOPMENT

C O N T E N T S

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Abbreviation	Name of University
OSMN	Osmania
GHTI	Gauhati
MS	MSBaroda
KURUK	Kurukshetra
KSMR/KSMIR	Kashmir
KRNTK	Karnataka
CCHIN/COCHIN	Cochin
RS	Ravi Shankar
POONA	Poona
SNDP	Shrimati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey Women's University
MNPUR	Manipur
NEHU	North Eastern Hill University
UTKAL	Utkal
GNDU	Guru Nanak Dev University
PAU	Punjab Agricultural University
MLS	Mohan Lal Sukhadia University
MDRAS/MAD	Madras
TNAU	Tamil Nadu Agricultural
BHU	Banaras Hindu University
GJRAT	Gujarat

Name of States	
A.P./ANDPR	Andhra Pradesh
ASSAM	Assam
BIHAR	Bihar
GJRAT	Gujarat
HRYNA	Haryana
H.P./HIMPR	Himachal Pradesh
J & K	Jammu and Kashmir
KRNTK	Karnataka
KERAL/KERALA	Kerala
M.P./MADPR	Madhya Pradesh
MAHAR	Maharashtra
MANIP/MNPR	Manipur
ORISA	Orissa
PNJAB	Punjab
RJSTN/RAJAS	Rajasthan
TNADU/TMNDU	Tamil Nadu
U.P./UTRPR	Uttar Pradesh
WBNGL/WBENG	West Bengal
DELHI	Delhi
PNDCH/PONDI	Pondichery

INTRODUCTION

Adequate and suitable opportunities for career development should occupy an important position among the various factors which affect the status of teachers in society. High salaries and perks at the starting point of their career are a necessary but not a sufficient condition for attracting and retaining really qualified persons in the teaching profession. It is equally important both from the material and psychological points of view to create an ethos in institutions of higher learning wherein a good academic confidently looks forward to the development of his career through vertical mobility in response to his professional attainments. There would be adverse repercussions on the morale of the teaching profession if such a perspective is missing. It would lead to the lowering down of the status of teachers in society and would create a situation wherein qualified persons would not be attracted to the teaching profession. Even those who are attracted to colleges and universities would not have any incentive to improve their professional competence. The importance of professional development in the academia cannot be over-emphasized since the quality of education and its contribution to nationaldevelopment is dependent upon it to a considerable extent. However, if teachers get "promoted" automatically by the mere passage of time irrespective of their professional development, an equally undesirable situation would emerge on the academic scene, wherein there would be no incentive for teachers to improve the level of their professional competence. It is, therefore, necessary that career and professional development of teachers are considered to be contingent upon each other and intertwined together in a sequential system.

The present study is concerned with various aspects of career development of teachers in higher education. Teachers in present-day higher education are called upon to perform manifold functions. Professional development should be relevant to the competent performance of these functions, and should be sequentially interlinked

with professional development. With such a paradigm, the present study focusses attention on the following:

i) various functions performed by teachers and the evaluation of the same;

ii) professional development of teachers; and

iii) vertical mobility in the teaching profession.

Every section begins with a discussion on relevant theoretical constructs. It is followed by an analysis of empirical data pertaining to some of these issues. While teachers can be distinguished on the basis of various characteristics, only some of these are of particular relevance from the point of view of the present Study. The distinction between college and university teachers, among lecturers, readers and professors, between males and females is of significance in explaining variations in the significant attributes of teachers and has been used as an analytical tool for this purpose. The effect of the settlement size on some of the attributes, particularly in the case of college teachers, has been brought out. Distinction in terms of academic streams, years of experience and/or age and the nature of tenure have also been made in some cases.

There is need to evolve a policy of career development as a basic input in the improvement of Indian higher education. This calls for the provision of proper facilities for professional development, periodical programmes of training and advanced studies, continuous monitoring as well as evaluation and making higher positions available whenever a faculty member deserves it.

FUNCTIONS OF TEACHERS IN HIGHER EDUCATION AND THEIR EVALUATION

Some General Issues:

The role of the teacher in higher education has undergone radical changes in recent times. It would be desirable to, first of all, identify the various functions of a teacher in higher education on the basis of the classification adopted by the Robbins Committee: [1]

a) Teaching (in the university)-Actual teaching (lectures, practicals, etc.); Preparation of teaching; Correction of students' work

b) Research

c) Private study

d) Administration of university, college or departmental affairs including committees, interviews, official correspondence

e) Other work inside the university - advice to and consultation with students (in an official capacity) on personal problems; Examining; Meetings of learned societies and conferences; other

f) Work outside the university-extra-mural teaching; Other teaching; Consulting work; External Committees or administration; other

The three-fold classification adopted in the Indian context by the University Grants Commission - i.e. teaching, research and extension - is also used quite often. But certain "other functions" like administrative work, helping students to develop their integrated

personality by advising them or guiding them in extra-curricular activities may also be included in the list of bona fide functions of teachers in higher education.

Teaching: This function has often come to be identified with imparting knowledge of subjects as circumscribed by their syllabi. There is generally a one-way transmission of knowledge through the use of the lecture-method. Considering the rapid expansion in knowledge, it is important that the teacher keeps abreast of material in books as well as journals and disseminates the knowledge thus acquired to his students. Since the ultimate objective of teaching is learning by the student, it is necessary to supplement lectures by involving students more actively in the learning-process through such methods as tutorials, seminars, projects, field-work including writing of term papers, technical reports and short dissertations. Teaching at higher levels should imply the activation of the higher-order mental abilities in the students. Student-efforts are quite important in this context, and hence the need for students' active involvement in the teaching/learning process. Part of the teaching function involves the evaluation of students' work. The method of evaluation is derived from and should correspond to the nature of the course and the method of teaching. An annual end of term general essay type examination corresponds with the teaching-oriented lecture method. Learning-oriented education calls for the use of other methods like viva-voce or term paper/report evaluation. The need for adequate prepration on the part of the teacher to discharge his function of teaching effectively is well-recognized. Such preparation should relate to both the subject-matter and the pedagogical skills to be used by him. The inter-personal relationship between the teacher and his students is also considered quite important in this context.

Research: This is an important function of the teacher. It is through research that the teacher generates knowledge and extends the frontiers of his subject. By participating in a Ph.D. degree course, a teacher gets the necessary training for the pursuit of research. Since the knowledge generated through research has to be made

available to others, research publications are a necessary part of the research activity of a teacher. The research-function of a teacher should not, however, be restricted to obtaining a Ph.D. degree and publications by the teacher. This view of research is rather narrow and would result in a conflict between the teaching and research functions of the teacher.[3] This conflict is felt to an even greater extent in a situation wherein, while teaching takes up most of a teacher's time, it is his published research which is rewarded in terms of prospects for vertical mobility. Ideally, teaching and research are considered to be complementary and over-lapping activities. This would be true if the term 'research' is given a wider connotation in terms of scholarship to include deep intellectual curiosity and wide-ranging reading in response to it with a view to achieve a continuing self-renewal resulting from the urge to keep one's knowledge alive and continually improving one's understanding/insight.[4] It should, however, be emphasized that research is essentially aimed at extending the frontiers of knowledge; but leads to the self-renewal of the researcher and the sharpening of his intellectual curiosity and sensitivity in the process. Research function should include pursuit of a research course, publication of research-papers, guidance to students in their research work and participation in research projects. The knowledge generated through such research activities by a teacher should also be incorporated in his teaching so that students benefit from the teacher's research much before the findings are published for the benefit of others.

Extension: The concept of education has undergone changes in recent years. The "ivory tower" approach is no longer thought to be appropriate. Education should have social relevance and concern. The U.G.C. as far back as 1977, brought out a policy-frame for the development of higher education in India in which extension was mentioned as the third important activity of a university or college in addition to the two activities of teaching and research. Participation of teachers in adult and continuing education is considered as part of extension-work. Similarly, in the field of science and technology, consultancy work for industry may be done by

the teacher as extension-work. Through extension, the teacher is able to make his knowledge available not only to his students, but also to the wider society. Participation in extension work by the teacher would ensure that he is in touch with social reality and the practical world and this in turn would affect the nature of knowledge he generates and disseminates within his institution. This aspect of the work of the teacher is particularly important in the case of undergraduate colleges, which are widely distributed throughout the length and breadth of the country. With a multi-discipline faculty of a viable size, a library, labs and other academic infra-structure, these may be developed as resource centres for planning and implementation of developmental activities at the micro-level.

Other Functions: Administration is one function in which a teacher is increasingly involved as he moves up in his career and take up higher-level positions.[5] Participation by teachers in administrative work is necessary as with their background they would be more effective defenders of academic standars than non-teachers. This is especially true at the higher levels of educational administration.[6] Of course, for some of the more mundane responsibilities in administrative work, some middle-level administrative staff could be employed and suitably trained.

Participation in extra-curricular activities takes up quite a bit f a teacher's working time, especially at the undergraduate level of education. Since, students should participate in extra-curricular activities to develop an all-round integrated personality, involvement of teachers in such activities is a must. Separate staff for such activities may not be desirable, and the involvement of the teacher may be considered to be necessary as they alone can influence students in the desired manner with relative ease.

Advising and counselling students can also be regarded as another function of the teacher. As in the case of extra-curricular activities, the teachers' involvement in this area is highly desirable.

Non-faculty staff, employed for this work would not be able to wake desired response from students.

An important function of the teacher at the tertiary level is to help the teachers at the higher secondary schools by updating their knowledge base, training them in the use of innovative methods of instruction and evaluation and contributing to the preparation of good text-books and ancillary books.

Thus, it is clear from the above that the job of a teacher in higher education comprises manifold functions. However, the extent to which the teacher participates in all these functions is determined partly by the level and type of higher education that he is involved in as also his personal capabilities and preferences. This has an important bearing in the evaluation of a teacher.

In the Indian context, all teachers in higher education are not expected to perform the various functions to the same extent. Thus, for example, at the under-graduate level, which accounts for 85% of the students enrolled in higher education, the relative importance of research would be less than at the post-graduate level. Not surprisingly, the U.G.C. guidelines make no provision for research, as such, for undergraduate college lecturers while calling upon the university lecturers devote approximately equal time to teaching and research.[7] Of course, this should not be taken to mean that no research at all should be undertaken by teachers at the under-graduate level. If research is interpreted in its wider connotation as indicated above, it is an essential part of the work of all teachers and it is hoped that a significant number of teachers in colleges would get involved in the process of generating new knowledge as well. Participation in extra-curricular activities, on the other hand, is required much more of a teacher at the under-graduate level than at the post-graduate level of education. Again, the extent of administration expected to be done by teachers at lower-level positions would be much less than at higher-level positions. Further,

the types of education in which the teacher is involved would effect the nature and extent of his involvement in the various functions.

One cannot expect that a teacher would be able to excel equally well in all his functions. Teachers have different aptitudes and talents and this would affect their peformance in the various functions. While a certain minimum level of efficiency may be expected in the teachers' performance in every function, due credit for his excellence in a particular function should be given to him. This would spur him on to do even better in that sphere.

Evaluation of the teacher implies the evaluation of his performance in all the functions expected of him. Various criteria have to be used for assessing the teacher's level of professional competence in each of the functions. It is often pointed out that evaluation of research gets too much emphasis while evaluation of teaching is neglected mainly because it is relatively more difficult to measure performance in the latter. This situation needs to be remedied. Just as criteria like number of research publications (here their quality too needs to be assessed) number of research students guided, number of research projects participated in, etc. are used for evaluating 'research', criteria like communication skills, presentation of up-dated information, use of questioning, and various teaching-aids can be used for assessing merit in 'teaching'. Similarly, criteria for assessing other functions have to be developed and used for evaluating the teacher. The teacher's evaluation should not be done by merely one source viz. the Head. Other sources of evaluation like that by peers and, students, should be given some weightage. As a rule, the process of evaluation of a teacher's record should **begin** by self-assessment.

Functions of Teachers : Empirical Findings

The data available on the time actually spent on various functions by teachers relate largely to the various aspects of their teaching-function and partly to their research-function. With regard

to their other functions, data is available only on the opinions of teachers regarding what percentage of a teacher's working time should be spent on each of them and not on the time actually spent on such functions. It must be pointed out, however, that the use of the criterion of time spent on various functions is only a rough approximation of a teacher's work as it excludes the important aspect of the effort and the quality of work put in by the teacher when performing his various functions. This is especially relevant in situations wherein where comparisons have to be made between the performance of one teacher and another and, more so, between the teaching profession and other professions/jobs.

Regarding the actual hours per week spent by the teachers on teaching in terms of lectures, tutorials, laboratory work and guiding research, the following results emerge from the data:

a) Lectures : About half the college and three-fourth of the university teachers spend up to 12 hours per week on lectures (among them, 18% of college and 37% of university teachers spend up to 6 hours only) while 1/3rd of the college and 11% of the university teacher spend 13 to 18 hours and 10% of the college and 5% of the university teachers spend more than 18 hours. A larger % of female teachers spend more time on lectures than male teachers in both colleges and universities (the gap, although not large, is wider for university teachers as compared with college teachers). As expected, the time spent on lectures declines as we move higher up in the level of position of the teachers (the gaps being wider for university teachers as compared with college teachers).

b) Tutorials : It is significant to note that about half the teachers in both colleges and universities do not spend any time on tutorials. On the other hands, 1-2 hours, 3-4 hours, 5-6 hours and more than 6 hours were spent on tutorials by 17%, 15%, 9% and 8% respectively of the college teachers and 23%, 13%, 8% and 8% respectively of the university teachers. There are no marked differences in the % of teachers by sex or level of position as far as the time spent on

turtorials is considered. Some academics, who are in touch with the ground situation, feel that tutorial work is more of a formality in a considerable number of colleges and universities. It is sometimes shown on the time-table to calculate faculty requirement but such periods are seldom engaged. Quantification of this national phenomena may, therefore, turn out to be quite spurious.

c) Laboratory Work : Here too, a large % (67% of college and 54% of university teachers do not spend any time on lab-work). But this can be expected because teachers in arts, social sciences and commerce, i.e., a significant % of the total, are not required to do any lab-work. On the other hand, less than 2 hours, 2-6 hours, 6-8 hours, 9-10 hours, 11 to 15 hours and 16-20 hours were spent on lab-work by 2%, 8%, 3%, 6%, 10% and 4% respectively of the college teachers and 4%, 15%, 6%, 6%, 11% and 5% respectively of the university teachers. The % of male teachers who do not spend any time on lab work is less than that of female teachers in both colleges and universities - 66% of male and 70% of female teachers in colleges and 53% of male and 61% female teachers in universities. Again, the % of teachers not spending any time on lab work declines as we move up the level of position in the case of both colleges and universities.

d) Guiding Research : A very large % of teachers do not spend any time on research guidance - 93% of college and 75% of university teachers. Among the small % of teachers who guided research in colleges, 2.2% and 2.0% of them spent 1-2 hours and 3-5 hours respectively on the performance of this function. In the case of university teachers, 5% each spent 3-5 hours and 6-8 hours respectively; about 3% each spent 1-2 hours and 9-10 hours respectively and 6.3% spent over 11 hours on research-guidance. In both colleges and universities, male teachers spent more time on research-guidance than female teachers although the gap is quite small. In the colleges, the % of teachers who spent time on research-guidance increases as we move up in terms of their level of position but in the universities a larger % of readers spent time on research-guidance as compared to lecturers or professors.

Data are also available on the time spent in the institution each day in addition to teaching work. However, considering that 4 to 5 hours and more than 5 hours were spent by 36% and 40% respectively of the college teachers and 21% and 63% respectively of university teachers, not much reliance can be placed on this data. It seems that many teachers may have misunderstood the question and included the time spent on teaching each day in their responses. Further, as the purpose for which this additional time spent by teachers in the institution each day was utilized has not been indicated, these data are not helpful in determining the relative importance of the various functions of teachers.

The time spent per week on preparing lectures can be considered as part of the time spent by teachers on their teaching function. 33.5% and 14% of the college teachers and 36%, 22% and 13% of the university teachers spent 6-10 hours, 11 to 15 hours and 16 to 20 hours respectively, while 9% of college and 7% of university teachers spent more than 20 hours. 12% each of college and university teachers spent 1 to 5 hours and 5% of college and 8% of university teachers spent no time for preparing lectures. There were no marked difference in this context between teachers of the two sexes or at different levels of the hierarchy.

The time during which the teacher is available every week for removing students' difficulties (presumed to be in relation to their studies although this was not specified in the question) may also be considered to be a part of the time spent by teachers on their teaching function. It is significant that 25% of the college and 31% of the university teachers were not available at all for removing students' difficulties. About 30% each of college and university teachers were available for either 1 to 3 hours or for 4 to 6 hours and around 14% for 7 to 12 hours. There were no marked differences between teachers of the two sexes or at different levels.

The time spent per week by teachers in general studies related to their subject can be considered to be mainly in connection with their teaching function although it may be also indirectly connected with their research function. The available data show that a fairly large % of teachers (40% in colleges, and 37% in universities) spent 6 to 10 hours for this purpose. With respect to the other time-periods, viz., 1 to 5 hours, 11 to 15 hours, 16 to 20 hours and more than 20 hours, we find 22%, 16%, 8% and 5% respectiely of college teachers and 17%, 21%, 8% and 7% respectively of university teachers spent time for the same purpose. There were no marked differences in terms of time spent in general studies ralated to their subject between male and female teachers or between teachers at different levels of position.

The time spent by teachers in evaluation of students' assignments is again related to their teaching function. About 18% each of college and university teachers did not spend any time for this purpose and about a quarter of the teachers spent 1 to 2 hours, another quarter spent 3 to 5 hours and a further quarter spent 6 to 10 hours in evaluating students' assignments in both colleges and universities. There are no marked differences between male and female teachers or between teachers at different levels of position in both colleges and universities. Thus, both college and university teachers seem to spend similar amounts of time on this aspect of their teaching function viz. evaluation of students' assignments.

The time spent per week by teachers on research work or on writing text-books could be considered as related to their research function. There is a significant difference between college and university teachers with respect to this work. About 2/3 rds of the college but only 1/4th of the university teachers did not spend any time on this function. On the other hand, 1 to 5 hours, 6 to 10 hours, 11 to 15 hours, 16 to 20 hours and more than 20 hours were spent on this function by 10%, 10%, 4%, 3% and 2% respectively of the college teachers. Female teachers in both colleges and universities spent less time than male teachers. 63% males and 74% females in

colleges and 20% males and 38% females in universities did not spend any time for this purpose. On the other hand, the % for males is higher than for females in the case of every category of time spent for this purpose. According to the level of position of the teachers, readers spent the most time and lecturers the least, with the professors' time allocation being in between the two.

The time spent per week by the teacher in the reading room/library can be considered relevant to both their teaching and research-functions. Of course, the mix of these two functions would differ between one teacher and another - a greater proportion of such time may generally be spent for teaching than for research by college teachers as compared with university teachers;also, within each group there may be wide variations between one teacher and another. 18% of college and 13% of university teachers spent no time at all in the reading room/libary. As against this, 1-5 hours, 6-10hours, 11-15 hours and 16+ hours were spent by 29%, 34%, 12% and 7% of the teachers - the differences in the % of college and of university teachers being negligible In both colleges and universities, male teachers spent slightly more time than female teachers but there are no marked differences between teachers in different levels of position except for college lecturers, a larger % (18%) of whom did not spend any time as compared with the other groups of teachers.

The time spent daily by the teacher in travelling from his residence to his place of work and back is not related to any particular function of the teacher. It reflects the magnitude of time spent unproductively every day. If the distance between his residence and place of work could be reduced (this would imply that housing is available to teachers near their place of work) and thereby the time spent in travelling to and from work also reduced, it is likely that the teacher would spend more time for his professional deelopment. 16% of the college and 11% of the university teachers lived within walking distance so that they spent only 15 to 30 minutes travelling. As against this, a period of upto one hour, 1 to 2 hours; 2-3 hours and 3 to 4 hours were spent on travelling by 40%, 17, 7% and 3%

respectively of the college teachers and 37%, 16%, 9% and 3% respectively of the university teachers (the remaining teachers did not respond). There is negligible difference in the time spent on travelling between male and female teachers in colleges but, in the universities female teachers spent somewhat more time on travelling than male teachers. Since institutional housing for teachers is generally provided on the basis of seniority, the time spent by teachers on travel generally decreases as we move higher up in the level of position, but the differences are not marked.

Teachers were also asked about their opinion on what % of a teacher's working time should be spent on various activities other than teaching or research - i.e. community service, organisation of examinations (this, however, can be considered as related to their teaching-function), extra-curricular activities, hostel-administration and library-administration. The following table shows that college

Table 1.1

Percentage of Teachers giving opinion about the percentage of working time that should be given to various activities

% of time		Zero	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	20+
Activity							
1. Community Service	C	31	21	25	3	20	-
	U	37	27	24	2	10	-
2. Examination	C	30	20	25	4	11	10
	U	37	27	23	2	7	4
3. Extra-curricular	C	29	19	28	5	13	6
activities	U	36	32	22	3	5	2
4. Hostel Administration	C	52	25	16	2	5	-
	U	58	28	11	1	2	-
5. Library Administration	C	42	25	17	3	7	6
	U	52	28	13	1	3	3

C = College teachers; U = University teachers.

teachers clearly felt that a larger % of a teacher's time should be spent on the various activities than university teachers.

However, in both groups, a fairly large % of teachers felt that no time should be spent on such activities. Male teachers generally felt that somewhat more time should be spent on such activities as compared with female teachers. But there is no clear pattern emerging with respect to teachers distinguished according to the level of position. Perhaps, these findings are in accordance with the actual situation prevailing in colleges and universities at present, viz. college teachers being involved to a greater extent than university teachers and, in both groups, a fairly large % of teachers not devoting any time to such activities.

Evaluation of a Teacher's Work : Empirical findings

While the time spent by teachers on their various functions gives an idea of the kind of work they do, it does not reflect the quality of their performance in the work. Hence, it is important to identify and measure the various qualities which form the basis of the evaluation of a teachers' work. Responses of teachers, students and members of the community are available to the question as to the qualitiesof a good teacher and to their relative importance. However, it is very difficult to generate empirical data on the methods of actual measurement of these qualities in practice.

Teachers' **Response**: The responses of teachers about the various qualities that should be the basis of evaluating the work of a good teacher as also the weightage to be assigned to these give an idea about the perception of the teachers with respect to their career development and how it should be linked with their professional development and work-performance.

The rank order of importance of various qualities for evaluating the work of a good teacher show that the two qualities of 'good

academic record and research-work' and 'human qualities of inspiring/ motivating students towards learning and creative activities' are considered to be more important than the other qualities. The quality of 'good academic record and research-work' is given the 1st rank by 31% if the college and 44% of the university teachers and the 2nd and 3rd ranks by 17% and 15% of the college and slightly lower % of the university teachers. Similarly, the quality of 'inspiring and motivating students' is given the first rank by about 37% of the college and 25% of the university teachers and the 2nd and 3rd ranks by 21% and 15% of the college and 20% each of the university teachers. The two qualities of 'high pedagogic skill' and 'quality of scholarship as reflected in wide reading and critical judgement in the discipline/subject' are given the first rank by a considerably lower % of teachers - 8% of college and 12% of university teachers for the former quality and 13% of college and 9% of university teachers for the latter quality. About 16% each of the college teachers assign the 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th and 6th ranks to both these qualities. In the case of university teachers, the % declines from 27 to 10 as we move from the second to the sixth ranks with respect to 'quality of scholarship', while the % is around 16% for all the 5 ranks with respect to high pedagogical skills. Finally, about 1.7% of the college and 0.9% of the university teachers, i.e., a very low % gave the first rank to the quality of 'organisational abilities for better and more effective management of the institution and extra-curricular activities'. The % of teachers who gave 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th and 6th ranks steadily increases from 11% to 22% for college and 6% to 30% for university teachers. In the case of the quality of 'deep interest in the application of knowledge and extending it to the community— 'extension work', about 5% of the college and 3.5% of the university teachers assigned it the 1st rank. For the 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th and 6th ranks the % of teachers increases from 15 to 22 in the case of college and from 13 to 21 in the case of universities.

The relative importance attached by teachers to the various qualities as indicated by the ranks mentioned above is also corroborated by the percentage weights assigned by teachers to various

selection/promotion criteria. 'Academic record' is given more weightage by college than university teachers while the reverse is true for 'research contribution'. For 'academic record', a weightage of 21-40% and 41-60% (the two categories together accounting for about 2/3rd of the teachers) is given by 23% and 36% respectively of the college teachers and 34% and 29% respectively of the university teachers. On the other hand, for research contribution, a weightage of 0-5% and 6-10% is given by 38% and 29% respectively of the college and 17% and 16% respectively of the university teachers (i.e., 2/3rd of college and 1/3rd of university teachers are to be found in these two categories). Further, the weightage of 11-20% and 20-40% is given by 18% and 9% respectively of college teachers but by 30% and 27% respectively of university teachers. The greater importance attached to the criterion of 'research contribution' by university teachers, as compared to college teachers, is thus clearly evident from the data.

As regards the other criteria, as shown in the table below, a fairly large % of both college and university teachers do not assign any weightage to them.

Table No. 1.2

Weightage to selection/promotion criteria assigned by teachers

Criteria	Weightage	Zero		1-5		6-10		11-20	
	(in %)	Col.	Univ.	Col.	Univ.	Col.	Univ.	Col.	Univ.
1. Innovation in teaching methods		22.8	22.3	14.3	14.6	29.1	34.7	19.3	16.9
2. Extension work		44.1	39.6	32.0	31.2	18.4	20.0	2.5	4.2
3. Commitment to the profession		23.8	22.9	16.2	18.3	24.0	28.0	16.2	13.3
4. Administrative duties		35.2	38.6	31.9	35.4	217	18.1	4.0	3.1
5. Guidance of extra-curricular activities		30.1	37.5	319	379	24.6	17.6	5.8	2.7

This is particularly true of 'extension work', 'administrative duties' and 'guidance of extra-curricular activities'. Over 1/3rd of the college and university teachers give a weightage of zero to these functions. Among the teachers who assign some weightage to these only less than 5% them assign more than 10% weightage to but a larger % (about 16 to 20%) assign this weightage to the other two criteria, viz., 'innovations in teaching methods' and 'commitment to the profession'. A larger % of teachers (about 1/3rd) give a weightage of 1-5% to each of the former group of 3 criteria as compared to the latter group of 2 criteria, while for the weightage of 6-10% the reverse is true. There is no significant difference in the % of the college and university teachers assigning weights to the various criteria except for the criterion of 'guidance of extra-curricular activities' which college teachers clearly regard to be more important than university teachers.

As regards the various forms of assessment of a teacher's work a weightage of less than 10% was given to: (a) academic head's assessment by 71% and 82% of the college and university teachers respectively; (b) peer assessment by 57% and 54% of the college and university teachers respectively; (c) students' assessment by 41% and 37% of the college and university teachers respectively and (d) self-assessment by 32% and 28% of the college and university teachers respectively. As against this, a weightage of 21-40% and 41-60% was given by: (a) about half the teachers in both colleges and universities to self-assessment (about 25% each to the 2 groups); (b) about 41% of college and the university teachers to students' assessment (about 25%) and 16% respectively to the two groups); (c) about a quarter of the college and university teachers to peer assessment (about 20% and 5% respectively to the two groups) (d) less than 20% of the college and less than 10% of the university teachers to academic head's assessment. It is clear that teachers gave more importance to self-assessment than to other forms of assessment, and that confidence in the assessment of the academic head was

particularly low.

Students' Response : The ranks assigned by students to different qualities of a good teacher in the order of their importance may also provide a basis for the evaluation of a teacher's work and career development. The 11 qualities ranked by students are: devotion to duty, willingness to assist students in the resolution of their difficulties, deep concern about students' welfare, impartiality in assessment of students, good research-work, continuous updating of knowledge, keen interest in extra-curricular and extension work, regularity and punctuality, paying attention to students irrespectivve of their social/caste background and sympathy along with strictness in maintenance of discipline. About 15% of the 1779 college students and about 16% of the 335 university students, however, did not respond to this question.

As shown in Tables A1.1 and A1.2 in the appendix, the first quality, viz., devotion to duty, is considered to be most important by both college and university students. The 1st, 2nd, and 3rd ranks were assigned to this quality by 36%, 11% and 9% respectively of the college students and 41%, 10% and 8% of the university students. Perhaps, this quality summarizes in a way all the other qualities of which are given high ranks by a large % of either college or university teachers. Hence the high rank given to it is not surprising. Among the other qualites which were given relatively higher ranks by a relatively larger % of the students are those which are directly related to the students themselves e.g., willingness to assist students, deep concern about students' welfare, and impartiality in assessment of students. The quality of good research work is given relatively lower ranking by a larger % of both college and university students. On the other hand, continuous updating of knowledge is given relatively higher ranking by a larger % of both college and university students. Surprisingly, keen interest in extra-curricular and extension work received low ranking (only 10% of college and 7% of university students assigned the first three ranks put together) from both college and university students. Perhaps, the

generally low participation of students in such work at present in both colleges and universities is reflected in their considering this quality to be relatively unimportant.

Community Members' Response : Ranks were also assigned by community members contacted by the sample colleges and universities to different qualities of a good teacher. This may also provide some clues to the proper evaluation of a teacher's work. The 7 qualities ranked by the community members are: good academic record, quest for knowledge and search for excellence, rapport with students, commitment to national values, aptitude for extension and application, devotion to duty, and finally, modesty and humility. About 8% of the 217 community members contacted by the universities and about 12% of the 1441 community members contacted by the colleges did not respond in each case. For the sake of convenience, the community members contacted by universities will be referred to as Group I, while those contacted by colleges will be referred to as Group II.

As shown in Tables A1.3 and A1.4 in the Appendix, both groups of community members assigned the most importance to the two qualities of 'devotion to duty' and 'good academic record'. Thus, the first, second and third ranks were assigned to 'devotion to duty' by 29%, 19% and 16% respectively of Group I and 33%, 22% and 16% respectively of Group II. Again, the first, second and third ranks were assigned to 'good academic record' by 29%, 14% and 14% respectively of the Group I and 26%, 19% and 12% of the Group II community members. The quality of 'quest for knowledge and search for excellence' was also assigned relatively high ranks (although lower than the above two qualities). Thus, the first, second, third and fourth ranks were assigned by 20%,21%, 16%, and 16% respectively of the Group I community members and 17%, 18%, 18% and 14% respectively of the Group IIcommunity members. The other four qualities were assigned relatively lower ranks, as compared with the above three qualities, by both groups of community-members. What is surprising, however, is that the quality of 'aptitude for extension and application' was given the lowest ranking by both groups of community-members - i.e., the first, second

and third ranks were assigned by 5%, 7% and 9% respectively of Group I and 3%, 5% and 10% respectively of the Group II community members. While, on the one hand, this is the quality which reflects most the involvement of the teachers with community-members, yet, on the other hand, this quality was considered the least important by the community-members. Perhaps, the present lack of involvement of teachers with members of the community in terms of extension work and application of their knowledge is reflected in the low ranking given to this quality by community members.

FOOTNOTES

1. See Committee on Higher Education : Higher Education Appendix Three : Teachers in Higher Education, HMSO, London, 1963, pp.53-54.

2. As pointed out by the Robbins Committee "Undue reliance on lecturers often delivered with too little consideration of the needs and capacity of the audience" is a complaint even in British higher education. See the main Report p.186.

3. Widespread evidence of this conflict is available for several countries. See, for example, S.G. Hiremath's study (Patterns of Career Mobility) for Australian academics; Donald Light's paper ("Thinking about faculty" Daedalus, Fall 1974, Vol.I) referring to US faculty members (this paper in turn cities several other studies referring to the same conflict); The Robbins Committee recognized the existence of this conflict to some extent even in Britain - See page 184 of their main Report.

4. The Robbins Committee Report (p.184) emphasizes the need for giving a wider connotation to the term 'research'. Again M. Trow and O.Fulton in "Research Activity in American HigherEducation",in Martin Trow(ed), Teachers and students, McGraw Hill, 1975 point out that while publication is an important indicator of research activity, it is by no means the sole one.

5. Thus, the Robbins Committee found that it was the amount of administration, which is the main feature that distinguishes between various grades of teachers in British higher education. See Appendix III of their Report, p. 57.

6. See the Carnegie Foundation for Advancem f Teaching, A Digest of Reports of the Carnegie Commission on r Education, McGraw Hill, 1974, p. 121.

7. See the recent Report of the Committee to enquire into the Governance of Central Universities, Annexure VIII.

APPENDIX

Table No. A 1.1
Rank order of qualities of a good teacher assigned by college students (Percentages)

	Rank 1	Rank 2	Rank 3	Rank 4	Rank 5	Rank 6	Rank 7	Rank 8	Rank 9	Rank 10	Rank 11	No Rsp	Total No. of students
1. Devotion to duty	36	11	9	8	5	5	4	3	2	2	3	14	1779
2. Willing to assist students	11	13	11	10	8	8	7	7	5	5	2	15	1779
3. Deep concern about students' welfare	8	12	10	8	8	6	8	7	7	6	6	15	1779
4. Impartial in assessing students	6	9	8	10	8	8	8	7	8	6	6	16	1779
5. Good research worker	3	5	5	5	8	9	7	7	8	9	18	16	1779
6. Update knowledge continuously	9	12	13	10	10	8	7	5	4	4	2	14	1779
7. Equip with wide-ranging knowledge	4	7	8	9	9	8	8	9	9	9	6	15	1779
8. Keen interest in extra curricular work	2	3	5	6	7	7	8	12	10	12	11	17	1779
9. Regularity & punctuality	6	7	9	8	8	8	8	8	9	8	6	15	1779
10. Pay attention to students irrespective of their social caste background	3	4	6	4	7	10	8	9	11	11	12	16	1779
11. Be sympathetic but strict in mantaining discipline	4	7	7	7	9	8	10	8	8	9	7	15	1779

Table No. A 1.2

Rank order of qualities of a good teacher assinged by university students (percentages)

	Rank 1	Rank 2	Rank 3	Rank 4	Rank 5	Rank 6	Rank 7	Rank 8	Rank 9	Rank 10	Rank 11	No Rsp	Total No. of students
1. Devotation to duty	41	10	8	5	3	6	4	2	3	-	2	15	335
2. Willingness to assist students	11	17	9	10	11	4	9	5	5	3	3	15	335
3. Deep concern about students' welfare	6	6	10	5	9	10	7	13	9	5	4	16	335
4. Impartiality in assessing students	8	11	9	9	6	7	9	7	6	6	5	17	335
5. Good research workers	5	5	5	6	8	6	7	5	8	12	16	17	335
6. Update knowledge continuously	10	16	15	9	7	9	6	4	6	3	2	15	335
7. Equip with wide-ranging knowledge	2	7	9	14	7	9	9	8	8	6	6	16	335
8. Keen interest in extra curricular work	1	2	4	5	7	5	8	9	14	16	11	17	335
9. Regularity & punctuality	2	6	6	10	9	8	9	8	11	9	7	16	335
10. Pay attention to students irrespective of their social caste background	2	2	7	5	8	8	8	11	9	11	13	17	335
11. Be sympathetic but strict in maintaining discipline	3	5	8	8	9	11	8	10	5	9	10	16	335

Table A1.3

Percentage of group I community members assigning various ranks to the qualities of a good teacher

	Rank1	Rank2	Rank3	Rank4	Rank5	Rank6	Rank7	NORSP	TOTAL No. of Teachers
1. Good Academic Record	26.4	19.3	12.4	10.1	8.3	6.5	6.8	10.1	1440
2. Quest for Knowledge and search for excellence	17.1	18.4	18.0	13.5	10.6	8.1	3.5	10.8	1441
3. Rapport with Students	6.6	10.1	13.7	17.3	16.9	13.4	10.3	11.9	1440
4. Commitment to National Values	5.1	6.0	11.0	12.5	16.5	21.6	14.2	13.0	1438
5. Aptitude for Extension and Application	2.9	5.0	9.6	12.1	14.5	18.0	23.6	14.4	1441
6. Devotion to Duty	33.2	21.5	15.5	9.1	5.7	3.8	2.0	9.2	1441
7. Modesty and Humanity	4.0	10.6	12.3	13.2	12.7	12.6	21.5	13.0	1439

Table A1.4

Percentage of group II Community Members assigning various ranks to the qualities of a good teacher

	Rank1	Rank2	Rank3	Rank4	Rank5	Rank6	Rank7	NORSP	TOTAL No. of Teachers
1. Good Academic Record	29.0	14.3	13.8	12.4	8.8	5.5	6.9	8.8	216
2. Quest for Knowledge and Search for Excellence	18.9	20.7	15.7	16.1	10.6	9.2	2.3	6.5	217
3. Rapport with Students	7.4	18.4	22.1	11.1	16.1	8.8	8.8	7.4	217
4. Commitment to National Values	3.7	6.0	12.4	11.5	12.4	20.7	23.0	10.1	217
5. Aptitude for Extension and Application	4.6	6.9	8.8	14.3	17.1	24.0	15.7	8.8	217
6. Devotion to Duty	28.6	18.9	15.7	14.3	9.7	4.6	1.8	6.5	217
7. Modesty and Humility	2.8	7.4	16.6	11.1	12.9	13.8	25.4	10.1	217

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS

Some General Issues

Since the work of the teacher in present-day higher education is a highly challenging one, it is necessary that the profession should attract academics of a high quality. The present procedure of selecting teachers, especially as lecturers, - a crucial entry-point for teachers in higher education - on the basis of their post-graduate examination performance and an interview of a few minutes is quite inadequate for the purpose. Considering the fact that teachers once recruited cannot be removed easily if found unsuitable, it is necessary to devise better recruitment procedures.

It should be ensured that the entrants to the teaching profession are prepared for the tasks they have been recruited to undertake. It has been shown that a large proportion of these entrants hold a master's degree. The master's degree courses, however, provide only subject-matter knowledge to the student. Even if he pursues his studies for an M.Phil or a Ph.D. degree - which in recent years is often taken as an essential pre-requisite for joining the profession - the emphasis continues to be on subject matter of a sub-discipline.

The pre-service education of teachers needs to be modified so that they would be better-trained for their functions, especially the important one of teaching, which they would perform after entering the profession. Thus, at the level of the master's degree course itself, a few courses which are specifically related to teacher-training could be offered as optionals to those students who would like to enter the teaching profession later on. Again, doctoral students could have some actual experience in teaching as in the case of teacher assistants in the U.S.A. and as is required by the UGC in the case of junior-fellowship holders. It has even been suggested that "the use of the doctor of arts degree with emphasis on a broader subject-matter training and on supervised teaching experience should be extended as an alternative to the Ph.D. for faculty members who will be engaged

primarily in teaching".[1] This does not necessarily mean that a full-fledged training course for teachers in higher education is as essential as for school teachers.[2] At the same time, it should not be taken to imply that no training at all is necessary for teachers in higher education. Very few of them are "born teachers" who can dispense with training. For the large majority, some amount of training could be given so that they can function satisfactorily.

Apart from the possibility of imparting some training before the teacher enters the profession, there should also be a possibility for training a teacher after he joins the profession preferably in the very first year. As suggested by both the Kothari and Sen Commissions, the full load of teaching work should not be thrust on a teacher who has just joined the profession. For a period of, say, one year, he should be given enough opportunities to get suitably oriented to his profession. He must be given the opportunity to enrich his understanding of the subject-matter related to the syllabus assigned to him, to plan his lectures and equip himself with necessary pedagogic skills with the help of consultations with senior teachers or by attending workshops and seminars specifically geared for this purpose. The possibility of a formal post-induction programme of training and advanced studies spread over a year or so should be explored. This should cover the subject of specialisation, inter-disciplinary elements, pedagogic skills, the value system and linguistic ability. Faculty members from linguistic areas, other than the one where appointment has been made, should be given adequate training so that they are able to conduct classes in the regional language as well. In the light of the fact that the post-induction arrangement would be made for training in linguistic skills, the knowledge of the language of the area should not be made a pre-condition for appointment. It is the absence of such opportunities which generally results in a situation where in the new teacher is forced to copy mechanically the methods and procedure adopted by his own teachers and inflict them on his students so that the dull pointless tradition of "giving lectures" and dictating notes is passed on from generation to generation.[3] The one year period of intensive

training after entering the profession, if it is in the nature of a probationary period could also serve as a basis for determining whether the teacher is suitable for being retained in the profession.

Considering that a teacher is likely to spend the entire span of his working life in the same profession, he would find it difficult to cope with what is expected of him over the years when far-reaching changes in society necessitate far-reaching changes in the education system. Unless the teacher continues to develop professionally throughout his working life, he cannot remain effective in his work.

Life-long, recurrent or in-service education of the teacher is a must for his professional development and sufficient opportunities should be made available for it. At present, such opportunities tend to emphasize the narrow academic discipline of the teacher. Thus, seminars/conferences/workshops/summer institutes as also the M.Phil or Ph.D. programmes in which a teacher can participate, at present, are generally of a specialized nature which may enhance his knowledge of a specific aspect of his subject[4] but are quite inadequate to enable him to function effectively in the various areas of his work e.g., teachers should also be provided with skills for effective administration especially at higher-level positions of teachers, improved instructional methods, developing the kind of attitudes and skills opportunities for extension-work and for helping students to develop their integrated personality through participation in extra-curricular activities.[5]

The provision of such facilities for professional development of the teacher has to be made both at the level of his own institutions as also at higher levels e.g., at the level of the university or the state. In the institution itself, a teacher must be given adequate time, secretarial and technical assistance, space and good library facilities to help him pursue professional development. Good library facilities would go a long way to help in the proessional development of teachers as they would be able to at least keep abreast of changes in subject-matter.

Since the capacity of an individual institution to provide adequate facilities for the professional development of its teachers is bound to be limited, setting up centres for professional development atthe university level or at least at the state level for teachers of different subjects, would be of great help. Thus, the suggestion of the Mathur Committee for the setting up of 'academic resource centres' as also the suggestion by the Indian Society for Technical Education (ISTE) in their recent report submitted to the NCT II for setting up 'Centres of Excellence in Engineering Teaching' is along these lines.[6]

Provision of facilities for professional development of teachers, by itself will not ensure that the teacher will automatically make use of them. It has been pointed out that teachers often do not make use of the existing facilities for professional development.[7] This may be partly due to the fact that the facilities are not always related to the actual work situation of the teacher. Thus, for example, if a teacher finds that he is not able to incorporate an increased knowledge of his subject into his teaching because of the rigid syllabus he has to follow in the affiliated college system[8], his motivation to improve his knowledge would be reduced. Even if the teacher utilizes the facilities and develops his professional competence over a certain period of time, the motivation for doing so on a continuous basis is greatly influenced by the availability of adequate career development opportunities to reward him in a commensurate manner for his efforts at professional development.[9]

Means of Professional Development of Teachers : Empirical Findings

Considering that teachers are called upon to perform various functions, it is important that they develop their professional competence with reference to these functions. The responses of teachers to the questionnaire indicate some of the means for attaining professional development, some measures of the level of professional development attained by teachers as also the facilities (own and

institutional) conducive to their professional development. It is to be noted that the the research-function of teachers is often given the highest priority is also reflected in the fact that the available data largely refers to the professional development of teachers in so far as it relates to their research-function.

Means of Professional Development : Some of the means for enabling teachers to develop their professional competence, about which data is available from the questionnaire, include the following : availing of study-leave, participation in seminars, summer schools/workshops, training programmes, and research projects.

As indicated in the table below, the data bring out strikingly the large % of teachers who have never made use of the various means to develop their professional competence. The situation at the college-level is much worse than at the university-level with respect to the non-utilization of most of these means by the teachers, i.e. in every case, a larger % of college teachers have not made use of the various means to develop their professional competence as compared to the university teachers.

In both colleges and universities, however, the % of teachers not utilizing the various means generally decreases as we move from a lower-level to a higher-level of position.

TABLE No. II.1

% of Teachers not Utiliziang the means of Professional Development*

	Lecturers		Readers		Professors		All Teachers	
	Col.	Univ.	Col.	Univ.	Col.	Univ.	Col.	Univ.
1. Participation in Seminars	58.7 (97.9)	28.6 (96.2)	40.3 (94.8)	19.8 (90.4)	42.0 (94.9)	14.6 (75.5)	55.9 (97.5)	24.0 (91.5)
2. Participation in Summer Schools Workshops	70.2 (99.9)	45.6 (99.6)	48.6 (99.7)	38.7 (99.5)	42.5 (99.6)	35.9 (97.6)	66.7 (99.9)	42.0 (99.3)
3. Participation in Training Programmes	82.0 (99.9)	69.3 (99.9)	65.6 (99.4)	64.6 (99.9)	61.3 (99.8)	78.1 (99.1)	79.4 (99.8)	67.7 (99.9)
4. Availing of Study Leave	78.8 (89.1)	80.9 (94.1)	64.7 (92.3)	63.4 (92.7)	64.6 (91.8)	60.2 (97.9)	76.7 (89.4)	72.3 (94.2)
5. Participation in Research Projects	67.0 (82.2)	43.5 (87.3)	42.4 (83.0)	27.0 (88.3)	48.2 (86.5)	13.4 (93.0)	64.0 (82.3)	33.9 (88.4)

* Figs. in brackets show % of teachers who actually provided information on whether or not the various means for professional development were utilized.

Among the few teachers who participated in the various means of professional development, many of them, particularly in the colleges, did so just once or twice. However, a larger % of the university teachers as compared to the college teachers participated a larger number of times in the various means of professional development. Similarly, the % of teachers participating a larger number of times in the various means of professional development increased with the level of their position both in the universities and the colleges. (See Tables A II.1 to A II.3 in the Appendix)

When teachers are distinguished on the basis of some other characteristics, we find that in the case of college-teachers, the extent of non-participation in the various means of professional development decreased with the size of the population settlements in which they were located, particularly with respect to seminar participation, e.g., the % of non-participants in size I settlements was 73% for seminars, 72% of summer schools/workshops, 84% for training programmes, 85% for research projects, and 86% for study leave, whereas in size IV settlements, the corresponding % figures are 39%, 60%, 77% and 85% respectively. This can be expected from the fact that the provision of these means is generally made to a greater extent in the bigger as compared with the smaller settlements. Again a larger % of female teachers did not avail of the various means as compared to the male teachers, particularly with respect to summer schools/workshops research-projects and training programmes (the difference in % points between non-participating male and female teachers being 12, 8 and 6 respectively) than with respect to study leave or seminars (the difference in % points being 2,6 and 4 respectively). Further, teachers in government colleges generally showed somewhat higher extent of non-participation than those in other types of colleges. Similarly, teachers in the non-professional academic-streams showed greater extent of non-participation than in the professional streams, e.g., 55% vs 35% for seminars, 70% vs 40% for summer schools/workshops, 80% vs 61% for training programmes, 90% vs 75% for study-leave and 8% vs 50% for research-projects (the various figures are a somewhat rough approximation because of the differences between academic-streams within the two groups of non-professional and professional streams themselves). As expected, in most cases, permanent teachers showed the least extent of non-participation as compared with ad hoc or temporary teachers. Similarly, as expected, deprived sections (i.e., SC/ST/BC) had the highest extent of non-participation in all cases, as compared with the non-deprived sections of teachers although the differences are not very large, e.g., 65% vs 54% for seminars, 70% vs 65% for summer schools/workshops, 82% vs 80% for training programmes, 92% vs 87% or study-leave and 89% v 81% for research-projects. As total experience

and age increase, there is generally no continuous decline in the % of non-participating teachers. The lowest extent of non-participation in many cases is for teachers of 45-50 years of age or with 16-20 years of experience after which there is a slight increase. The state-wise comparison of college teachers (see Tables A 11.4 to A 11.8 in the Appendix) does not indicate any clear patterns but it shows the wide disparities prevailing between teachers in different states.

In the case of university teachers, the % of female teachers who did not participate in the various means of professional development is slightly larger than of male teachers - e.g., 27% vs 23% for seminars, 44% vs 41% for summer schools/workshops, 70% vs 60% for training programmes, 85% vs 77% for study leave, and 57% vs 43% for research projects, the male/female gap is more and, for the other three means, the gap is less for university teachers than for college teachers. In terms of academic streams, also, teachers in non-professional streams generally had higher extent of non-participation than in professional streams - the exception being wherein teachers had somewhat less non-participation for seminars and summer schools/ workshops. Similarly, as in the case of colleges, permanent teachers and the non-deprived sections of teachers in universities had the least extent of non-participation as compared with the ad hoc or temporary teachers and deprived sections of teachers respectively. In terms of total experience and age, the lowest extent of non-participation by university teachers is sometimes preponed by 5 years when compared with college teachers. The university-wise comparison of university-teachers (See Table A 11.9 to A 11.13 in the Appendix) does not indicate any clear patterns but it shows the wide disparities prevailing between teachers in different universities.

Table A 11.14 in the Appendix indicates the % of college and university teachers receiving funds from various agencies for their research projects. One reason for the low participation in research-projects by teachers could be the very limited funds available for such projects. The extremely low percentage of both college and

university teachers whose research projects were financed by the various agencies is clearly shown in the table.

While each of these means (except the participation in a research project) could theoretically be used to develop the professional competence of teachers with reference to their various functions, what actually happens in practice is that these means are mainly geared for the research-fuction. Thus, e.g.the data on the purpose for which study leave was utilised indicates that a large majority (3/4th each of college and university teachers) of the few teachers who availed of study leave used it for research-purposes while a small minority (7% of college and 10% of university teachers) used it for writing purposes. Hardly any (0.5% of college and 2% of university teachers) teachers took study leave for developing teaching materials which would perhaps, more than their writing or research have been directly linked to their teaching-function.

Measures of the Level of Professional Development of Teachers : Empirical Findings

The highest qualification which has been obtained by a teacher is one indication of the level of his professional development. Data on the % of teachers with M.Phil and Ph.D. indicate that a small % had M.Phil while a larger % had Ph.D. as their highest qualification, particularly in the universities. Thus, in colleges 7% and 17% have M.Phil and Ph.D. respectively, while in universities, the respective percentages are 5 and 61. The teachers having these qualifications mostly obtained them during the course of their employment. Thus, 5% of college and 3% of university teachers obtained M.Phil while 13% of college and 47% of university teaches obtained Ph.D. during the course of their employment. On the other hand 2% each of college and university teachers obtained M.Phil while 4% of college and 14% of university teachers obtained Ph.D. before joining their jobs. A larger % of females obtained M.Phil than males in both colleges and universities (9% vs 6% in colleges and 8% vs 5% in universities) while the reverse is true for Ph.D. (17% vs 18% in colleges and 48% vs 66%

in universities). The % of teachers having Ph.D. increases with their level of position in the universities - i..e. 49% for lecturers, 77% for readers and 87% for professors. In the colleges, however, the % is highest for readers (42%) and lowest for lecturers (15%) with professors in between (27%).

Considering that teachers in universities are called upon to perform the research-function to a much greater extent than the college teachers, it is not surprising to find the large difference in the % of teachers with Ph.D. as their highest qualification between the two groups of college and university teachers. This is also in keeping with the fact that the existing Ph.D. programmes are geared to research training only rather than also providing training for other functions of teachers e.g., teaching. If teachers are required to improve, their qualifications should take account of the various functions they are actually required to perform instead of concentrating on only one of them.

Publications : The data available on the number of publications in terms of papers in learned journals, popular articles in magazines/ newspapers, standard textbooks and other academic books also indicates the level of professional development of teachers. Most college teachers do not have any type of publication to their credit and quite a large % of even the university teachers do not have any publications, except for papers in learned journals, to their credit. The following table indicates that in the case of every type of publication the % of teachers without any publications to their credit is always less for university teachers than for college teachers. The data also indicates that the % of teachers without any publications declines as we move up the level of their position in the case of universities i.e. the % is the highest for lecturers and the lowest for professors. However, in the case of colleges, although the % is highest for lecturers, it is generally the lowest for readers rather than for professors. It can also be noted that the % differences between the various levels of position are always much greater for university than for college teachers.

TABLE No. II.2

% of Teachers without any Publications to Their Credit*

	Lecturers		Readers		Professors		All Teachers	
	Col.	Univ.	Col.	Univ.	Col.	Univ.	Col.	Univ.
1. Papers in Learned Journals	79.1 (98.2)	32.9 (97.1)	44.9 (95.4)	13.6 (85.6)	58.6 (90.0)	8.2 (63.5)	75.5 (97.4)	23.5 (88.4)
2. Popular Articles in Magazines/ Newspapers	82.0 (97.3)	60.5 (95.9)	60.1 (97.6)	42.9 (93.8)	72.6 (96.9)	31.0 (89.7)	79.8 (97.1)	50.8 (94.5)
3. Standard Text-Books	92.7 (98.3)	88.9 (97.3)	90.0 (99.8)	76.5 (96.9)	85.2 (99.6)	62.3 (96.3)	91.6 (98.5)	81.0 (97.1)
4. Other Academic Books	93.1 (98.3)	86.8 (98.7)	86.0 (99.1)	69.6 (97.9)	87.6 (98.8)	56.8 (97.2)	92.2 (98.5)	77.0 (98.3)

* Figures in brackets show % of teachers who actually provided information on whether or not they had any publications to their credit.

Tables AII.15 to AII.26 in the Appendix show the % of the college and university teachers (distinguished according to various characteristics) with various number and types of publications to their credit. Amongst the few teachers who have published standard

textbooks or other academic books most of them do not have more than fiveto their credit, both in colleges and in universities.

In the case of number of published papers in learned jourals and popular articles in magazines/newspapers, a large % of college teachers do not have more than 1o to their credit, while a large % of university teachers do not have more than 2o to their credit.

College teachers always have fewer publications to their credit than university teachers at each of the 3 levels of position. In the case of university teachers, the number of publications increases with the level of position i.e. professors have the highest and lecturers the lowest number ofpublications to their credit with readers lying in between. However, in the case of college teachers, readers generally did better than professors who in turn did better than lecturers in terms of the number of publications to their credit. University-wise and state-wise disparities between university and college teahers respectively are also quite marked.

The number of publications, however, is only a rough indicator of the research-output of teachers. The quality of such publications is even more important than their number when considering the contribution of teachers to the generation of knowledge through research. In view of the fact that such a small % of teachers, particularly in the colleges and at the lecturer-level have any publications to their credit, irrespective of their quality, shows that their level of professional development with respect to their fuction of generation of knowledge is rather low. Hence, this measure of number of publications alone cannot be all that important a basis for career development of teachers. As pointed out above, other functions of teachers and the level of professional development with respect to them should also be given their due importance.

Research guidance and examinerships . As in the case of the number of publications, a very small % of teachers have acted as examiners for M.Phil/Ph.D or have supervised M.Phil/Ph.D students in the past or even at present.

In colleges, over 95% of the teachers have neither acted as M.Phil/Ph.D examiners nor had any students securing M.Phil or Ph.D under their supervision. However, at present about 85% of the teachers are not guiding research students, so that a slightly larger % of teachers are involved in research guidance. The number of M Phil or Ph.D examinerships, past research students or the research students being guided at present generally does not exced 5 in number in each case for the small % of the college teachers involved in research guidance and examinerships.

Even in the case of universities, a large % of the teachers in the past did not act as M.Phil/Ph.D examiners (68.5%) or supervise students who secured Ph.D (76.3%) or M.Phil (78.9%) At present, however, only 43% of the teachers, are not guiding research-students. Among the teachers who were involved in research-guidance or examinerships, a large % of the university teachers as compared with college teachers did so a larger number of times i.e. 6-1o times and sometimes even 11-2o times, unlike the 1-5 times for colege teachers, as mentioned above.

Lecturers in both colleges and universities are mostly not involved in such activities. A much higher % of lecturers as compared with readers and professors never guided research students in the past or even at present or acted as examiners for M.Phil/Ph.D in the universities, professors in all cases were involved in such activities to a much greater extent than readers but this situation does not always obtain in the colleges i.e. a larger % of readers than of Professors guide research students at present and have supervised students who secured M.Phil while the opposite is true for examinership of M.Phil/Ph.D and the numer of supervised students who secured Ph.D.

What is important to note when comparing between university and college teachers is that, apart from the larger % among university teachers involved in such activities the extent of difference in the % of teachers between one level of position and the next is much wider among university teachers than among college teachers. This can be seen from the fact that in each case while in the colleges in each case there is generally less than 10% difference between lecturers and readers and professors, in the universities, as shown in the table below, this difference is generally 20% to 30% or more.

Table II.3

Research guidance and examinership by teachers according to their designation (Figures in % terms)

		Lecturers				Readers				Professors			
	*U/C	Nil	1-5	6-10	10+	Nil	1-5	6-10	10+	Nil	1-5	6-10	10+
1) M.Phil/Ph.D. examinership	U	89	9	1	1	57	31	7	4	18	29	24	24
	C	97	1	0	0	84	14	2	1	81	11	4	3
2) Supervised students who secured Ph.D.	U	94	5	0	0	68	27	4	1	30	45	17	8
	C	97	1	0	0	89	7	2	0	88	8	2	1
3) Supervised students who secured M.Phil	U	89	10	1	1	72	18	8	1	56	21	12	8
	C	98	0	0	0	92	7	1	0	94	2	1	2
4) No. of reseaach students being guided at present	U	63	32	2	1	25	59	13	3	10	52	26	12
	C	88	5	1	0	68	28	3	1	68	19	3	2

*U = University teachers, C = College teachers

While research-guidance and examinerships are considered as important fuctions of teachers, particularly in the universities, the above data clearly shows that even at the level of professor, not all teachers are involved in them. The question then arises whether such involvement which has not always been insisted on in the past should now be made as an essential basis for career development of teachers.

Facilities conducive to professional development of teachers : Empirical Findings

Facilities at work : The working facilities available to teachers in their institutions obviously affect their work-performance and professional development. As shown in the table below, it is clear that a large % of the teachers, particularly in the colleges, do not have such facilities.

Table II.4

% of teachers who have various working facilities

Facilities available in the institution	College teachers	University teachers
1. Separate room/cabin	24.7	64.2
2. Lab facilities	35.0	50.5
3. Locker/Almirah	56.6	71.9
4. Secretarial Facilities	9.3	22.0
5. Telephone	18.0	25.6
6. Research/Technical assistance	7.6	19.9
7. Computer facilities	4.1	27.6
8. Xeroxing facilities	7.2	30.2
9. Contingency Allowance for research	8.2	28.2

While each of the various types of working facilities are available to a small extent for the college teachers at all 3 levels of position, their availability to lecturers is particularly less than to readers and professors between whom there is not much difference. In the universities, on the other hand, although the working facilities are available to a much greater extent than in colleges, there is a clear difference in the availability between teachers at one level of position and the next. Generally, the gap between readers and professors is much wider than between lecturers and readers.

It is interesting to note that even in the opinion of the members of the community contacted by the sample colleges and universities, teachers have clearly inadequate facilities for their work. Only 32% of the members of the community opined that the facilities were adequate while 65% opined that they were inadequate (3% did not respond).

Considering that the availability of working facilities is so poor, the question remains: to what extent can teachers, who are not even provided requisite working facilities, be expected to function well or be encouraged to develop professionally? It is obviously necessary to allot funds for the provision of various working facilities since it is a priority as much, if not more than, the funding of research.

Own Facilities : Certain facilities which are in the nature of consumer durable items owned by teachers not only reflect their status but are also considered necessary for their efficiency at work. The table on the following page indicates that a very small % of teachers own status symbols like video and air-conditioner and consider them necessary for efficiency at work. While a slightly higher % of teachers own a car or a cooler, these items too are considered to be more necessary for status than for efficiency at work. In the case of all other items, a higher % of teachers consider them necessary for efficiency at work than for status. TV is the only item for which the

reverse is true. Except for a personal library, which, however does not contain many books, the % of teachers owning the various other items is quite low both in the colleges and in the universities. It is important to note that the % of teachers who considered the various items necessary for efficiency at work is always higher than the % of teachers possessing such items. This is true in spite of the fact that the % of teachers not responding to the question: whether the various items are necessary for work efficiency and for status is quite high, whereas the % of teachers not responding to the question whether or not they possessed various items is negligible for each item (Hence it was not shown as a separate column in the table).

Table No. 11.5

% of teachers who possessed various facilities and considered them necessary for work-efficiency and for status

Facility	Possession by teachers		Necessary for efficiency		Necessary for status		Necessary for both		No response	
	College	Univ	College	Univ.	College	Univ.	College	Univ.	College	Univ.
1. House	38.0	36.9	27.0	29.5	16.7	16.4	32.7	27.1	23.6	27.0
2. Car	6.4	10.3	8.9	13.2	31.5	27.4	12.2	14.7	47.4	44.7
3. Scooter	30.5	40.2	34.8	42.3	8.2	3.9	17.0	11.5	40.0	42.3
4. Bicycle	37.0	34.1	22.3	25.8	2.8	1.6	3.0	1.9	71.9	70.7
5. Air-conditioner	1.8	2.4	8.7	11.2	23.5	21.1	6.7	6.4	61.1	61.3
6. Cooler	10.4	11.8	16.3	20.4	16.5	12.6	7.2	5.6	60.0	61.4
7. T.V.	24.2	35.8	18.9	18.3	25.9	28.0	14.5	9.4	40.7	45.3
8. Video	1.9	2.3	5.7	5.2	25.8	27.5	5.2	3.3	63.3	64.0
9. Refrigerator	31.6	47.0	24.0	33.1	20.8	16.2	12.6	12.4	42.6	38.3
10. Type-writer	12.9	30.2	43.9	56.7	3.6	1.9	7.9	5.6	44.6	35.8
11. Telephone	13.1	18.0	26.8	34.3	15.5	11.0	16.0	16.1	41.0	38.6
12. Personal library	66.4	73.9	59.4	65.5	2.2	2.3	16.2	10.5	22.2	21.7

In view of the above picture indicating the lower % of teachers who own the various items as compared with the % of teachers who consider them necessary for work-efficiency, it becomes relevant to consider how teachers can be made economically better off than at present so that they can afford to own various facilities which they consider necessary for their work-efficiency.

Among the various facilities which are owned by teachers or made available to them in the institution where they work, it is the quality of the library, both personal and institutional, as partly reflected by the number of books and journals included therein, which is the single-most important facility affecting their work-performance and professional development.

Regarding their personal library, a large % (about 55%) of the teachers both in colleges and universities do not even have a separate study-room in the house where their personal library can be kept. About 3/4ths of the teachers in colleges as well as universities do not have more than 100 books related to their subject (while 55% do not have more than 50 books) in their personal library. Similarly, a large % of teachers also do not possess general books in their personal library (75% of college & 71% of university teachers do not have more than 100 books, while 58% of college and 52% of university teachers do not have more than 50 books). Regarding the number of books on their subject that the teacher is able to buy in a year, 18% of college and 23% of university teachers are not able to buy any book. Also, about 65% each of college and university teachers are able to buy between 1 and 10 books per year. This, however, is distributed differently for the 2 groups of teachers as is seen by the fact that among college teachers, 17.6% buy 1-2 books, 25.4% buy 3-5 books and 21.3% buy 6-10 books, while among university teachers, the figures are 28.9%, 22.7% and 14.3% respectively, implying that, on the average, university teachers are able to buy less books than their college counterparts. Regarding the number of journals in the subject to which the teacher subscribes, about 44% of college and 35% of university teachers do not subscribe to any journal while 34% of

college and 39% of university teachers subscribe to only 1-2 journals. The difference between the number of books (both general or related to their subject) the teachers have in their personal library or the books they are able to buy in a year or the journals to which they subscribe is not much between teachers at different levels of position both in colleges and universities.

With regard to the library at their institution, about 3/4ths of the college and university teachers respectively responded that a sufficient number of library books needed for preparing their lectures are available to them. However, only about 27% of the college and 44% of the university teachers responded that a sufficient number of library books needed for research are available to them. Regarding the number of journals in the teacher's subject to which the library of his institution subscribes, nearly 2/3rds of the college teachers who responded to this question mentioned 1-5 journals while about a quarter each of the university teachers who responded to this question mentioned 1-5, 6-10 and 11-20 journals respectively. The obviously better quality of the institutional library available to university teachers as compared to college teachers is not surprising, considering the larger availability of funds to university libraries as compared to college libraries.

It is important to note that none of the questions relating to the number of books or journals in the personal library or the institutional library of teachers dealt with the quality of the books, as such. This aspect of quality is an important factor affecting the work-performance and professional development of teachers. A personal library consisting mainly of complimentary text-books given by publishers is altogether different from one consisting of books which are on the frontiers of knowledge in the teacher's subject. Considering that the latter type of books tend to be quite expensive - and hence not within the easy reach of teachers with their relatively low levels of economic status - it is quite likely that the quality of books needs to be improved if the library is indeed to contribute to the professional development and work-efficiency of teachers. This in

turn calls for more funds being available for the purchase of books. It is not surprising, therefore, that most college and university teachers felt that their purchase of books should be subsidized and about half of them felt that the extent of the subsidy should be about 50%.

FOOTNOTES

1. See Priorities for Action : Final Report of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, p.28.

2. See Kothari Commission Report, para 4.61.

3. See the Kothari Commission Report, para 4.59

4. If such opportunities tend to be once-for-all, even this enhanced knowledge may become quickly out-dated in view of the rapid explosion of knowledge unless the teacher keeps abreast with the frontiers of knowledge all the time on a regular basis.

5. The wide range of facilities available in the U.S.A for example, have been discussed in Jerry Gaff, Towards Faculty Renewal, as also in Peter Seldin, Faculty Development : The American Experience UTMU, London, 1976. The type of facilities available in Britain are discussed in SDU/UTMU, Issues in Staff Development, Institute of Education, London, 1975.

6. See Mathur Committee Report and the ISTE Report for the aims and functions of such a Centre.

7. The problem of effective utilization of facilities for professional development is not merely confined to India. As Peter Seldin above cit. and Jerry Gaff also cited above point out, this problem is also faced to some extent even in a country like USA.

8. Change in this system calls for far-reaching changes - e.g., control of the teacher over the syllabus taught by him to his students which in turn calls for different schemes of evaluation of students, etc. - which may not be possible easily.

APPENDIX

Table No. A II.1

Percentage of college and university teachers participating in seminars according to various levels of position

No. of Seminars	1-2	3-5	6-10	>10	Total (Teachers)
Lecturers :					
Colleges	19.9	12.3	5.8	1.4	5056
Universities	23.1	22.1	17.2	5.2	1148
Readers :					
Colleges	18.6	20.1	11.5	4.3	306
Universities	13.4	22.3	27.5	7.4	618
Professors :					
Colleges	19.5	15.0	13.5	4.9	559
Universities	6.7	13.1	28.9	12.2	329

Table No. A II.2

Percentage of college and university teachers participating in summer schools/workshops according to various levels of position

Number of Summer Schools/Workshops	1-2	3-5	6-10	11-15	Total (Teachers)
Lecturers :					
Colleges	23.5	4.9	1.2	0.2	5156
Universities	37.4	13.8	2.4	0.4	1143
Readers :					
Colleges	31.6	13.9	5.6	0	322
Universities	35.9	18.9	5.0	1.0	615
Professors :					
Colleges	34.5	15.0	6.4	1.2	451
Universities	29.8	21.6	8.8	1.5	323

Table No. A II.3

Percentage of college and university teachers participating in training programmes according to various levels of positon

Number of Training Programmes	1-2	3-5	6-10	11-15	Total (Teachers)
Lecturers :					
Colleges	14.6	2.7	.5	.1	515
Universities	25.6	4.2	0.6	0.2	1148
Readers :					
Colleges	27.2	4.6	.6	1.2	321
Universities	27.0	6.8	1.3	0.3	618
Professors :					
Colleges	29.2	8.4	.9	.0	451
Universities	22.2	6.7	1.5	0.6	329

Table No. A II.4

Seminar Participation by college teachers - State-wise disparities
(Figures in % terms)

No. of Items	NIL	1-2	3-5	6-10	>10
Average	55.9	19.9	13.2	6.80	1.8
Range	26.0-74.0	10.7-35.8	7.1-21.7	1.8-19.8	.7-9.1

Well Above Average:										
	KRNTK	74.1	ASSAM	30.3	J & K	21.7	DELHI	19.8	DELHI	9.1
	KERLA	73.3	GJRAT	35.8	MAHAR	21.4	RAJAS	10.6	RAJAS	4.8
	BIHAR	70.7	HRYNA	32.1	DELHI	19.0	TNADU	7.9	J & K	3.3
	PNJAB	70.0	ORISA	24.8	GJRAT	18.8			GJRAT	2.3
Well Below Average:										
	GJRAT	34.4	DELHI	10.7	ANDPR	7.1	HRYNA	1.8	ANDPR	.7
	ORISA	45.6	KRNTK	11.1	RAJAS	7.7	KERLA	2.0	BIHAR	.9
	DELHI	26.0	BIHAR	14.8	PNJAB	8.8	BIHAR	3.8	ORISA	.8
	MAHAR	43.8	WBENG	15.6	KRNTK	8.4	ASSAM	3.7	PNJAB	.9

Table No. A 11.5

Summer School/Workshop participation by college teachers
State-wise disparities
(Figures in % terms)

No. of Items	NIL	1-2	3-5	6-10	>10
Average	66.7	24.8	6.4	1.8	.3
Range	50.0-87.0	9.6-45.7	0.9-15.8	0.3-7.1	.3-2.9
Well above average:					
	BIHAR 87.0	GOA 45.7	J & K 15.8	GOA 7.1	HIMPR 1.5
	KERLA 75.7	GJRAT 35.8	GOA 14.3	RAJAS 3.9	RAJAS 1.0
	ASSAM 80.7	J & K 32.5	GJRAT 12.2	HIMPR 6.8	WBENG 2.9
	ANDPR 76.9	ORISA 32.8	TMNDU 9.7	GJRAT 3.6	
Well below average:					
	GJRAT 48.0	DELHI 19.8	ASSAM .9	ANDPR 0.7	UTRPR 0.2
	HIMPR 52.7	BIHAR 9.6	HRYNA 1.8	WBENG 0.3	TMNDU 0.3
	J & K 50.0	WBENG 17.9	BIHAR 2.0	BIHAR .9	KRNTK 0.3
	MAHAR 57.1	ASSAM 18.4	PNJAB 3.4	MADPR .4	MAHAR 0.3

Table No. A 11.6

Training programme participation by college teachers
State-wise disparities
(Figures in % terms)

No. of Items	NIL	1-2	3-5	6-10	>10
Average	79.4	16.5	3.2	.5	.14
Range	57.1-80.9	6.8-31.4	.50-10.0	0.3-1.9	.25-.90
Well Above average:					
	WBENG 90.9	PONDI 23.9	GOA 10.0	GOA 1.4	GJRAT .9
	HRYNA 90.8	GOA 31.4	TMNDU 6.6	RAJAS 1.9	MAHAR .4
	KERLA 87.6	RAJAS 25.0	RAJAS 5.8	HIMPR 1.5	WBENG .7
	MADPR 88.2	J & K 24.2	ASSAM 5.5	ANDPR 1.1	
Well Below average:					
	GOA 57.1	WBENG 6.8	KERLA .5	KRNTK .3	
	MAHAR 69.9	DELHI 9.5	PNJAB .9	PNJAB .3	
	RAJAS 66.4	HIMPR 8.2	PONDI .9	MADPR .4	
	TMNDU 69.4	HRYNA 9.2	UTRPR 1.2	WBENG .3	

Table No. A II.7

Percentage of college teachers who availed of study leave
State-wise disparities

	Yes		No	
Average	12.7		76.7	
Range	4.6-31.7		57.5-84.7	
Well above average:				
	HIMPR	25.6	MAHAR	81.4
	J & K	31.7	GOA	81.4
	DELHI	20.3	KERLA	84.7
	PONDI	22.2	ASSAM	83.5
Well below average:				
	GOA	11.4	DELHI	69.8
	UTRPR	11.0	J & K	57.5
	HRYNA	9.2	HIMPR	69.6
	ASSAM	4.6	ANDPR	74.7

Table No. A. II.8

Number of ways in which study leave was spent
by college teachers - State-wise disparities
(Figures in % terms)

No. of ways	Research	Writing text books	Developing teaching material	Others
Average	9.0	0.8	0.1	2.1
Range	2.8-25.8	0-2.5	0 -1.0	0-6.3
Well above average:				
	J & K 25.8	J & K 2.5	HIMPR 1.0	HIMPR 6.3
	DELHI 18.2	HIMPR 1.9	ORISA .8	RAJAS 3.9
	HIMPR 15.5	UTRPR 1.2	KRNTK .3	J & K 3.3
		PNJAB 1.1		
Well below average:				
	ASSAM 2.8	KERLA .0	REST ALL .0	WBENG 1.0
	KERLA 3.0	HRYNA .0		UTRPR 1.2
	PNJAB 5.1	MADPR .4		BIHAR 1.2
		DELHI .4		GHRAT 1.4

Table No.A 11.9

Seminar Participation by University Teachers
university-wise disparities
(Figures in % terms)

No. of Times	Nil	1-2	3-5	6-10	11-15
Average	24.0	17.5	20.9	22.0	7.0
Range	8.3 - 39.4	4.9 - 26.7	11.1 - 33.3	11.0 - 35.3	0 - 16.1
Well above Average					
	OSMN 39.4	MLS 26.7	TN 33.3	MNPR 35.3	UTKAL 16.1
	MLS 33.5	KSMR 25.0	POONA 29.5	MS 32.3	KSMR 13.9
	PAU 32.0	COCHIN 24.5	SNDT 27.4	NEHU 31.5	POONA 13.1
Well below Average					
	KSMR 8.3	POONA 4.9	KSMR 11.1	SNDT 11.0	RS 0
	MNPR 11.8	UTKAL 7.1	JDVPR 13.8	MLS 13.9	MNPR 0
	UTKAL 12.5	BHU 9.0	MS 15.6	PAU 15.7	TN 0
	GNDU 13.0			OSMN 16.1	OSMN 1.6
	POONA 13.1				MLS 2.8
					NEHU 5.6

Table No.A 11.10
Summer School/Workshop Participation by University Teachers
university-wise disparities
(Figures in % terms)

No. of times	Nil	1-2	3-5	6-10	11-15
Average	42.0	35.8	1.6	4.1	0.8
Range	14.8 - 56.3	23.5 - 47.5	8.6 - 28.8	0.8 - 9.8	0 - 5.4
Well above average					
	OSMN 56.3	POONA 47.5	SNDT 28.8	POONA 9.8	SNDT 5.5
	GNDU 55.7	NEHU 44.4	MDRAS 28.2	SNDT 9.6	MLS 2.0
	GHTI 50.0	KRNTK 43.0	PUNE 26.2	MS 7.3	UTKAL 1.8
	JDVPR 50.0	KSMR 41.7	TN 24.2	UTKAL 8.9	
Well below average					
	PUNE 14.8	RS 26.5	OSMN 8.6	COCHIN 1.0	KURUK,KSMR
	MS 28.1	MNPR 23.5	BHU 9.0	GNDU 0.8	KRNTK,MNPR
	SNDT 27.4	GNDU 30.5	GHTI 10.8	NEHU 1.9	NEHU,GNDU
	KSMR 30.6			MADRAS 1.5	PAU,MADRAS
				BHU 1.5	TN,JDV
				TN 0	(ALL 0)

Table No.A II.11

Training Programme Participation by University Teachers
university-wise dissparities
(Figures in % terms)

No. of times	Nil	1-2	3-5	6-10	11-15
Average	67.7	25.5	5.3	1.0	0.3
Range	36.4 - 87.8	10.2 - 48.5	0 - 21.9	0 - 3.1	0 - 3.0
Well above average					
	KURUK 87.8	TN 48.5	SNDT 21.9	MS 3.1	BHU 3.0
	OMNN 81.1	MS 38.5	MAD 11.1	COCH 2.9	UTKAL 1.8
	NEHU 79.6	COCHIN 35.3	KRNTK 6.2	KSMR 2.8	JDVPR 0.5
	JDVPR 79.1	MNPR 35.3	KSMR 5.6		MAD 0.7
	GNDU 79.4		UTKAL 7.1		
Well below average					
	SNDT 46.6	KURUK 10.2	RS 0	JDVPR)	Rest all 0
	TN 36.4	OSMN 15.0	MNPR 0	BHU)	
	MS 52.1	NEHU 16.7	GNDU 0	KURUK)	
	MAD 54.8	GNDU 20.6	PAU 2.0	RS) 0	
	COCH 56.9		JDVPR 2.6	MNPR)	
				NEHU)	
				GNDU)	

Table No.A II.12

Availing of Study Leave by University Teachers
univesity-wise disparities
(Figures in % terms)

		Yes	No.
	Average	21.9	72.3
	Range	12.3 - 39.3	52.9 - 83.2
Well above average			
	JDVPR	38.3	GNDU 83.2
	MNPR	35.3	COCH 80.4
	UTKAL	39.3	SNDT 80.8
	TN	33.3	BHU 81.2
Well below average			
	SNDT	12.3	MNPR 52.9
	BHU	13.4	UTKAL 58.9
	GNDU	13.7	JDVPR 57.1
	MAD	17.8	OSMN 62.6
	MS	17.7	

Table No.A II.13

Number of ways in which study leave was spent by University Teachers univesity-wise disparities
(Figures in % terms)

No. of ways	Research	Writing text-books	Developing teaching materials	Other
Average	15.7	2.0	0.4	2.3
Range	2.7 - 29.4	0 - 7.1	0 - 1.35	0 - 3.9
Well above average				
	MNPR 29.4	RS 5.9	GHTI 1.35	MNPR 5.9
	UTKAL 28.6	UTKAL 7.1	MS 1.0	OSMN 3.5
	JDVPR 27.0	JDVPR 4.6	JDVPR 1.5	RS 2.9
	KSMR 22.2		MLS 0.8	SNDT 2.7
			OSMN 0.4	BHU 3.0
Well below average				
	SNDT 2.7	SNDT)	REST ALL 0	GHTI 0
	BHU 9.0	MNPR)		COCH 0
	OSM 11.0	MAD)0		NEHU 0
	MS 11.5	TN)		TN 0
	GNDU 11.5	COCH 1.0		KRNTK 0.6
	MAD 11.9	PAU 0.7		GNDU 0.7
				MLS 0.4

Table No. A II. 14

Number of College and University teachers obtaining funds from various agencies for their research projects.*

No. of Projects		One	2-5	6-10	No Rsp	Total
Source of funds:						
UGC	U	322 (15.0)	162 (7.6)	12 (0.6)	1638 (76.4)	2134 (99.5)
	C	230 (3.7)	40 (0.6)	1 (0.02)	6030 (95.6)	6301 (99.9)
ICSSR	U	46 (2.2)	30 (1.4)	1 (0.1)	2060 (96.1)	2137 (99.7)
	C	23 (0.04)	14 (0.2)	1 (0.02)	6266 (99.4)	6304 (100)
ICCR	U	7 (.33)	6 (0.28)	0 (0.0)	2130 (99.4)	2143 (99.9)
	C	40 (.6)	17 (.3)	0 (0.0)	6247 (99.0)	6304 (100)
CSIR	U	79 (3.7)	36 (1.7)	2 (0.1)	2027 (94.5)	2144 (99.9)
	C	40 (0.6)	17 (.3)	0 (0.0)	6247 (99.0)	6304 (100)
ICAR	U	75 (3.5)	67 (3.1)	12 (0.6)	1983 (92.5)	2137 (99.7)
	C	43 (0.7)	41 (0.7)	9 (0.1)	6205 (98.0)	6298 (99.9)
ICMR	U	22 (1.0)	10 (0.5)	2 (0.1)	2110 (98.4)	2144 (99.99)
	C	27 (0.4)	10 (0.2)	4 (0.06)	6263 (99.30)	6304 (99.99)
DST	U	65 (3.0)	10 (0.5)	3 (0.2)	2066 (96.4)	2144 (99.99)
	C	27 (0.4)	2 (0.03)	1 (0.02)	6275 (99.5)	6305 (100)

No. of Projects		One	2-5	6-10	No Rsp	Total
Int'l Agencies	U	67 (3.1)	17 (0.8)	11 (0.5)	2047 (95.5)	2142 (99.9)
	C	54 (.9)	26 (.4)	6 (.1)	6217 (98.6)	6302 (100)
State/ Central Govt.	U	155 (7.2)	76 (3.5)	32 (1.5)	1868 (87.1)	2131 (99.4)
	C	92 (1.5)	73 (1.2)	42 (.7)	6083 (96.5)	6290 (99.8)
Private Trust	U	35 (1.6)	18 (.8)	3 (.2)	2086 (97.3)	2142 (99.9)
	C	33 (.6)	20 (.3)	9 (.1)	6239 (98.9)	6301 (99.9)
Any Other	U	49 (2.3)	31 1.5)	2 (0.1)	2050 (95.6)	2132 (99.4)
	C	35 (.6)	23 (.4)	6 (.1)	6233 (98.8)	6297 (99.9)

* Figures in brackets show % of teachers;
U = University teachers; C = College teachers

Table No. A 11.15

Percentage of college and university teachers contributing various numbers of papers in learned journals

No. of Papers	1	2-5	6-10	11-20	21-30	Total No. of Teachers
TOTAL TEACHERS						
Colleges	3.4	10.3	4.0	2.9	1.0	6204
Universities	4.9	18.8	15.4	16.8	9.0	1902
BY SEX						
Colleges						
Male	3.4	10.8	4.6	3.3	1.5	4685
Female	3.6	8.4	2.3	1.5	.4	1448
Universities						
Male	4.2	18.1	15.8	18.6	10.2	1513
Female	8.6	22.6	14.0	7.8	3.8	354
BY LEVEL OF POSITION						
Colleges						
Lecturers	3.4	9.7	3.1	2.0	.9	5125
Readers	4.0	20.1	12.7	8.7	5.0	308
Professors	4.2	9.5	7.3	7.3	3.1	409
Universities						
Lecturers	7.6	23.8	16.0	12.1	4.7	1120
Readers	2.6	16.5	18.1	21.5	13.3	529
Professors	0.0	5.5	9.1	23.7	17.0	209

Table No. A II. 16

Percentage of College and University teachers
Publicssing various numbers of
popular articles in Magazines/Newspapers

No. of articles	1-5	6-10	11-20	21-30	Total No. of Teachers)
TOTAL TEACHERS					
Colleges	10.5	3.8	2.2	.8	6200
Universities	23.6	11.0	6.6	2.5	2059
BY SEX					
Colleges					
Male	11.4	4.2	2.6	.9	4687
Female	7.5	2.4	.8	.6	1440
Universities					
Male	24.2	11.3	6.9	2.6	1660
Female	20.8	8.9	5.4	1.9	363
BY LEVEL OF POSITION					
Colleges					
Lecturers	9.6	3.3	1.7	.7	5090
Readers	21.7	7.7	6.5	1.6	315
Professors	13.9	5.5	3.3	1.6	440
Universities					
Lecturers	21.7	8.2	3.8	1.7	1119
Readers	27.4	12.9	7.4	3.2	589
Professors	23.4	17.3	14.3	3.7	302

Table No. A 11.17

Percentage of college and university teachers publishing various numbers of standard text books

No. of text books	1	2-5	6-10	11-15	Total No. of Teachers
TOTAL TEACHERS					
Colleges	3.0	3.3	.4	.2	6299
Universities	6.9	7.7	1.2	0.3	2141
BY SEX					
Colleges					
Male	3.4	4.0	.6	.21	4775
Female	1.9	.8	.1	.07	1449
Universities					
Male	7.3	8.8	1.3	0.3	1734
Female	4.9	3.5	0.5	0.3	371
BY LEVEL OF POSITION					
Colleges					
Lecturers	2.4	2.7	.3	.2	5154
Readers	4.6	4.3	.9	0.0	323
Professors	6.6	6.2	1.6	0.0	452
Universities					
Lecturers	4.4	3.5	0.4	0.1	1148
Readers	8.6	10.2	1.6	0.0	618
Professors	12.8	16.7	3.0	1.5	326

Table No. A II.18

Percentage of college and university teachers publishing various numbers of other academic books

No. of academic books	1	2-5	6-10	11-15	Total No.of Teachers
TOTAL TEACHERS					
Colleges	3.2	2.6	.4	.1	6296
Universities	9.1	9.4	2.0	0.8	2135
BY SEX					
Colleges					
Male	3.7	3.0	.5	.2	4771
Female	1.6	1.3	0.1	.00	1450
Universities					
Male	9.6	9.8	2.2	1.0	1730
Female	5.9	7.6	1.1	0.0	369
BY LEVEL OF POSITION					
Colleges					
Lecturers	2.8	2.0	.3	.1	5157
Readers	6.2	5.3	1.6	0.0	320
Professors	5.3	5.3	.4	.2	449
Universities					
Lecturers	5.9	4.9	0.6	0.5	1146
Readers	11.8	12.9	2.8	0.8	615
Professors	15.2	17.9	5.2	2.1	326

Table No.A 11.19

Papers Contributed in Learned journals by college teachers
state-wise disparities
(Figures in % terms)

No. of papers	Nil	1	2-5	6-10	11-20	More than 20
Average	75.5	3.4	10.3	4.0	2.9	1.3
Range	42.5-92.6	1.9-6.2	3.0-20.0	.5-11.0	.9-11.6	.2-6.3
Well above average						
	KERAL 92.6	DELHI 6.2	J&K 20.0	J&K 11.7	HP 11.6	HP 6.3
	ASSAM 89.0	U.P. 4.9	HP 19.8	HP 9.2	RJSTN 6.7	J&K 3.3
	BIHAR 85.2	ORISA 4.8	WBNGL 17.9	WBNGL 8.5	GJRAT 4.5	KSMIR 2.7
	GOA 80.0	J&K 4.2	DELHI 16.5	DELHI 7.9	UP 4.1	
Well below Average						
	HP 42.5	RJSTN 1.9	KERAL 3.0	KERAL .5	BIHAR .9	AP .2
	J&K 56.7	KRNTK 1.9	ASSAM 4.6	BIHAR 1.7	MP 1.7	BIHAR .3
	DELHI 61.6	AP 2.3	KRNTK 5.4	AP 2.2	AP 2.0	KERAL .5
	GJRAT 63.3	GJRAT 2.7	TNADU 8.4	HP 2.8	TNADU 2.9	MAHAR .5

Table No.A 11.20
Popular Articles published in Magazines/Newspapers
by College Teachers - state-wise disparities
(Figures in % terms)

No. of Articles	Nil	01-05	06-10	11-20	More than 20
Average	79.8	10.5	3.8	2.2	0.8
Range	59.4-88.1	5.7-26.1	1.4-8.5	.9-5.6	.3-1.7
Well Above average					
	TNADU 88.1	HP 26.1	WBNGL 8.5	ORISA 5.6	PNDCH 1.7
	HRYNA 88.1	GJRAT 22.2	HP 7.7	HP 4.8	WBNGL 1.7
	BIHAR 87.8	ORISA 19.2	DELHI 7.4	GJRAT 4.5	KRNTK 1.5
	AP 87.7	WBNGL 16.6	ASSAM 5.5	ASSAM 3.7	GJRAT 1.4
Well Below average					
	HP 59.4	AP 5.7	GOA 1.4	PNDCH .9	PNJAB .3
	GJRAT 64.3	BIHAR 6.7	TNADU 1.6	HRYNA .9	AP .4
	WBNGL 67.2	KSMR 7.4	PNDCH 1.7	KERAL 1.0	HP 1.0
	DELHI 68.6	MP 7.8	RJSTN 1.9	AP 1.1	

Table No.A 11.21

Student Text-books Published by College Teachers
state-wise disparities
(Figures in % terms)

No.of Text-books	Nil	1	2-5	6-10	More than 10
Average	91.6	3.0	3.3	0.4	.2
Range	82.1-97.4	.8-5.8	.9-9.5	.2-7.0	0-.8
Well Above Average					
	PNDCH 97.4	RJSTN 5.8	GJRAT 9.5	RJSTN 1.9	DELHI .8
	GOA 95.7	HP 5.3	PNJAB 9.5	WBENGL 1.0	ORISA .8
	HRYNA 96.3	GOA 4.3	MAHR 5.0	AP .7	MAHAR .5
	BIHAR 96.5	UP 4.3		KERAL .7	
Below Average					
	DELHI 85.5	PNDCH .7	ASSAM .9	TNADU .2	
	GJRAT 86.0	ORISA .8	HP 1.0	KERAL .3	MOSTLY 0
	MAHAR 82.1	AP 1.4	AP 1.3	BIHAR .3	
	PNJAB 87.5	TNADU 1.9	KERAL 1.5	GJRAT .5	

Table No.A.II.22

Other Academic Books published by college teachers
state-wise disparities
(Figure in % terms)

	Nil	1	2-5	6-10	More than 10
Average	92.2	3.2	2.6	.4	.1
Range	83.5-97.3	.9-7.9	.9-6.7	.0 - 1.4	.0 - 1.0
Well Above Average					
	HRYNA 97.3	DELHI 7.9	RJSTN 6.7	WBNGL 1.4	U.P. 1.0
	GOA 97.1	RAJSTN 5.8	GJRAT 4.5	KRNTK 1.0	PNDCH 0.9
	BIHAR 96.5	MAHAR 4.3	ASSAM 3.7	RJSTN 1.0	PNJAB 0.3
	ORISA 95.2	ORISA 4.0	MAHAR 3.5	DELHI 0.8	KRNTK 0.3
Well Below Average					
	DELHI 83.5	HRYNA 0.9	ORISA 0.8	TNADU 0.1	MOSTLY 0.0
	RJSTN 83.7	KERAL 1.7	BIHAR 1.5	Rest 0.0	
	MAHAR 84.7	A.P. 2.0	KERAL 1.5		
		BIHAR 2.0	PNDCH 1.7		

Table No.A II.23

Papers contributed in learned journals by University Teachers
university-wise disparities
(Figures in % terms)

No.of Papers	Nil	1	2-5	6-10	11-20	21-30
Average	23.5	4.9	18.8	15.4	16.8	9.0
Range	0-60.3	0-8.3	6.1-35.3	2.9-30.6	2.7-29.4	2.7-16.7
Well above average						
	SNDT 60.3	KSMR 8.3	MNPR 35.3	KSMR 30.6	MNPR 29.4	KSMR 16.
	OSMN 42.5	OSM 7.1	MLS 26.3	GHTI 18.9	KURUK26.5	MADRS15.6
	MS 39.6	COCH 7.8	BHU 25.4	MS 18.8	BHU 25.4	GNDU 13.
		PAU 7.5		COCH 21.6	MAD 23.7	POONA13.7
				KRNTK20.7	TN 24.2	
				MNPR 23.5		
Well below average						
	KURUK 8.2	MNPR 0	MS 12.5	RS 2.9	SNDT 2.7	SNDT 2.7
	KSMR 8.3	RS 0	MAD 13.3	OSMN 11.0	MS 9.4	OSMN 5.5
	COCH 12.8	UTKAL 0	TN 6.1	SNDT 11.0	OSM 11.0	NEHU 7.4
	MNPR 0.0	TN 0		MLS 11.6	POONA9.8	PAU 4.8
	GNDT 12.2	KURUK 2.0		MAD 11.9		MLS 7.2
	TN 6.1	GHTI 2.7		TN 12.1		BHU 4.5
		NEHU 3.7				
		MADRAS 3.7				

Table No. A.II.24

Popular articles published in Magazines/
Newspapers by University Teachers.
uniersity-wise disparities
(Figures in % terms)

No.of Articles	Nil	1-5	6-10	11-20	21-30
Average	50.8	23.6	11.0	6.6	2.5
Range	6.1 - 71.3	13.9 - 38.8	5.5 - 29.4	2.9 - 17.7	0 - 9.1
Well above Average:					
	OSMN 71.3	BHU 38.8	MNPR 29.4	MNPR 17.7	TN 9.1
	SNDP 67.1	POONA 34.4	TN 27.3	UTKAL 14.3	MLS 6.4
	GNDU 61.8	KURUK 30.6	GHTI 21.3	PAU 13.6	GHTI 6.8
	JDVPR 60.7				
Well below Average:					
	TN 6.1	KSMR 13.9	SNDT 5.5	RS 2.9	OSMN)
	MMPR 27.5	SNDT 16.4	COCHIN 5.9	OSMN 3.9	RS,NEHU)0
	GHTI 27.0	OSMN 16.9	OSMN 7.1	POONA 3.3	UTKAL
			POONA 6.6	MS 3.1	GNDLI 0.8
					JDPR 10

TABLE A II.25

Standard Text-books published by University Teachers
University-wise disparities
(Figures in % Terms)

No. of Text books	Nil	1	2-5	6-10	11-16
Average	81.0	6.9	7.7	1.2	0.3
Range	60.8-89.8	2.8-18.2	1.4-21.6	0-4.1	0-1.8
Well Above Average					
	PAU 89.8	GHTI 12.2	GHTI 21.6	KURUK 4.1	POONA 1.6
	MLS 88.1	RS 14.7	MNPR 17.7	BHU 3.0	UTKAL 1.8
	JDVPR 87.8	UTKAL 12.5	KURUK 14.3	KRNTK 3.4	CHTI 1.4
	GNDU 86.3	TN 18.2			SNDT 1.4
Well Below Average					
	GHTI 60.8	KSMR 2.8	PAU 1.4	OSMN 1.2	MOST 0.0
	KRNTK 64.8	GNDU 3.8	SNDT 2.7	Rest mostly	
	TN 69.7	MLS 3.6	NEHU 3.7	zero	
	BHU 70.2				

Table A 11.26

Other Academic books published by University teachers
University-wise disparities
(Figures in % terms)

No. of Text books	Nil	1	2-5	6-10	11-15
Average	77.0	9.1	9.4	2.0	0.8
Range	51.5-89.8	3.4-22.5	0.5-24.2	0-8.1	0-3.9
Average	PAU 89.8	KURUK 22.5	TN 24.2	GHTI 8.1	KSMR 2.8
	JDVPR 88.3	TN 21.2	MS 18.8	MNPR 5.9	KRNTK 3.9
	OSMN 84.7	KRNTK 12.9	UTKAL 16.1	POONA 4.9	GNDU 2.3
	MLS 84.5		GNDU 16.0		
Below Average	TN 51.5	PAU 3.4	JDVPR 0.5	MS 0.0	OSMN 0.4
	KURUK 61.2	SNDT 5.5	PAU 4.8	GNDU 0.0	MLS 0.4
	KRNTK 63.7	MLS 6.4	KSMR 5.6	MLS 0.0	MAD 0.7
				OSMN 0.4	Rest 0.0
				JDVPR 1.0	
				BHU 1.5	
				MAD 1.5	

CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS

Some General Issues

Poor prospects for career development may be considered to be one of the major issues currently agitating teachers in higher education. It has been pointed out that teachers of higher education, perhaps, constitute the only profession in India wherein a large majority join and retire in the same position i.e. as lecturers. This is specially true in situations wherein the number of higher-level positions are small in number and rigidly fixed. Once these positions are filled, there is no scope for the rest of the teachers - howsoever competent and deserving a higher position they may be in - to move up until the present incumbents of the higher-level positions resign, retire or die.

The problem posed by the lack of opportunities for career development of teachers was not as serious during the earlier period of rapid expansion in higher education. Additional posts were being created at each level, giving rise to better opportunities for career development. However, with a relatively slower rate of expansion or stagnation in recent years, the problem has been quite acute for a large number of teachers.

This situation has been exacerbated by the lack of inter-professional mobility among teachers. In many foreign countries, academics often move from teaching to industry or to government and vice-versa. Such a mobility enables them to improve their career development prospects. Apart from lack of mobility between teaching and other jobs, there is also the further problem of lack of spatial mobility within the teaching profession itself[1] which has adverse implications for career development of teachers. A teacher who joins a particular college or university often wishes to remain in the same institution or place for various reasons e.g. socio-cultural ties with a place or accommodation difficulties. If there is no higher level position available in his own institution, a teacher will not get an

opportunity for career development even if he is professionally competent and can get a higher position at another place if he is prepared to join it.

Part of the problem of lack of career development opportunities in the teaching profession stems from the fact that there seems to be only one model for career development.[2] Only three rungs in the career ladder of a teacher in higher education are generally distinguished, viz., those of lecturers, readers and professors. Vertical mobility in the system is not regulated through a proper assessment of all the functions performed by teachers at different levels of higher education. This is particularly true of the importance of the teaching function at the undergraduate level. There is a need for different patterns of career development depending on the mix of functions that the teachers are expected to perform at a specific level.

Opportunities for career development of teachers seem to be limited also because of the tendency to link career development with only monetary rewards expressed as a higher salary-grade. As long as a teacher remains in the same salary-grade, he considers that his career is at a stand still. Such non-monetary rewards may take such forms as greater role in decision-making, time-off from mundane responsibilities, greater prestige in society, better recognition of services by peers as well as government. A teacher in a particular salary-grade getting such non-monetary rewards may be considered to have better prospects of career development than another teacher in the same grade without these.

Should the career development of teachers be determined on the basis of seniority or of merit? A debate on this issue has unfortunately generated more heat than light. A number of important commissions on higher education have strongly argued against vertical mobility on the basis of mere passage of time without any reference to the professional competence of a teacher. The Carnegie Commission[3] for example, strongly opposed promotion of facutly members on the

basis of seniority alone as it would lead to a "gross degradation of academic standards". It would also be unfair to teachers with greater ability if they are not rewarded to a greater extent than their less meritorious colleagues even though the latter may be equally or more senior than the former. Similarly, the Kothari Commission[4] held that "the improvement in salary scale should not be entirely automatic, it should be linked with improvements in qualifications and quality". Again, the Sen Committee[5] felt that movement from a lower to a higher grade should not be by mere flux of time but determined on the basis of some appropriate selection procedures". As pointed out by Altbach,[6] promotion to senior posts is not automatic but is based on merit in several countries e.g. Australia, Canada.

As against this view, some teachers take the position that promotion should be based on seniority[7]. The pressure arises because of comparison with the promotion system in the bureaucracy. Seniority is often taken by the advocates of this view as a proxy for merit, especially as it is not easy to measure merit. It is argued that, with the passage of time during which the teachers gain experience in various aspects of their work, they are expected to become more competent professionals. In practice, however, this expectation is often not realized. A teacher with 'X' number of years of experience is sometimes one who has repeated his one year of experience 'X' number of times without improving it. Instead of using seniority as a proxy for merit, a direct assessment of merit should be made as indicated above and career development should be based on this assessment.

Considerations of seniority, however, cannot be altogether ruled out in promotion decisions for teachers. This could be taken care of by havinga running grade for teachers in which slow upward movement based on the length of service is possible. Several teachers' associations have pleaded for such a grade, which would prevent stagnation of senior teachers at the maximum of a particular salary-grade. Such a stagnation has an adverse impact on the work of even a conscientious teacher. The financial resources needed for the introduction of such a running scale would be marginal as the maximum

of the scale gets revised upwards over time by successive Pay Commissions.

Such a system would, however, be unfair to teachers with higher levels of professional competence. Opportunities for appointment to higher positions should be available to such teachers after the passage of a prescribed number of years on the basis of the evaluation of their work. These opportunities should not be limited to a fixed number of higher-level positions.[8]

The need for having an effective means of assessing the "merit" of teachers in such a scheme cannot be over-emphasised.[9] As indicated above, the competence of the teacher in various areas of activity should be evaluated on the basis of clear criteria not only by the teacher himself but also by others - students, peers and his academic head - with whom he works. If career development is indeed based on "merit", it would imply that it is actually linked with professional development. The teacher would have to develop his professional competence so that he can perform his functions efficiently. This in turn would be reflected in the evaluation of his work or "merit" which would be the basis of his career development.

Prospects of Career Development of Teachers : Empirical Findings

The sample of 2144 university teachers consists of 1148 lecturers, 618 readers and 329 professors and 49 others, while the sample of 6306 college teachers consists of 5159 lecturers, 323 readers, 452 professors and 372 others. It is only the readers and the professors among both groups of colleges and university teachers who may be considered to have got their promotions in the past—the readers getting their promotion once, while the professors getting their promotion twice. (It is assumed that the normal route for the career development of a teacher in higher education is through promotionfrom lecturer to reader and then from reader to professor. (Of course, there could be a very small minority of teachers who join directly as

readers or as professors so that this assumption would not hold good in their case).

In considering the promotional prospects of teachers, we restrict ourselves to the 323 readers and 452 professors in the colleges and the 618 readers and 329 professors in the universities. Thus, if we take only the teachers at the 3 levels of position viz., lecturers, readers, and professors, we have excluded a much larger % (i.e. 86.9%) of the college teachers viz., the 5159 college lecturers as compared to the % (i.e. 54.8%) of the univesity teachers viz., the 1148 university lecturers who have been excluded. In other words, the analysis ofcareer development of teachers in terms of those who got promoted in the past (i.e. the present readers and professors) is confined to only 13.1% of the sample college teachers but 45.2% ofthe sample univesity teachers.

The data on the career profile of university teachers (see Table A III.1, and A III.3 in the Appendix) show that most teachers, who got promoted in the past whether from lecturer to reader or from reader to professor, generally spent not more than 15 years and a large proportion of them not more than 10 years) at the lecturer or reader-levels respectively. Thus, of the 549 readers for whom data on their experience aslecturer is available, 87 spent only 1-5 years as lecturers, 174 only 6-10 years and 166 only 11-15 years - i.e. a total of 427 readers or 78% with not more than 15 years' experience or a total of 261 or 48% with not more than 10 years' experience as lecturers. Similarly, of the 296 professors for whom data on their experience as reader is available, 75 spent only 1-5 years as reader, 130 only 6-10 years, and 70 only 11-15 years - i.e. a total of 270 professors or 91% with not more than 15 years' experience or a total of 200 professors or 6% with not more than 10 years experience as readers. Again, of the 282 professors, for whom data on their experience as lecturers is available, 89 spent only 1-5 years as lecturers, 108 only 6-10 years and 58 only 11-15 years' i.e. a total of 255 professors or 90% with not more than 15 years' experience or a

total of 197 professors or 70% with not more than 10 years' experience as lecturers.

In the case of college teachers also, a pattern similar to that of the university teachers can be discerned. (See Table AIII.2 and AIII.4 in the Appendix). Of the 285 readers for whom data on their experience as lecturers is available, 88 spent 1-5 years, 87 spent 6-10 years and 48 spent 11-15 years as lecturers - i.e. a total of 223 readers or 78% with not more than 15 years' experience or a total of 175 or 61% readers with not more than 10 years' experience as lecturers. Similarly, of the 133 professors for whom data on their experience as readers is available, 64 spent 1-5 years, 49 spent 6-10 years and 16 spent 11-15 years as readers - i.e. a total of 129 professors or 97% with not more than 15 years' experience or a total of 113 professors or 85% with not more than 10 years' experience as readers. Again, of the 404 professors for whom data on their experience as lecturer is available, 103 spent 1-5 years, 104 spent 6-10 years' and 136 spent 11-15 years as lecturers - i.e. a total of 343 professsors or 85% with not more than 15 years' experience or a total of 207 professors or 51% with not more than 10 years' experience as lecturers.

Besides considering the promotion prospects of the entire group of teachers, whether readers or professors, it is useful to also divide the groups according to their experience in their present position and consider whether significant differences prevailed at various time periods in the past in terms of the promotional prospects of teachers.

Figures I and II (based on Tables AIII.1 and AIII.2 in the Appendix) illustrate with respect to university and college readers, the various lengths of experience spent at the lecturer-level before getting promoted to the reader-level position at different times in the past. In both groups, readers with 2-5 years of experience in their present position form the largest % of the total readers followed by readers with 6-10 years of experience. Readers with one year of

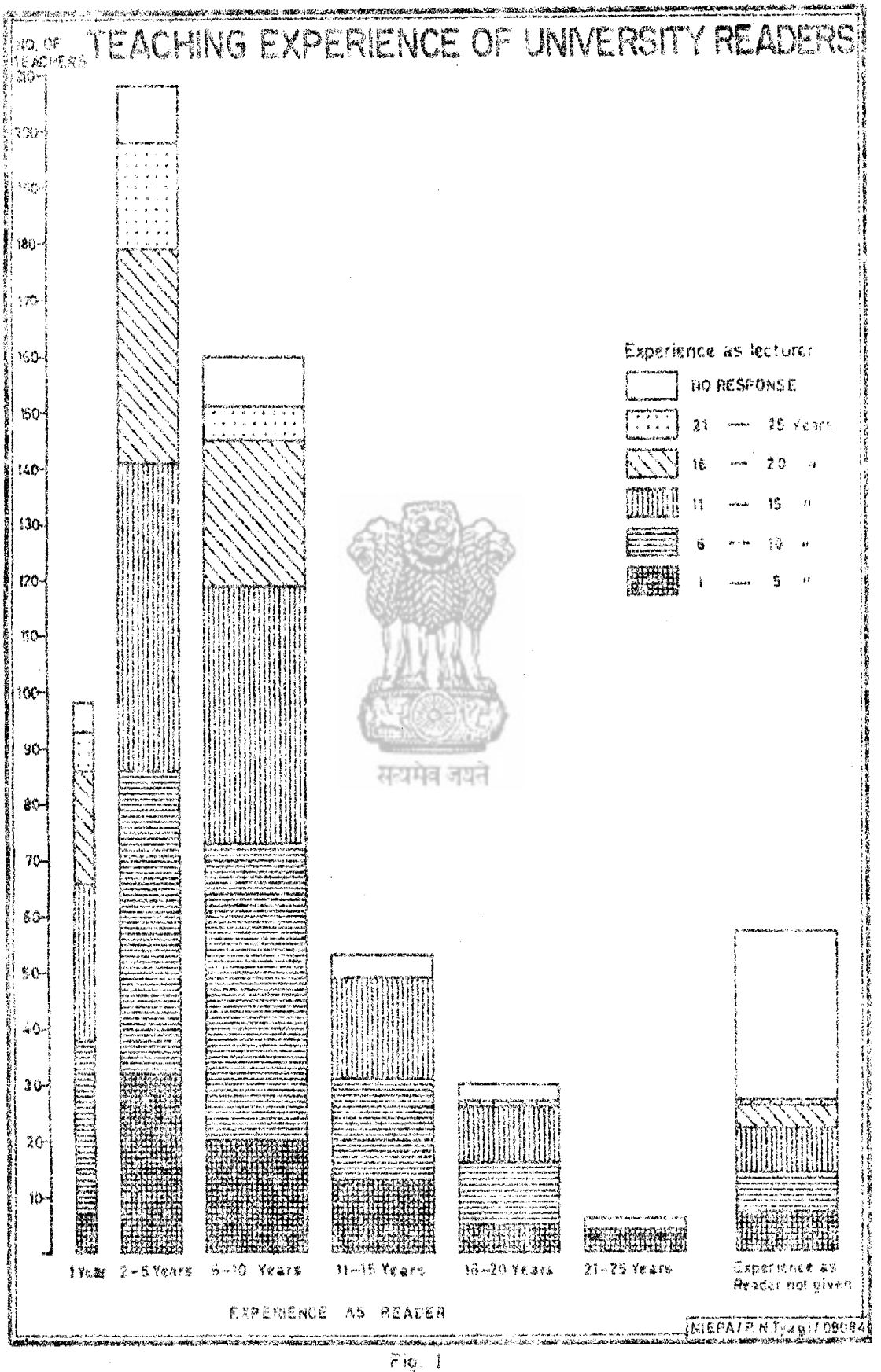

TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF UNIVERSITY READERS
NO. OF TEACHERS
Experience as lecturer
NO RESPONSE
21 — 25 Years
16 — 20 "
11 — 15 "
6 — 10 "
1 — 5 "
1 Year
2-5 Years
6-10 Years
11-15 Years
16-20 Years
21-25 Years
Experience as Reader not given
EXPERIENCE AS READER

Fig. 1

TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF COLLEGE READERS

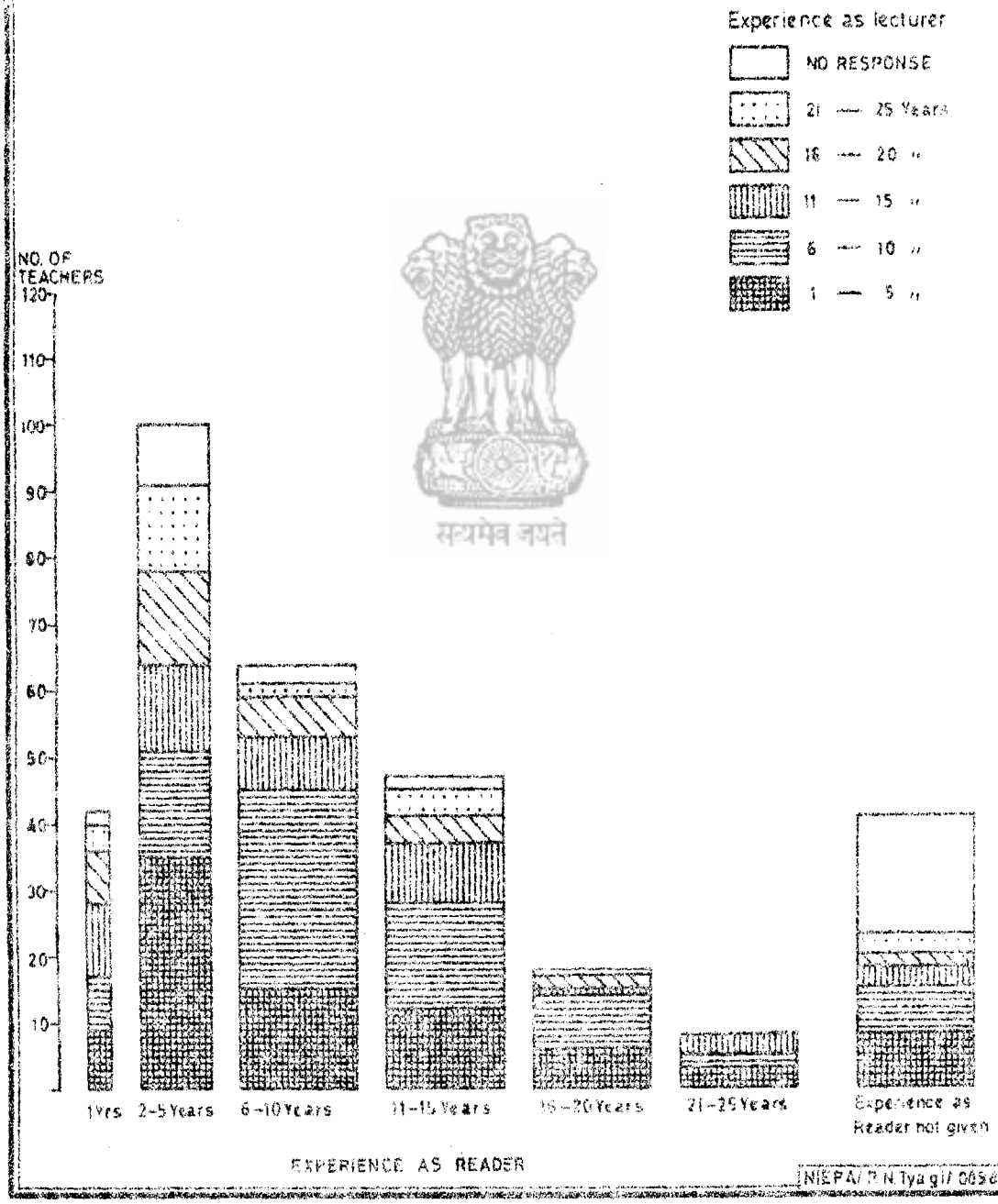


Fig. 11

experience and those with 11-15 years of experience also form sizable groups although smaller than the former 2 groups. University readers with 11-15 years of experience while college readers with 6-10 years of experience seem to have had somewhat better promotional prospects when they were lecturers as compared to other groups of the present readers among whom there are not very marked differences in terms of their experience as lecturer before getting their promotions to the reader-level postion.

Figures III and IV (Based on Table A III.3 and AIII.4 in the Appendix) illustrate with respect to university and college professors, the various lengths of experience spent at the lecturer-level position and at the reader-level position at different times in the past. In the case of university professors, no matter what their present experience as professor, most got their promotions from the reader-level after spending 6-10 years as readers. However, quite a number of the professors also got their promotions after spending 1-5 years as well as 11-15 years as readers - this is particularly true for the professors whose present experience as professor is one year, 2-5 years and 6-10 years (except for those with one year of experience as professor among whom only a small % got promoted after 1-5 years of past experience as reader). If we consider the experience of the present university professors when they were at the lecturer-level position, we find that most spent only 1-5 years or 6-10 years in that position. Also, we find that in all groups (except those with more than 15 years of present experience as professor), the professors, who became readers within 1-5 years are also relatively the fewest ones who spent only 1-5 years as lecturers.

In the case of college professors, it should be noted that in all cases and, especially among those with 2-5 years' and 6-10 years' experience as professor respectively, there is no response from a large number (in fact this number often outweighs the number who did respond) about their past experience as reader. Among the two groups of professors i.e. those with one year and 2-5 years of experience as professor respectively, it is those with 6-10 years of past experience

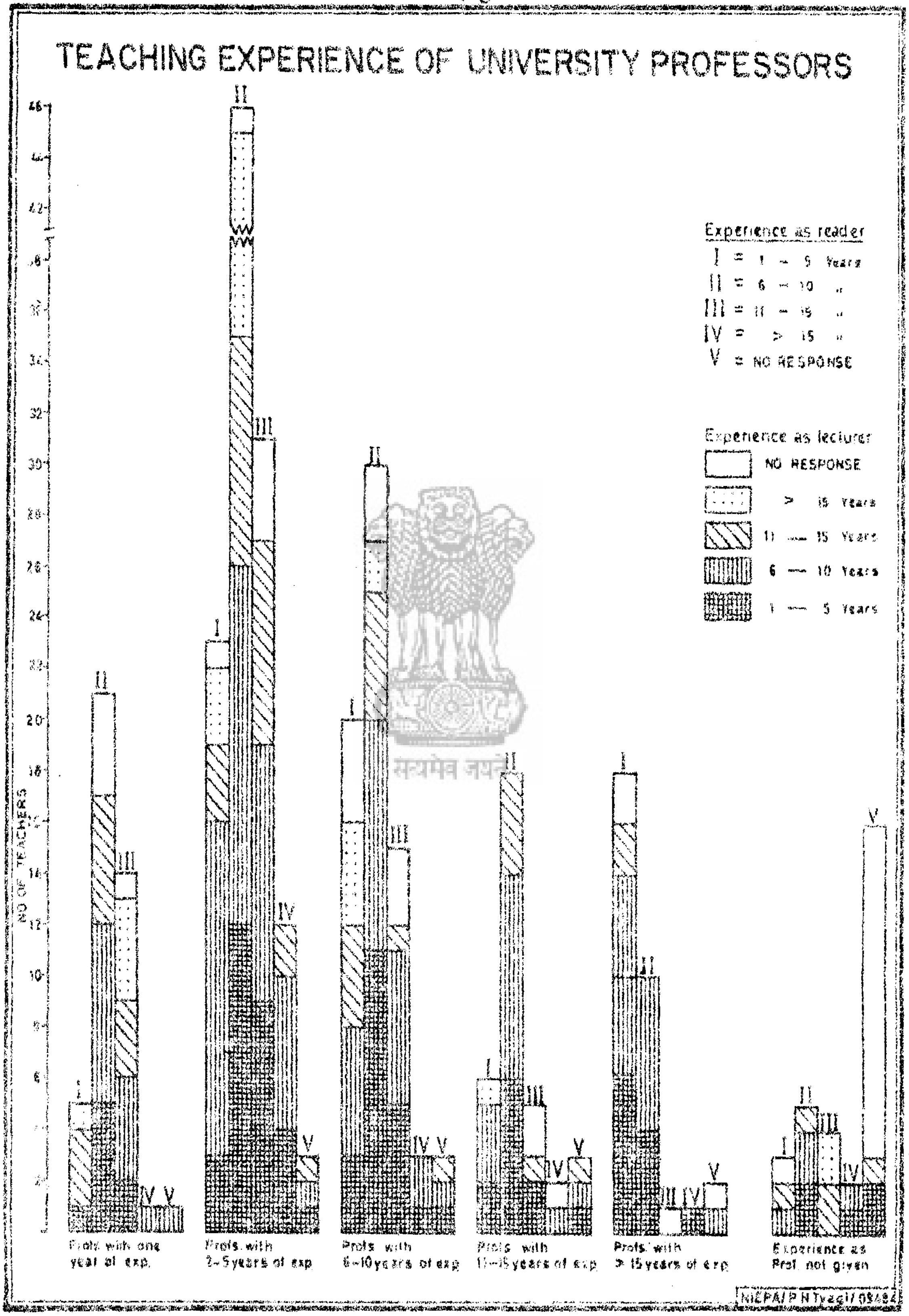

TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS
NO. OF TEACHERS
Experience as reader
I = 1 – 5 Years
II = 6 – 10 „
III = 11 – 15 „
IV = > 15 „
V = NO RESPONSE
Experience as lecturer
NO RESPONSE
> 15 Years
11 — 15 Years
6 — 10 Years
1 — 5 Years
Profs. with one year of exp.
Profs. with 2–5 years of exp.
Profs. with 6–10 years of exp.
Profs. with 11–15 years of exp.
Profs. with > 15 years of exp.
Experience as Prof. not given
NIEPA/P.N.Tyagi/08484

Fig. III

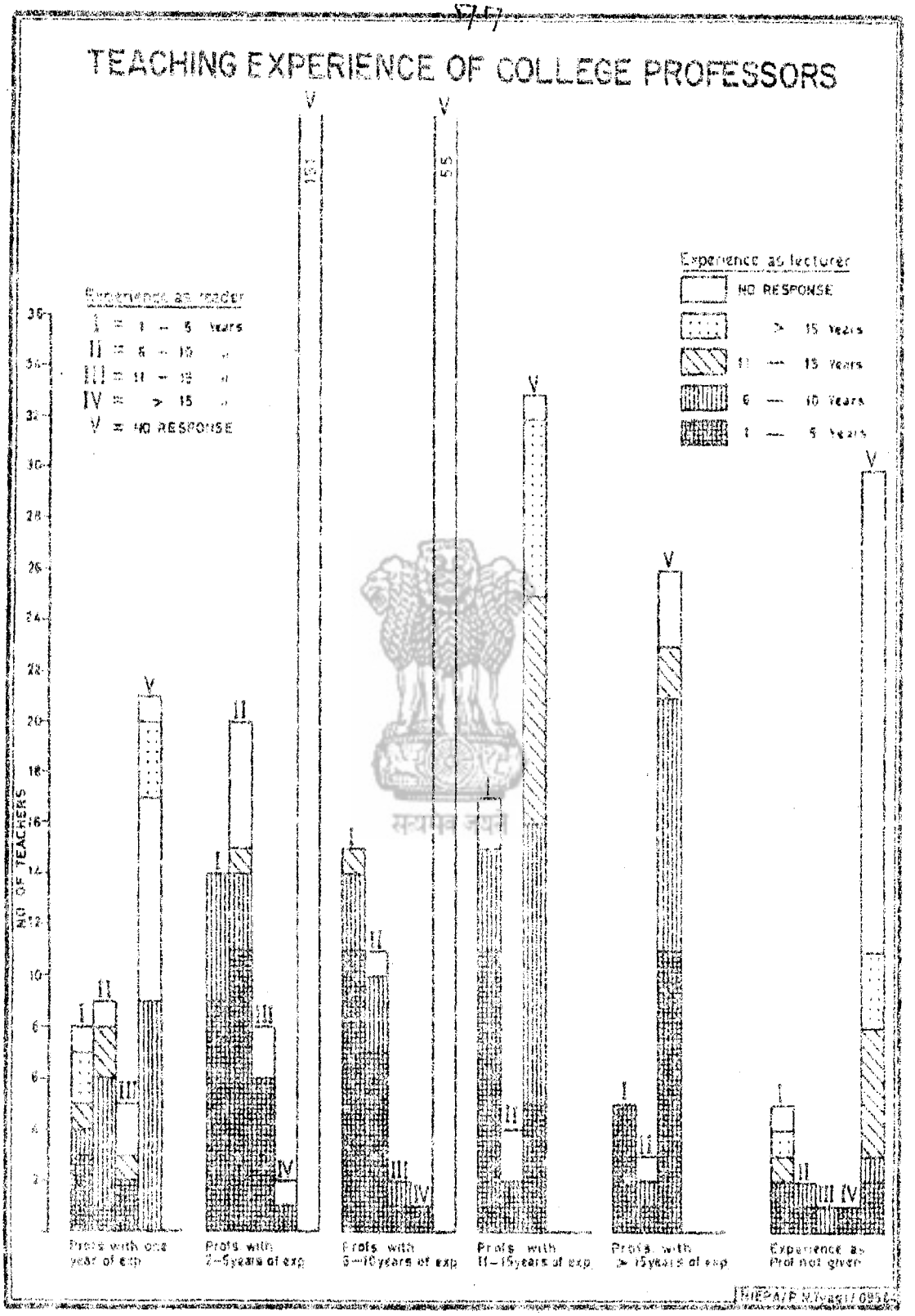

TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF COLLEGE PROFESSORS
Experience as reader
I = 1 — 5 Years
II = 6 — 10 "
III = 11 — 15 "
IV = > 15 "
V = NO RESPONSE
Experience as lecturer
NO RESPONSE
> 15 Years
11 — 15 Years
6 — 10 Years
1 — 5 Years
NO OF TEACHERS
Profs with one year of exp
Profs with 2–5years of exp
Profs with 6–10years of exp
Profs with 11–15years of exp
Profs with > 15years of exp
Experience as Prof not given

Fig IV

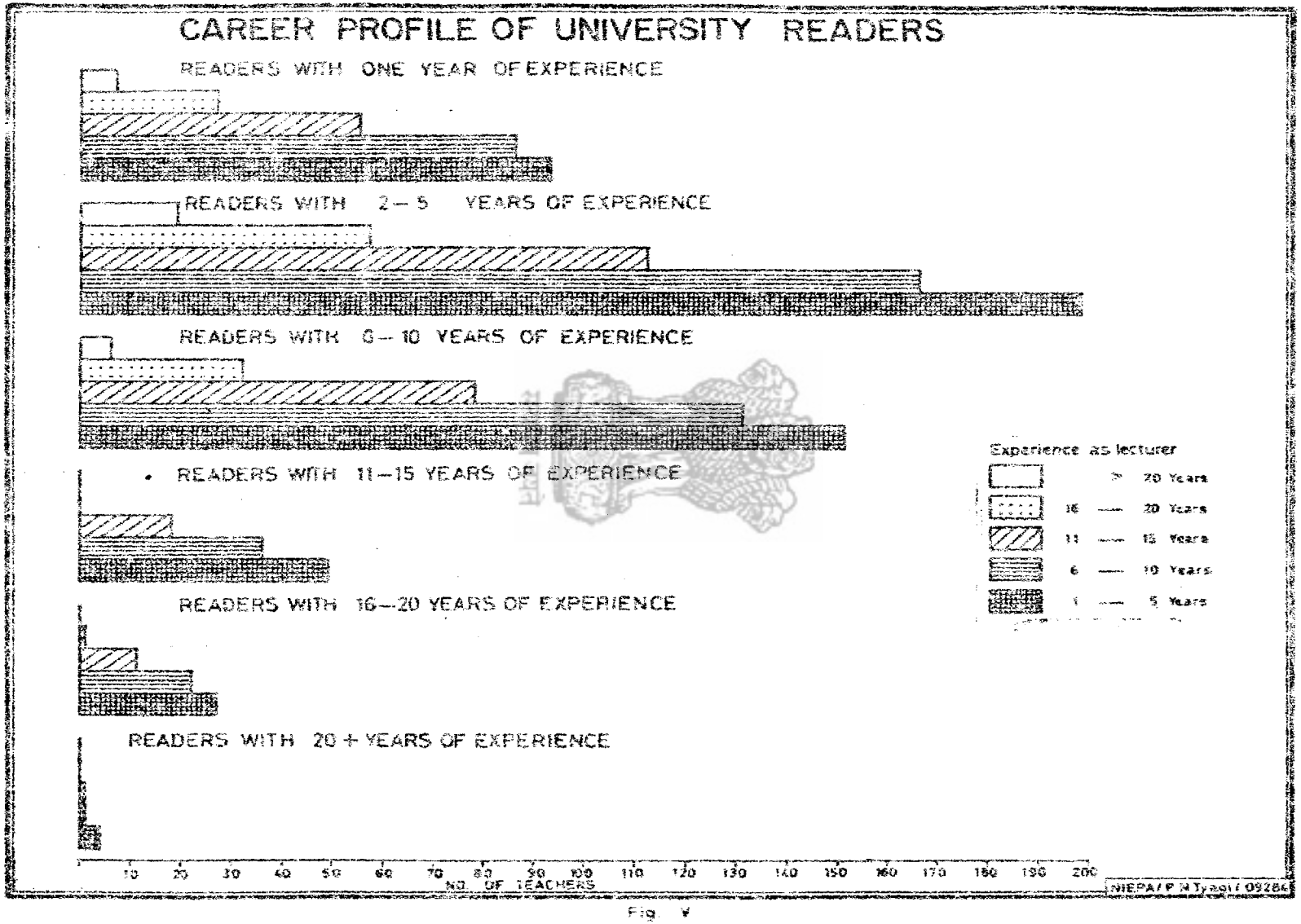
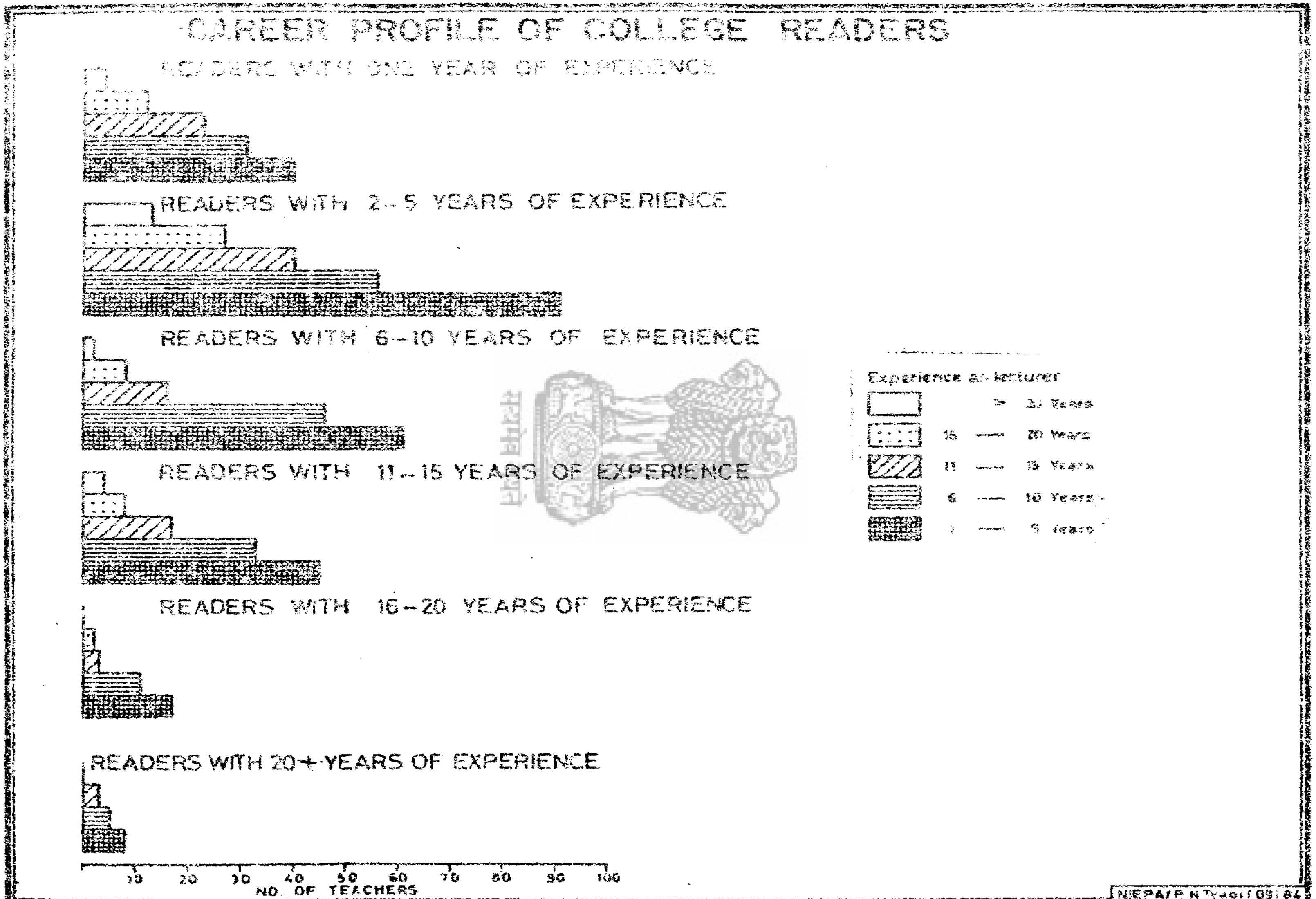

CAREER PROFILE OF UNIVERSITY READERS
READERS WITH ONE YEAR OF EXPERIENCE
READERS WITH 2 — 5 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
READERS WITH 6 — 10 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
READERS WITH 11—15 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
READERS WITH 16—20 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
READERS WITH 20 + YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
Experience as lecturer
> 20 Years
16 — 20 Years
11 — 15 Years
6 — 10 Years
1 — 5 Years
10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 110 120 130 140 150 160 170 180 190 200
NO. OF TEACHERS
NIEPA/P.N.Tyagi/09284

Fig. V

77



CAREER PROFILE OF COLLEGE READERS
READERS WITH ONE YEAR OF EXPERIENCE
READERS WITH 2–5 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
READERS WITH 6–10 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
READERS WITH 11–15 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
READERS WITH 16–20 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
READERS WITH 20+ YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
Experience as lecturer
> 20 Years
16 — 20 Years
11 — 15 Years
6 — 10 Years
1 — 5 Years
10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100
NO. OF TEACHERS
NIEPA/P N Tyagi/05/84

Fig. VI

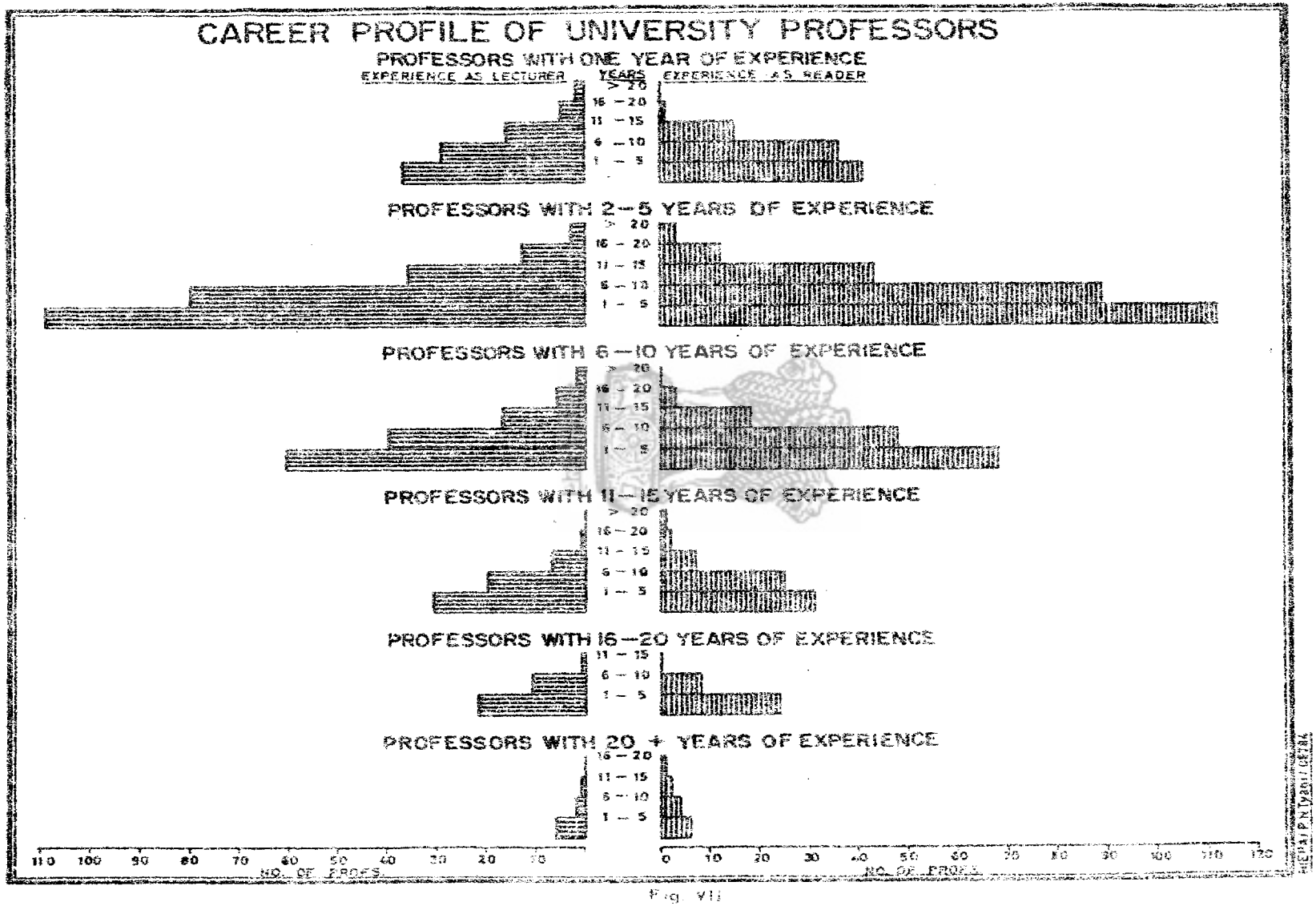

CAREER PROFILE OF UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS
PROFESSORS WITH ONE YEAR OF EXPERIENCE
EXPERIENCE AS LECTURER
YEARS
EXPERIENCE AS READER
> 20
16 – 20
11 – 15
6 – 10
1 – 5
PROFESSORS WITH 2–5 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
PROFESSORS WITH 6–10 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
PROFESSORS WITH 11–15 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
PROFESSORS WITH 16–20 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
PROFESSORS WITH 20 + YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
110 100 90 80 70 60 50 40 30 20 10
NO. OF PROFS.
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 110 120
NO. OF PROFS.

Fig VII

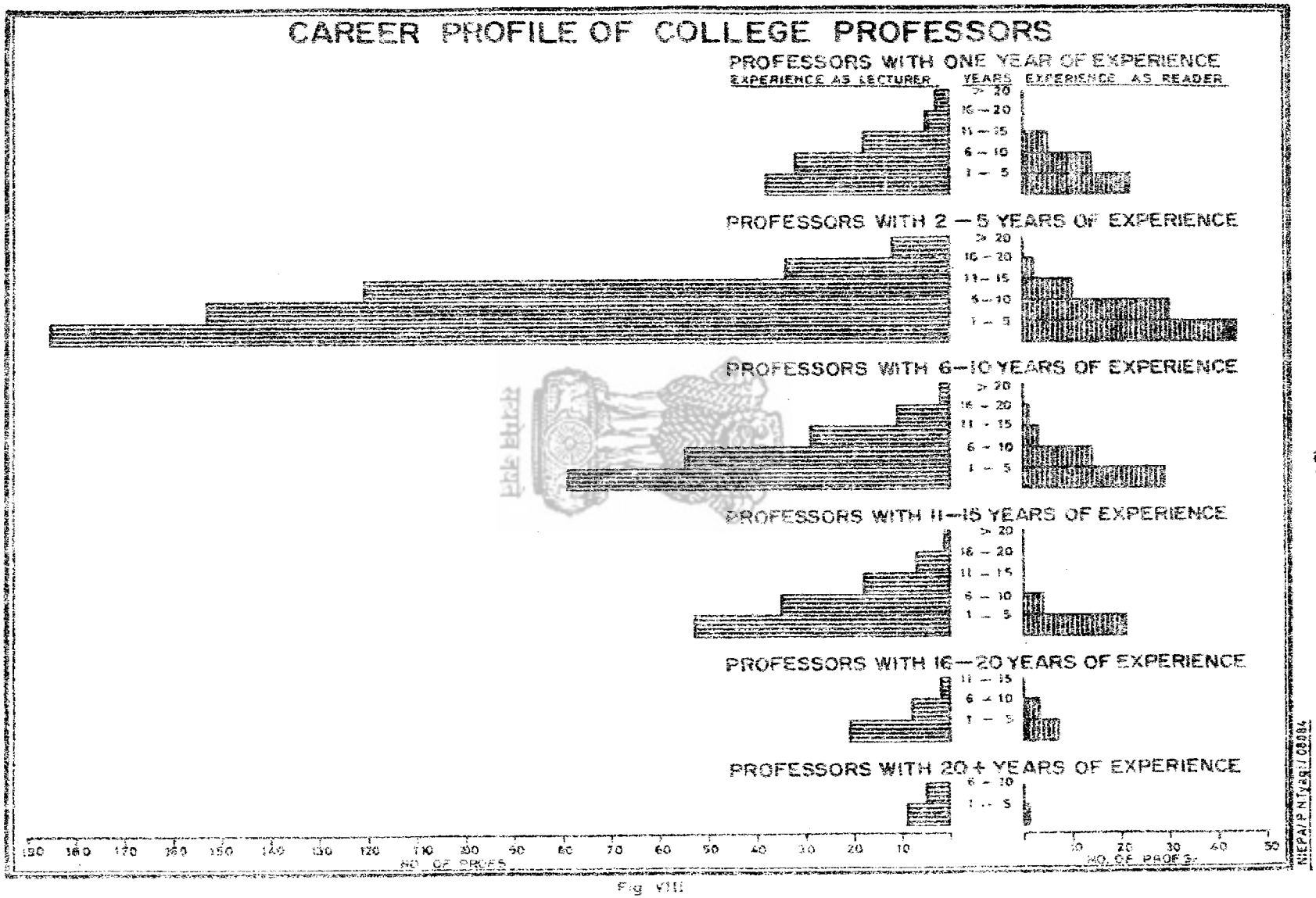


Fig VIII

as reader outnumber those with 1-5 years while the reverse is true for the other three groups, of professors viz., those with 6-10, 11-15 and 15+ years of experience as professor respectively. When we consider the experience of the present college professors, when they were at the lecturer-level postion, we find that in all groups, the promotion from lecturer-level occurred to a large extent within 1-5 years and sometimes within 6-10 years.

Figures V and VI (based on Table A III.5 in the Appendix) shows thecareer profiles of universities and college readers in terms of their experience as lecturers. In the case of university readers, in most cases, we find the smallest % of readers who got their promotion within 1-5 years of experience as lecturer unlike the case of the college readers of whom a relatively larger % got promotions within 1-5 years of experience as lecturer. However,the reverse is true for the groups ofuniversity and college readers with respect to 6-10 years' and 11-15 years' experience as lecturer. Further, the jumps from one stage to the next stage of the pyramids - each stage depicting the number of readers having a particular length of experience as lecturer - seem somewhat more even in the case of college readers than of university readers.

Figures VII and VIII (based on Table A III.6 and A III.7 in the Appendix) show the career profiles of university and college professors in terms of their experience as readers on the right-hand side (RHS) and as lecturers on the left-hand side (LHS) of the various pyramids, each of which refers to the professsors having a particular length of present experience as professor. While in the case of university professors, most of them had experience as lecturers as well as readers (hence there is not much difference between the LHS and RHS of the various pyramids),in the case of college professors, on the other hand, there were many professors with experience as lecturer but not with experience as reader (hence the LHS of the various pyramids is much larger than the RHS). However, this cannot be taken to imply that in the case of colleges, teachers had double-promotions, i.e. straight from the lecturer to the professor-level position without

going through the reader-level position. What is more likely is that in colleges, senior-lecturers (i.e. reader-level teachers) and sometimes, even lecturers with long experience get the designation of professor although the salary-grade would be less than the salary grade of a normal professor, say in the university). Hence, too much reliance cannot be placed on the career profile of the college-professors as shown in the diagram. In the case of university professors, the 2 halves (i.e. the LHS and RHS) of the various pyramids are nearly symmetrical implyingthat the professors with different lengths of experience in their present position as professor had more or less similar promotion prospects whether from lecturer to reader-level or from reader-to professor-level at various times in the past.

The above data gives the impression that, among the readers and professors who got their promotion, a larger % of those in colleges generally got promoted earlier than those in universities. However, this kindof comparison between college and university readers or between college and university professors is vitiated by the fact that, in the case of colleges, the designations of reader and professor are not necessarily linked with the salary-grades of reader and professor respectively, as in the case of the university teachers. For instance, in Tamil Nadu, a college lecturer with more than 10 years of experience is addressed as professor although he may continue to remain in the lecturer's salary-grade.

It should also be noted that the above data refers to only those college and university teachers who actually got promotions in the past without any reference to the rest of the teachers in the two groups who did not get any promotion at that time. Hence, even if the larger percentage of the college teachers who were actually promoted may appear to have generally got their promotions earlier, as compared to the university teachers, (this was true, especially, when colleges were expanding rapidly in the past and a certain percentage of the total staff-strength in the college could be filled by teachers at a higher level of position after facing a selection committee which was

less stringent as compared to a university selection committee) this by no means implies that the entire group of college teachers; (i.e. the very small percentage of promotees plus the large percentage of non-promotees) is better off in terms of career development than the entire group of university teachers among whom the ratio of promotees to non-promotees is certainly higher than in the case of college teachers - i.e. the university ratio of 946 (i.e. 618 readers and 329 professors): 1148 (lecturers) is much better than the college-ratio of 775 (i.e. 323 readers and 452 professors): 5159 (lecturers).

Further, as shown in the table below, it can be seen that for the country as a whole, the ratio of lecturers to senior teachers has actually increased over time in colleges but decreased in universities, particularly in recent years. This implies that the promotional prospects for college teachers which, to start with, were already poorer than those of university teachers, have worsened further over time so that the gap in the prospects for career developement between the two groups of college and university teachers seems to have widened over time instead of having narrowed down.

Table III.1

Ratio of lecturers to senior teachers in colleges and universities (1971-2 to 1982-3)*

Year	Lecturers : Senior Teachers in Colleges	Lecturers : Readers Professors in Universities	Lecturers : Senior Teachers (i.e. Readers & Professorss) in Universities
1971-72	6.2:1	6.7:1.6:1	2.6:1
1972-73	6.1:2	6.7:1.6:1	2.6:1
1973-74	6.6:1	6.7:1.6:1	2.5:1
1974-75	6.3:1	6.3:1.8:1	2.2:1
1975-76	6.4:1	6.9:1.8:1	2.4:1
1976-77	6.4:1	6.8:1.9:1	2.4:1
1977-78	6.8:1	6.9:1.9:1	2.3:1
1978-79	6.9:1	6.9:1.9:1	2.2:1
1979-80	8.2:1	6.5:2.0:1	2.2:1
1980-81	7.8:1	6.3:1.9:1	2.1:1
1981-82	8.6:1	6.4:2.2:1	2.0:1
1982-83	8.6:1	6.4:2.2:1	2.0:1

* Derived from data in the UGC Annual Reports which is given in the Appendix as Table Nos.

It may however be noted that the situation has substantially changed both in colleges and universites in the wake of "personal promotions" on a large scale.

From the discussion above, the following main conclusions about the career development prospects of college and university teachers for the pre-"personal promotion" period can be made:

1) College teachers (whether in the past or at the present) have always had much poorer promotional prospects than university teachers in terms of the very low % of the former group who are able to get promoted as compared to the larger % of the latter group.

2) The promotional prospects of college teachers have worsened over time (as seen from the data from 1971-72 onwards to the present) while those of university teachers have somewhat improved.

3) The very few fortunate college teachers, who did get promoted in the past, generally got their promotions more easily than the university teachers who also got their promotions in the past, even if they were larger in number. This aspect combined with the deterioration over time in the promotional prospects of the college teachers who are still at lecturer-level at present implies greater disparity between the very few promotees and the large number of non-promotes in the colleges as compared with the situation in the universities. The recent agitations for better promotion prospects in various parts of the country much more by college-teachers than by university teachers - can, perhaps, be explained, at least partly, in terms of what has just been discussed above.

4) No significant differences can be discerned in the past promotional prospects of teachers with different lengths of experience in their present positions (i.e. readers as well as professors who got their promotions at different times in the past). However, with the recent trend towards more or less automatic promotions in a number of places in the country, the past promotional prospects of teachers are not very useful as a guide for the present promotional prospects of teachers.

Initial position and year in which teachers were appointed

The position in which the teacher is first employed is the starting point for his career development. In the case of colleges, about19% of the teachers have been employed elsewhere before being

appointed as lecturer. The corresponding % for the university teacher is 26%. The data on the % of teachers appointed in various years shows that till 1965, a larger % of teachers were appointed in universities than in colleges whereas after 1965, the reverse is true. Thus, till1965, 37% of the teachers were appointed in the universities but only 24% of the teachers were appointed in colleges. On the other hand, after 1965, 57% of the university and 70% of the college teachers were appointed (6% each of the college and university teachers did not respond). The pressures for better promotional prospects are likely to arise more from the post-1965 appointed group ofteachers and more so in colleges than in universities - not only because there is a larger % of teachers in the colleges but also becausein the past, colleges have offered less opportunities for promotion than universities.

Capacity in which teachers are employed

Theexperienceof a teacher in various capacities i.e. ad hoc, temporary and permanent also reflects his career development prospects. In the case of colleges, 15% of the lecturers, 8% of the readers and 6% of the professors had some experience in ad hoc capacity. The corresponding figures for the universities are 19%, 11% and 8%.

With respect to experience in temporary capacity, we find 39% of lecturers, 20% ofteachers and 12% of professors in the case of colleges but 32% of lecturers, 22% of readers and 13% of professors in the case of universities.

Thus, contrary to expectations, a larger percentage of university teachers than college teachers have had experience in both ad hoc and temporary capacities in case of most categories of length of service. However, there is very little gap between the two groups of teachers in case of experience in temporary capacity as compared with that of capacity.

With respect to experience in permanent capacity, we find 70% of lecturers, 72% of readers, and 80% of professors have such experience in the case of colleges while the corresponding figures in the case of universities are 71%, 71% and 77%. Thus, there does not seem to be much difference between the two groups of teachers in terms of their experience in permanent capcity.

Experience (in years) of teachers at various present levels and the extent of their stagnation

The length of experience of teachers at their various present levels of lecturer, reader and professor gives an idea of the extent of stagnation that teachers are facing at the various levels. As shown in the table below, about 20% of the college lecturers are to be found in each of the 3 categories of experience : 2-5 years, 6-10 years and 11-15 years, about 6% each in less than one year and more than 20 years categories and 13% in the 16-20 years, category. (11%) of the lecturers did not respond. Thus about 40% of the college lecturers have experience of more than 10 years without any promotion.

Table III.2

% of teachers with various lengths of experience (in years) according to their present position

Experience	Less than 2 Yrs	2-5 Years	6-10 Years	11-15 Years	16-20 Years	Over 20 Years	No Resp.	Total No. of Teachers
Lecturers								
College	6.2	22.1	21.3	19.5	12.7	6.6	10.9	5117
University	8.1	25.5	27.4	14.4	7.2	5.8	10.8	1139
Readers								
College	13.3	31.0	20.1	14.6	5.6	2.5	12.7	322
University	15.9	34.0	26.1	8.6	4.9	1.0	9.2	615
Professors								
College	9.5	43.4	18.6	12.2	5.3	2.2	8.8	452
University	12.8	35.0	21.6	19.6	7.3	2.4	9.1	325

Abouthalf the college readers have 2-5 years' and 6.10 years' experience (31% and 20% respectively in the two categories) and of the remaining, 13% have less than one year,15% have 11-15 years, 6% have 16.20 years and 3% have more than 20 years' experience (13% ofthe readers did not respond).

Thus, 24% of the collge readers have experience of more than 10 years without any promotion.

In the case of college professors, 43% have 2-5 years, experience 19% have 6-10 years, 12% have 11-15 years, 5% have 6-10 years, 12% have 11-15 years, 5% have 16-20 years, 2% have more than 20 years and 10% have less than 1 year of experience (9% of the professors did not respond.) Thus 19% of the college professors have experience of more than 10 years without any promotion.

In the case of the universities, 26% and 27% of the lecturers have 2-5 years and 6-10 years of experience respectively, while 14% have 11-15 years, 7% have 16-20 years, 6% more than 20 years and 8% have less than one year of experience (11% of the lecturers did not respond). Thus, 27% of the university lecturers have experience of more than 10 years without any promotion.

Again, 60% of the university readers have 2-5 years and 6-10 years of experience (34% and 26% respectively in the two categories), 9% have 11-15 years, 5% have 16-20 years, 1% more than 20 years and 16% les than one year of experience (9% of the readrs did not resond).. Thus, 15% of the university readers have experience of more than 10 years without any promotion.

Among the university professors, 35% have 2-5 years, 22% have 6-10 years, 11% have 11-15 years, 7% have 16-20 years, 2% more than 20 years and 13% less than 1 year of experience (9% of the university professors have experience of more than 10 years without any promotion.

Theabovedata clearly show that in the case of colleges, the extent of stagnation decreases as we move higher up in terms of the level of position i.e. lecturers face the most and professors the least stagnation with readers lying in between the two. In the case of universities, the extent of stagnation decreases as we move from lecturer level to reader-level positions but increases as we move from reader-level to professor-level positions. In both the cases of college and university teachers, the extent of stagnation at all three levels of position is fairly high, particularly for the college

lecturers. When we compare between college and university teachers, there is clearly more stagnation of colige teachers than of university teachers at both the levels of lecturer and reader (the gap between the two groups being wider for lecturers than for readers). At the level of professor, however, university teachers are slightly worse-off than college teachers.

Mobility of Teachers : Empirical Findings

Mobility can be of two types: (a) horizontal mobility and (b) vertical mobility. Horizontal mobility implies that the teacher has moved from one institution to another but is employed at the same level in both institutions. The institutions could be either both colleges or both universities or a college and a university. In both cases, the two institutions could be located in the same place or at different places. Even if the teacher is employed at the same level of position in both institutions, horizontal mobility can have implications for career development depending on the type of institution that the teacher leaves and the type he enters. Thus, e.g., if a teacher moves from an undergraduate college to a postgraduate college or to a university it can be said that there is an improvement in his career although his position, say that of lecturer, may be the same in both institutions. On the other hand, if the teacher, moved in the opposite direction and in the same level of position it would have adverse implications for his career development.

The data on the number of times the teachers moved at the same level between one institution and another (the type of institution has not been indicated so that it is not possible to consider the implications of such horizontal mobility for career development) shows that about two-thirds of the teachers both in colleges and universities never moved. On the other hand, about 16% of college and 19% of university teachers moved only once, about 11% moved 2 to 3 times and 4% moved 4 to 5 times (in the case of both college and university teachers). Hardly any teachers moved more than 5 times.

There is not much difference between male and female teachers and between teachers in different levels of position whether in colleges or in universities in terms of the % who moved at the same level between one institution and another. Thus, the lack of horizontal mobility of teachers, in general, is evident from the sample data.

Vertical mobility, on the other hand, directly reflects the career development of teachers. Such mobility refers to the mobility from lecturer to reader-level or from reader to professor-level or from lecturer-to Principal/Professor level. A teacher can move vertically either at the same institution or from one institution to another (the two institutions being located at the same place or at different places).

The data on the number of times the teachers moved from a lower-to a higher-level position between one institution and another reveals the lack of vertical mobility in the case of a large % of the teachers. With respect to movement from lecturer-to reader-level, 65% each of the college and university teachers never moved, while 4.6% of college and 14% of university teachers moved just once, and 0.7% of college and 1.5% of university teachers moved 2 to 3 times. With respect to movement from reader-to professor-level, 69% of the college and 76% of the university teachers never moved, while 1.8% of the college and 4.7% of the university teachers moved 2 to 3 times. With respect to movement from lecturer to principal/professor-level, 67% of the college and 77% of the university teachers never moved, while about 3.2% of both college and university teachers moved just once, and 0.3% of both college and university teachers moved 2 to 3 times.

There is not much difference between male and female teachers in terms of the various types of vertical mobility except for the one case of movement from lecturer to reader-level among university teachers where 63% of male and 73.6% of female teachers never moved while 15.7% of male and 6.7% of female teachers moved just once and 1.7% of male and 0.8% of female teachers moved 2 to 3 times. Regarding the difference between teachers in different levels of

position in terms of their vertical mobility, as expected, a larger % of readers and professors, as compared to lecturers, moved from the lecturer to reader-level (the differences being greater for university than for college teachers). Similarly, a larger % of professors, as compared to readers or lecturers, moved from the reader-level in the universities, but in the colleges, there is not much difference between the teachers in different levels of position.

Among the other characteristics for distinguishing between teachers, the one relating to the type of management of the college in which the teachers are employed is significant when we consider the mobility of college teachers. We find that teachers in government colleges generally moved a greater number of times than in other types of colleges. Thus, there is a difference of about 15 or more percentage points between teachers in Govt colleges and in other types of colleges in terms of those who never moved whether horizontally or vertically (see Tables Nos. in the Appendix). Perhaps, this is due to the policy of transfer of teachers followed in Government colleges but not in other types of colleges. Further, teachers in statutory colleges should have greater vertical mobility as compared with their counterparts in other types of colleges, particularly from the lecturer - to reader-level. Perhaps, this is because the promotional avenues for teachers in statutory colleges are more favourable (as in the case of university teachers with whom they are generally closely linked) than for other college teachers.

When college teachers are distinguished on the basis of states in which their colleges are located, we find that in Kerala, Jammu & Kashmir and Madhya Pradesh, a larger % of teachers has never moved whereas in Goa, Rajasthan and sometimes Delhi and West Bengal a smaller % of teachers has never moved. However, without knowing the distribution of the types of colleges to which the teachers belong in each state, it is difficult to explain these variations between states. When university teachers are distinguished university-wise, we find that teachers in universities like PAU, Osmania, Jadavpur etc.

are relatively much less mobile than in universities like NEHU (Data in Tables in the Appendix).

Since the data on vertical mobility covers only those teachers who moved to a higher level position by shifting from one institution to another and excludes teachers who moved to a higher level position at the same institution, it is not surprising to find that such a large % of readers or professors never moved. Such teachers would have moved vertically at least once in the same institution although this movement has been excluded in the data. It is important to note the high % of non-response i.e. 29% for college teachers and 19% for university teachers with respect to each of the above 3 types of vertical mobility i.e. from lecturer to reader-level, from reader to professor-level and from lecturer to principal/professor level. However, the lack of vertical mobility is clearly evident from the data for those college and university teachers who did respond.

Data is also available on the number of times teachers moved from an under-graduate college to post-graduate college or vice versa, and from a college to a university or vice versa. This data again shows the large % (nearly two-thirds in each case) of teachers who never moved. Such mobility could be horizontal or vertical and it is not possible to distinguish between the two from the data. Also, as the movement in each case could also be in the opposite direction (i.e. from a p.g. to a u.g. college and from a university to a college), the implications for career development of movement at the same level of position i.e. horizontal mobility are not clear from the data.

So far we considered the mobility of teachers in so far as it relates to their movement from one educational institution to another at the same level of position as also their movement between educational institutions from one level of position to another - i.e. mobility within the educational system alone. One other type of mobility of teachers, which can have implications for their career development, is the mobility between the educational system and other sectors of the economy. For example, if, as in foreign countries like

U.S.A., teachers can often move from teaching to industry or government and vice versa, such mobility can enable them to advance in their career. Unfortunately, such inter-sectoral mobility is possible to a very limited extent in India. Data on the teachers who moved into the teaching profession from other sectors shows that (a) 2.6% of college and 4.1% of university teachers moved from the production sector; (b) 7.3% of college and 10.9% of university teachers moved from government, (c) 2.3% of college and 1.2% of university teachers moved from self-employment and (d) 2.3% of college and 2.4% of university teachers moved from other services. Thus, one may conclude that most of the teachers (i.e. about 86% of college and 82% of university teachers), who are in the colleges and universities at present have always been in the teaching profession. No data, is, however, available on the mobility of teachers in the opposite direction i.e. from the educational system to the various other sectors. Such mobility could imply career development for the teachers although it would also mean that they have left the teaching profession so that such mobility itself does not contribute to the career development of teachers as such unless they ultimately return to the teaching profession.

Non monetary rewards affecting career development; : Empirical Findings

One type of non-salary reward in terms of influence/prestige about which data is available from the questionnaire relates to whether teachers thought that their participation in policy-making bodies like parliament, state assembly, education boards at various levelsand advisory bodies to the central/state government should be further encouraged or not. Such participation would be indicative of the prestige and recognition accorded to the teacher i.e. this form of non-salary reward is relevant when considering the career development of the teacher. Nearly two-thirds of both college and university teachers thought that teachers' participation in the parliament as also in the state assembly should be further encouraged (22% and 20% of the teachers gave a negative response for participation in parliament and state assembly respectively and about 15% gave no

response at all). Again, 92% and 86% of the teachers (the difference in % between colleges and universities is negligible) thought that their participation in education boards at various levels and advisory bodies to central/state government respectively should be further encouraged (the rest were mainly non-respondents and the % of teachers who gave a negative response was negligible). It is interesting to note that a larger % of males than females gave a positive response in each case, whereas in the case of teachers at different levels of position, there is not much difference in the % of teachers who gave a positive response. Considering the large % of teachers who favour their participation in the various policy-making bodies, measures taken to ensure such participation would also result in the improvement of the prospects for the teachers' career development.

The participation of teachers in decision-making bodies of their institution may also be considered as indicative of their career development. As in the case of participation in policy-making bodies outside their institution, the participation of teachers in decision-making within their institution implies prestige/influence (i.e. a non-salary award) and a teacher who exercises it may generally be considered to be better-off in terms of career development than another teacher, who does not exercise such prestige/influence. The data reveal, however, that 63% of the college and 70% of the university teachers felt that the existing level of teachers' representation in various decision-making bodies of their institution was not adequate (only 23% of college & 18% of university teachers felt it was adequate while 14% of the college and 12% of the university teachers did not respond at all to this question). Again, of the 44% of college and 46% of university teachers who responded whether or not their participation was satisfying to them 15% of the college and 20% of the university-teachers gave a negative response. Thus, on the one hand a large % of the teachers felt that the existing level of teachers' representation in various decision-making bodies of their institution was not adequate, and, on the other, among the much smaller % of teachers, who participated in decision-making, 1/3 of them felt that their participation was not satisfying to them. Hence

it is not clear whether or not teachers' participation in decision-making can really be indicative of their career development in the context of the type of decision-making which prevails in their institutions at present.

FOOTNOTES

1. The recent Central Universities Committee Report, for example, shows how a high % (from 70% to 90%) of readers & professors posts during 1976-81 to be filled in by internal candidate in most central universities.

2. This fact is true not only for India but even in other countries like USA- See Donald Light Jr. op cit. Similarly, in the Australian context, S.G. Hiremath: op.cit. distinguishes between the four paths of teacher-scholar, research-and-publications scholar, research-consultant, & professor-administrant.

3. See Priorities for Action: Final Report of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, p. 37-38, McGraw Hill (1973).

4. See Report of the Education Commission, 1964-66, p. 91.

5. See Report of (Sen Committee) Committee on Governance of Universities and Colleges, Part II : Teachers, UGC (1973).

6. See Philip G. Altbach (ed), Comparative Perspectives on the Academic Profession, Praeger, 1977, p. 75. for Australia, p. 99 for Canac etc.

7. Altbach, op.cit, p.140, mentions that among the Latin American professoriate, seniority is often used as a basis for promotion.

8. The Sen Committee had argued for such a scheme earlier.

9. See "Promotion with or without merit", The Hindu, Feb. 9, 1983 (p.19).

APPENDIX

Table No.A III.1

Teaching Experience of University Readers

Experience as Reader	Experience as Lecturer						
	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	11-15 Years	16-20 Years	21-25 Years	No RSP	Total
One Year	7 (7.1)	31 (31.6)	28 (28.6)	20 (20.4)	7 (7.1)	5 (5.1)	98
2-5 years	32 (15.4)	54 (26.0)	55 (26.4)	38 (18.3)	19 (9.1)	10 (4.8)	208
6-10 years	20 (12.5)	53 (33.1)	46 (28.8)	26 (16.3)	6 (3.8)	9 (5.6)	160
11-15 years	13 (24.5)	18 (34.0)	18 (34.0)	0 (00.0)	0 (00.0)	4 (7.5)	53
16=20 years	5 (16.7)	11 (36.7)	10 (33.3)	1 (3.3)	0 (00.0)	3 (10.0)	30
21-25 years	3 (50.0)	0 (00.0)	1 (16.7)	0 (00.0)	0 (00.0)	2 (33.3)	6
Total	80 (14.4)	167 (30.1)	158 (28.5)	85 (15.3)	32 (5.8)	33 (5.9)	555
No Rsp	7	7	8	4	1	30	57
Total + No Rsp	87	174	166	89	33	63	612

Figures in breackets indicate the row wise percentage

Table No. A III.2
Teaching Experience of College Readers

Experience as Reader	Experience as Lecturer						
	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	11-15 Years	16-20 Years	21-25 Years	No RSP	Total
One Year	9 (21.4)	8 (19.0)	11 (26.2)	8 (19.0)	4 (9.5)	2 (4.75)	42
2-5 years	35 (35.0)	16 (16.0)	13 (13.0)	14 (14.0)	13 (13.0)	9 (9.0)	100
6-10 years	15 (23.4)	30 (46.9)	8 (12.5)	6 (9.4)	2 (3.1)	3 (4.7)	64
11-15 years	12 (25.5)	16 (34.0)	9 (19.1)	4 (8.5)	4 (8.5)	2 (4.3)	47
16-20 years	6 (33.3)	8 (44.4)	1 (5.6)	2 (11.1)	0 (00.0)	1 (5.6)	18
21-25 years	3 (3.75)	2 (25.0)	3 (37.51)	0 (00.0)	0 (00.0)	0 (00.0)	8
total	80 (28.7)	80 (28.7)	45 (16.1)	34 (12.2)	23 (8.2)	17 (6.1)	279
No Rsp	8	7	3	2	3	18	41
Total + NO Rsp	88	87	48	36	26	35	320

Figures in brackets indicate the row-wise percentage.

Table No.A III.3

Teaching Experience of University Professors

Experience as Professor	Experience as Reader	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	11-15 Years	15+ Years	No RSP	Total
One Year	1-5 Yrs	1 (20.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (60.0)	1 (20.0)	0 (0.0)	5
	6-10 Yrs	5 (23.8)	7 (33.3)	5 (23.8)	0 (0.0)	4 (19.0)	21
	11-15 Yrs	2 (14.3)	4 (28.6)	3 (21.4)	4 (28.6)	1 (7.1)	14
	15+ Yrs	0 (0.0)	1 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1
	No RSP	0 (0.0)	1 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1
	Total	8 (19.0)	13 (31.0)	11 (26.2)	5 (11.9)	5 (11.9)	42
2-5 Years	1-5 Yrs	3 (13.0)	13 (56.5)	3 (13.0)	3 (13.0)	1 (4.4)	23
	6-10 Yrs	12 (26.1)	14 (30.4)	9 (19.6)	10 (21.7)	1 (2.2)	46
	11-15 Yrs	9 (29.0)	10 (32.3)	8 (25.8)	0 (0)	4 (12.9)	31
	15+	4 (33.3)	6 (50.0)	2 (16.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	12
	No RSP	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3
	Total	29 (25.2)	44 (38.3)	23 (20.0)	13 (11.3)	6 (5.2)	115
6-10 Years	1-5 Yrs	3 (13.0)	5 (25.0)	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)	20
	6-10 Yrs	11 (36.7)	9 (30.0)	5 (16.7)	2 (6.7)	3 (10.0)	30
	11-15 Yrs	5 (33.3)	6 (40.0)	1 (6.7)	0 (0)	3 (0)	15
	15+ Yrs	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3

Experience as Professor	Experience as Reader	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	11-15 Years	15+ Years	No RSP	Total
	No RSP	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3
	Total	21 (29.6)	23 (32.4)	11 (15.5)	4 (5.6)	10 (14.1)	71
11-15 Years	1-5 Yrs	2 (33.3)	3 (50.0)	0 (0)	1 (16.7)	0 (0)	6
	6-10 Yrs	6 (33.3)	8 (44.4)	4 (22.2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	18
	11-15 Yrs	2 (40.0)	0 (0)	1 (20.0)	0 (0)	2 (40.0)	5
	15+	0 (0)	1 (50.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (50.0)	2
	No RSP	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3
	Total	11 (32.4)	13 (38.2)	6 (17.7)	1 (2.9)	0 (0)	34
15+ Years	1-5 Yrs	10 (55.6)	4 (22.2)	2 (11.1)	0 (0)	2 (11.1)	18
	6-10 Yrs	4 (40.0)	6 (60.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	10
	11-15 Yrs	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (100.)	1
	15+ Yrs	1 (100.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1
	No RSP	0 (0)	1 (50.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (50.0)	2
	Total	15 (46.9)	11 (34.4)	2 (6.3)	0 (0)	4 (12.5)	32
No RSP	1-5 Yrs	0	1	1	0	1	3
	6-10 Yrs	2	2	1	0	0	5
	11-15 Yrs	0	0	2	2	0	4
	15+ Yrs	1	1	0	0	0	2
	No RSP	2	0	1	0	13	16
	Total	5	4	5	2	14	30

Figures in brackets indicate row-wise percentages

Table No. A III.4

Teaching Experience of College Professors

Experience as Professor	Experience as Reader	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	11-15 Years	15+ Years	No RSP	Total
One Year	1-15 Yrs	3 (37.5)	1 (12.5)	1 (12.5)	2 (25.0)	1 (12.5)	8
	6-10 Yrs	1 (11.1)	5 (55.6)	2 (22.2)	0 (0)	1 (11.1)	9
	11-15 Yrs	2 (40.0)	0 (0)	1 (20.0)	0 (0)	2 (40.0)	5
	15+ Yrs	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0
	No RSP	0 (0)	9 (42.9)	8 (38.1)	3 (14.3)	1 (4.8)	21
	Total	6 (14.0)	15 (34.9)	12 (27.9)	5 (11.6)	5 (11.6)	43
2-5 Years	1-5 Yrs	9 (64.3)	5 (35.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	14
	6-10 Yrs	11 (55.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)	0 (0)	5 (25.0)	20
	11-15 Yrs	1 (75.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (25.0)	8
	15+ Yrs	1 (50.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (50.0)	2
	No RSP	5 (3.3)	24 (15.9)	86 (57.0)	34 (22.5)	2 (1.3)	151
	Total	32 (16.4)	32 (16.4)	87 (44.6)	34 (17.4)	10 (5.1)	195
6-10 Years	1-5 Yrs	11 (73.3)	3 (20.0)	1 (6.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	15
	6-10 Yrs	7 (63.5)	3 (27.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (9.1)	11
	11-15 Yrs	1 (50.0)	1 (50.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2
	15+ Yrs	1 (100.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1

Experience as Professor	Experience as Reader	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	11-15 Years	15+ Years	No RSP	Total
	No RSP	4 (7.3)	19 (34.6)	17 (30.9)	11 (20.0)	4 (7.3)	55
	Total	24 (28.6)	26 (31.0)	18 (21.4)	11 (13.1)	5 (6.0)	84
11-15 Years	1-5 Yrs	11 (64.7)	4 (23.7)	2 (11.8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	17
	6-10 Yrs	2 (50.0)	2 (50.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4
	11-15 Yrs	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0
	15+ Yrs	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0
	No RSP	5 (15.2)	11 (33.3)	9 (27.3)	7 (21.2)	1 (3.0)	33
	Total	18 (33.3)	17 (31.5)	11 (20.4)	7 (13.0)	1 (1.9)	54
15+ Years	1-5 Yrs	5 (100.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	5
	6-10 Yrs	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (33.3)	3
	No RSP	11 (42.3)	10 (38.5)	2 (7.7)	0 (0)	3 (11.5)	26
	Total	17 (50.0)	11 (32.4)	2 (5.9)	0 (0)	4 (11.8)	34
No RSP	1-5 Yrs	2	0	1	1	1	5
	6-10 Yrs	1	1	0	0	0	2
	11-15 Yrs	0	1	0	0	0	1
	15+ Yrs	1	0	0	0	0	1
	No RSP	2	1	5	3	19	30
	Total	6	3	6	4	20	39

Figures in brackets indicate the row-wise percentages

Table No. A III.5

Career Profile of College and University Readers

Readers' Experience	Lecturers' Experience	University Teachers	College Teachers
One Year	1-5 Yrs	93	40
		(100)	(100)
	6-10 Yrs	86	31
		(92)	(78)
	11-15 Yrs	55	23
		(59)	(58)
	16-20 Yrs	27	12
		(29)	(30)
	20+ Yrs	7	4
		(8)	(10)
2-5 Years	1-5 Yrs	198	91
		(100)	(100)
	6-10 Yrs	166	56
		(84)	(62)
	11-15 Yrs	112	40
		(57)	(44)
	16-20 Yrs	57	27
		(29)	(30)
	20+ Yrs	19	13
		(10)	(14)
6-10 Years	1-5 Yrs	151	61
		(100)	(100)
	6-10 Yrs	131	46
		(87)	(75)
	11-15 Yrs	78	16
		(52)	(26)
	16-20 Yrs	32	8
		(21)	(13)
	20+ Yrs	6	2
		(4)	(3)
11-15 Years	1-5 Yrs	49	45
		(100)	(100)
	6-10 Yrs	36	33
		(73)	(73)
	11-15 Yrs	18	17
		(37)	(38)
	16-20 Yrs	0	8
		(0)	(18)
	20+ Yrs	0	4
		(0)	(9)

Readers Experience	Lecturers' Experience	University Teachers	College Teachers
16-20 Years	1-5 Yrs	27 (100)	17 (100)
	6-10 Yrs	22 (82)	11 (65)
	11-15 Yrs	11 (41)	3 (18)
	16-20 Yrs	1 (4)	2 (12)
	20+ Yrs	0 (0)	0 (0)
20+ Years	1-5 Yrs	4 (100)	8 (100)
	6-10 Yrs	1 (25)	5 (64)
	11-15 Yrs	1 (25)	3 (38)
	16-20 Yrs	0 (0)	0 (0)
All Readers	1-5 Yrs	522 (100)	262 (100)
	6-10 Yrs	442 (85)	182 (70)
	11-15 Yrs	175 (34)	100 (38)
	16-20 Yrs	117 (22)	57 (22)
	20+ Yrs	32 (6)	23 (9)

Table No. A III.6

Career Profile of University Professors

Experience as Professor	Experience as Lecturer or Reader	Number remaining after promotion from Lecturer level		Number remaining after promotion from Reader level	
One Year:	1-5 Yrs	37	(100)	41	(100)
	6-10 Yrs	29	(78)	36	(88)
	11-15 Yrs	16	(43)	15	(37)
	16-20 Yrs	5	(14)	1	(3)
	20+ Yrs	2	(5)	0	(0)
2-5 Years	1-5 Yrs	109	(100)	112	(100)
	6-10 Yrs	80	(73)	89	(79)
	11-15 Yrs	36	(33)	43	(38)
	16-20 Yrs	13	(12)	12	(11)
	20+ Yrs	3	(3)	3	(3)
6-10 Years	1-5 Yrs	61	(100)	68	(100)
	6-1 Yrs	40	(66)	48	(71)
	11-15 Yrs	17	(28)	18	(26)
	16-20 Yrs	6	(10)	3	(4)
	20 + Yrs	0	(0)	1	(3)
11-15 Years	1-5 Yrs	31	(100)	31	(100)
	6-10 Yrs	20	(65)	25	(81)
	11-15 Yrs	7	(23)	7	(23)
	16-20 Yrs	1	(3)	2	(6)
	20 + Yrs	0	(0)	1	(3)
16-20 Years	1-5 Yrs	22	(100)	24	(100)
	6-10 Yrs	11	(50)	8	(33)
	11-15 Yrs	1	(5)	0	(0)
20 + Years	1-5 Yrs	6	(100)	6	(100)
	6-10 Yrs	2	(33)	4	(67)
	11-15 Yrs	1	(17)	2	(33)
	16-20 Yrs	0	(0)	1	(17)
All Professors	1-5 Yrs	266	(100)	282	(100)
	6-10 Yrs	182	(68)	153	(54)
	11-15 Yrs	78	(29)	85	(30)
	16-20 Yrs	25	(9)	19	(7)
	20 + Yrs	7	(3)	4	(1)

Table No. A III.7

Career Profile of College Professors

Experience as Professor	Experience as Lecturer or Reader	Nos. remaining after promotion from Lecturer-Level		Nos. remaining after promotion from Reader-Level	
One Year	1-5 yrs	38	(100)	22	(100)
	6-10 yrs	32	(84)	14	(64)
	11-15 yrs	17	(45)	5	(23)
	16-20 yrs	5	(13)	0	(0)
	20 + yrs	3	(8)	0	(0)
2-5 Years	1-5 yrs	185	(100)	44	(100)
	6-10 yrs	153	(83)	30	(68)
	11-15 yrs	121	(65)	10	(23)
	10-20 yrs	34	(18)	2	(5)
	20 + yrs	2	(3)	0	(0)
6-10 Years	1-5 yrs	79	(100)	29	(100)
	6-10 yrs	55	(70)	14	(48)
	11-15 yrs	29	(37)	3	(10)
	10-20 yrs	11	(1)	1	(3)
	20 + yrs	2	(3)	0	(0)
11-15 Years	1-5 yrs	53	(100)	21	(100)
	6-10 yrs	35	(66)	4	(19)
	11-15 yrs	18	(34)	0	(0)
	16-20 yrs	7	(13)	0	(0)
	20 + yrs	1	(2)	0	(0)
16-20 Years	1-5 yrs	21	(100)	7	(100)
	6-10 yrs	8	(38)	3	(43)
	11-15 yrs	2	(10)	0	(0)
	16-20 yrs	0	(0)	0	(0)
20 + Years	1-5 yrs	9	(100)	1	(100)
	6-10 yrs	5	(56)	0	(0)
	11-15 yrs	0	(0)	0	(0)
All Professors	1-5 yrs	385	(100)	124	(100)
	6-10 yrs	288	(75)	65	(52)
	11-15 yrs	187	(49)	18	(15)
	16-20 yrs	57	(15)	3	(2)
	20 + yrs	18	(5)	0	(0)

TABLE No. A III.8

Number & distribution of teaching staff in university departments/university colleges according to designation

Year	Professors	Readers	Lecturers	Tutors/ Demonstrators	Total
1971-72	2273 (10.0)	3616 (15.8)	15296 (67.0)	1657 (7.2)	22842 (100.0)
1972-73	2460 (10.0)	3938 (15.9)	16431 (66.5)	1875 (7.6)	22704 (100.0)
1973-74	2639 (9.9)	4295 (16.1)	17675 (66.3)	2050 (7.7)	26659 (100.0)
1974-75	2803 (10.1)	5141 (18.5)	17700 (63.6)	2186 (7.8)	27830 (100.0)
1975-76	2996 (9.5)	5486 (17.3)	20653 (65.3)	2486 (7.9)	31624 (100.0)
1976-77	3055 (9.5)	5707 (17.8)	20824 (64.8)	2556 (7.9)	32142 (100.0)
1977-78	3477 (9.4)	6629 (17.8)	23837 (64.2)	3199 (8.6)	37142 (100.0)
1978-79	3678 (9.5)	7146 (18.4)	25268 (65.0)	2743 (7.1)	38835 (100.0)
1979-80	3942 (9.9)	7690 (19.3)	25610 (64.3)	2596 (6.5)	39838 (100.0)
1980-81	4123 (10.3)	7900 (19.8)	25758 (64.4)	2183 (5.5)	39964 (100.0)
1981-82	4170 (9.9)	9299 (22.0)	26648 (63.2)	2069 (4.9)	42186 (100.0)
1982-83	4616 (10.0)	10294 (22.2)	29499 (63.6)	1934 (4.2)	46343 (100.0)

Table No. A III.9
Number and Distribution of Teaching Staff in the Affiliated Colleges According to Designation

Year	Sr.Teachers	Lecturers	Tutors/ Demons-tratorss	Total
1971-72	14395 (12.4)	88617 (76.1)	13350 (11.5)	116362 (100.0)
1972-73	15068 (12.5)	91701 (75.9)	10511 (11.6)	**120820** (100.0)
1973-74	15226 (11.7)	100177 (77.1)	14500 (11.2)	129908 (100.0)
1974-75	16396 (12.2)	103456 (77.2)	14100 (10.6)	133952 (100.0)
1975-76	16513 (12.1)	106243 (78.1)	13243 (9.8)	135999 (100.0)
1976-77	16797 (12.2)	107255 (78.0)	13421 (9.8)	137473 (100.0)
1977-78	16391 (11.6)	111692 (79.1)	13119 (9.3)	141202 (100.0)
1978-79	16662 (11.7)	115596 (80.9)	10566 (7.4)	142824 (100.0)
1979-80	15060 (10.1)	123597 (83.1)	10007 (6.8)	148664 (100.0)
1980-81	16343 (10.7)	127952 (83.4)	9082 (5.9)	153377 (100.0)
1981-82	15599 (9.9)	134019 (85.0)	8100 (5.1)	157718 (100.0)
1982-83	16436 (9.9)	141211 (85.4)	7761 (4.7)	165408 (100.0)

Table A.III.10

% of college and university teachers in different levels of position having experience in adhoc/ temporary/permanent capacities.

	One year	2-3 years	4-5 years	6-10 years	11-30 years	No Rsp	Total	No.of teachers
Lecturers								
Adhoc								
College	5.1	4.9	2.4	1.7	.9	85.0	5157	
University	8.3	5.8	2.9	1.6	0.7	80.7	1148	
Temporary								
College	9.7	16.8	5.7	5.3	1.9	60.6	5157	
University	10.7	11.2	3.9	4.1	1.9	68.2	1148	
Permanent								
College	4.0	9.3	6.9	19.7	29.9	29.8	5132	
University	8.1	10.4	10.5	20.9	21.4	28.7	1148	
Readers								
Adhoc								
College	2.5	3.1	.9	.9	0.6	91.9	323	
University	2.9	3.6	1.5	2.1	0.5	89.4	617	
Temporary								
College	5.8	7.4	3.1	2.4	1.9	79.6	323	
University	7.3	6.2	4.2	2.0	1.5	78.0	618	
Permanent								
College	10.2	16.4	9.3	18.9	17.0	27.9	362	
University	12.0	15.1	12.8	20.2	10.5	29.3	615	
Professors								
Adhoc								
College	1.6	1.8	1.3	1.3	.7	93.4	452	
University	1.5	2.7	1.8	1.8	.6	91.6	327	
Temporary								
College	3.8	3.3	1.8	2.0	1.9	87.8	452	
University	3.4	5.2	1.2	1.8	1.8	86.6	328	
Permanent								
College	8.6	24.6	15.0	25.5	16.8	19.5	452	
University	12.2	16.7	13.1	17.0	27.6	23.4	328	

TABLE No. A III.11

% of College Teachers* who moved various number of times according to type of College Management

			Never	One	2 -3	4 Plus
I.	At the same Level	Govt	52.8	17.0	17.4	12.2
		Pvt-A	74.8	14.3	8.8	2.0
		Pvt-U	67.9	20.2	9.2	2.3
		Stat	69.4	16.3	8.7	5.2
		Average	67.5	15.6	11.4	5.2
II.	From Lecturer to Reader Level	Govt	55.0	6.1	1.0	0.2
		Pvt-A	70.6	3.1	.5	.1
		Pvt-U	68.4	6.0	.9	.5
		Stat	64.9	12.2	1.4	.7
		Average	65.3	4.6	.7	.1
III.	From Reader to Professor Level	Govt	58.9	2.3	.9	.2
		Pvt-A	72.9	1.3	.1	0.0
		Pvt-U	71.6	4.1	0.0	0.0
		Stat	75.4	3.5	.7	0.0
		Average	68.6	1.8	.4	.1
IV.	From Lecturer to Principal/Professor Level	Govt	58.5	3.4	.4	.1
		Pvt-A	70.7	3.3	.2	.1
		Pvt-U	72.0	3.2	.5	0.0
		Stat	77.1	1.7	.7	0.0
		Average	67.1	3.2	.3	.1
V.	From Undergraduate to Post-Graduate College or vice-versa	Govt	49.0	9.0	3.6	.5
		Pvt-A	68.1	5.3	1.0	0.0
		Pvt-U	67.0	8.3	.5	0.0
		Stat	70.1	7.3	2.1	0.0
		Average	62.3	6.6	1.7	.2
VI.	From College to University or vice-versa	Govt	58.4	3.1	.7	0.0
		Pvt-A	72.6	1.3	.4	0.0
		Pvt-U	69.7	5.1	.5	.5
		Stat	71.2	7.6	.4	.4
		Average	67.9	2.3	.5	.1

* About 29 % of the teachers did not respond about the various types of mobility except the first one.

Table A III.12

% of university teachers who moved various number of times at the same level - university-wise disparities

No. of times	Never		1		2-3		4-5		6-9	
Average	64.93		19.26		11.47		3.40		.75	
Range	52.94-72.63		11.4-30.61		4.11-19.85		0-6.76			
Well Above Average	OSMN	70.08	KRNTK	30.61	RS	17.65	GHTI	6.76	GNDU	3.05
	PAU	70.75	NEHU	29.6	UTKAL	17.86	OSMN	6.30	TNADU	3.03
	KRNTK	72.63	MNPUR	29.4	GNDU	19.85	TNADU	6.06	KSMR	2.78
	JDVPR	69.9	POONA	27.9	BHU	17.9	MNPUR	5.88	GHTI	2.70
							KSMR	5.56	MS	1.04
									ORISA	.39
Well Below Average	MNPUR	52.94	OSMN	11.4	SNDT	4.11	BHU	0.00		0
	GNDU	53.44	MDRAS	15.6	CCHIN	6.86	CCHIN	1.96		
	KURUK	55.1	RS	11.8	KSMR	7.82	SNDT	1.37		
	KSMR	55.6			GHTI	9.46	MDRAS	1.48		
					PAU	7.48				
					NEHU	7.41				

Table A III.13

% of university teachers who moved varous number of times from lecturer to reader level - university-wise disparities

No. of times	Never		1		2-3		4-5	
Average	65.53		14.04		1.54		0.00	
Range	46.3-72.83		2.74-27.9		0-3.70			
Well Above Average	OSMN	72.83	POONA	27.9	MS	3.13		
	MNPUR	70.59	NEHU	25.9	NEHU	3.70		
	JDVPR	69.9	RS	20.6	POONA	3.28		
	SNDT	69.9	CCHIN	18.6	MLS	2.79		
Well Below Average	NEHU	46.3	SNDT	2.74	PAU	.68		
	RS	55.9	KURUK	6.12	CCHIN	0.0		
	CCHIN	57.8	OSMN	7.9	RS	0.0		
			GHTI	8.11	MNPR	0.0		
					MAD	0.0		
					TN	0.0		
					GHTI	0.0		

TABLE A III.14

% of university teachers who moved various number of times from Reader to Professor Level - university-wise disparities

No. of times	Never	1	2-3	4-5
Average	75.93	4.66	.51	0.00
Range	64.7-83.6	0-23.53	0-2.94	
Well Above Average				
	POONA 83.6	MNPR 23.53	RS 2.94	
	UTKAL 82.1	TNADU 15.15	KURUK 2.04	
	JDVPR 80.1	CCHIN 9.30	NEHU 1.85	0
	PAU 79.6	RS 8.82	UTKAL 1.79	
		MANP 23.53		
Well Below Average				
	RS 64.7	KSMR 0.00	GHTI 0.00	
	MANPR 64.7	GHTI 1.35	MS 0.00	
	TNADU 66.7	SNDT 1.37	SNDT 0.00	0
	CCHIN 66.7	BHU 1.49	PAU .68	
	BHU 67.2		MLS .40	

Table A III.15

% of university teachers who moved various number of times from lecturer to professor/principal level - university-wise disparities

No. of times	Never	One	2-3	4-5
Average	77.4	3.31	.37	.05
Range	55.9-86.9	0-14.7	0-2.94	0-2.94
Well Above Average				
	POONA 86.9	RS 14.7	RS 2.94	RS 2.94
	JDVPR 83.2	NEHU 7.4	KSMR 2.78	
	MANPR 82.4	MNPR 5.9	POONA 1.64	
	UTKAL 83.9	UTKAL 5.4	GNDU 0.76	
	PAU 82.3	MAD 5.2	GHTI 1.35	
Well Below Average				
	RS 55.9	TN 0.0		
	NEHU 68.5	GHTI 1.4		
	BHU 64.2	SNDT 1.4	0	0
	SNDT 71.2	GNDU 1.5		
		OSMN 1.6		
		JDVPR 1.5		

Table No. A III.16
% of university teachers who moved various number of times from an under-graduate to a post-graduate college or vice versa - university-wise disparities

No. of times	Never		1		2-3		4-5	
Average	64.5		13.5		2.99		.05	
Range	53.1-72.5		7.5 - 21.4		0 - 7.1		0 - -.04	
Well above average	JDVPR	72.5	UTKAL	21.4	UTKAL	7.1	MLS	0.4
	MS	70.8	KRNTK	20.1	OSMN	5.9	)	
	MDRAS	70.4	KSMR	19.4	TN	6.1	)	0
	PAU	70.1			MLS	5.6		
	MNPR	70.6						
	POONA	70.5						
Well above average	KURUK	53.1	BHU	7.5	KSMR, CCHIN	)		
	KSMR	55.6	MS	8.3	RS. POONA	)0		
					MNPR, BHU	)		
	GHTI	58.1	RS	8.8	JOVPR	0.51		
			TN	9.1	PAU	2.0		

Table No. A III.17

% of university teachers who moved various number of times from college to university & vice versa - university-wise disparities

No. of times	Never		1		2-3		4-5	
Average	57.6		21.2		2.2		0.1	
Range	46.9 - 75.8		6.1 - 39.3		0 - 5.9		0 - 1.6	
Well above average	TN	75.8	UTKAL	39.3	MNPR	5.9	POONA	1.6
	PAU	66.7	GNDU	31.3	MLS	4.0	REST ALL	0
	OSMN	66.5	KRNTK	29.9	MS	4.2	GNDU	0.76
			POONA	36.1				
Well below average	UTKAL	46.4	TN	6.1	KRNTK, RS)			
	KURUK	46.9	BHU	11.9	SNDT, TN)	0		
	MNPR	47.1	OSMN	12.2	BHU)			
	GHTI	47.3	PAU	12.9	JDVPR	0.51		
					CCHIN	1.0		
					GHTI	1.4		
					POONA	1.6		

Table A III.18

% of college teachers who moved various number of times at the same level - state-wise disparities

No. of times	Never		1		2-3		4-5		> 5	
Average	67.52		15.6		11.4		3.9		1.3	
Range	45.3- 84.2		8.42- 22.2		4.17-19.8		0.0-9.6			
Well above average	J&K	84.2	PNDCH	22.2	ORISA	19.2	ORISA	9.6	RJSTN	6.73
	KERAL	82.2	HRYNA	22.0	WBNGL	15.2	RJSTN	8.7	ORISA	6.40
	KRNTK	82.2	RJSTN	20.2	PNJAB	15.0	WBNGL	8.1	GJRAT	3.17
	UP	76.3	PNJAB	19.3			PNJAB	7.7	AP	2.50
Well below averaage	PNDCH	45.30	KERAL	8.4	J&K	4.2	KRNTK	.49	MAHAR	.27
	RJSTN	47.12	M.P.	10.2	BIHAR	7.8	KERAL	.50	DELHI	.41
	ORISA	50.4	J&K	10.8	UP	8.32	ASSAM	.92	KRNTK	.49
	HP	56.5	UP	13.8	KERAL	8.42	HRYNA	.00	J&K	.83

Table A.III.19

% of college teachers who moved various number of times from lecturer to reader level - state-wise disparities

No. of times	Never	1	2-3	> 4
Average	65.3	4.57	.67	.13
Range	43.9 - 81.7	.85 - 14.3	0.0 - 1.93	0 - .96
Well above Average	KERAL 81.7 J & K 80.8 M.P. 74.1 U.P. 71.8	GOA 14.3 H.P. 9.2 GJRAT 9.1 RJSTN 7.69	H.P. 1.93 GJRAT 1.81 ORISA 1.60 GOA 1.43	RJSTN .96 GJRAT .90 H.P. .48 A.P .18 MAHAR .14
Well below Average	GOA 48.6 H.P. 51.7 RJSTN 51.9 DELHI 68.7	PUNJAB .85 HARYANA .92 DELHI 2.48 ASSAM 1.83	A.P. .53 BIHAR .58 RJSTN .96 PNJAB .00 ASSAM 0.00	Rest all Zero

TABLE A.III.20

% of college teachers who moved various number of times from reader to professor level - state-wise disparities

No. of times	Never	1	2-3	> 4
Average	68.55	1.81	.35	.05
Range	57.7 - 83.17	.57 - 4.29	0 - 1.92	0 - .96
Well above Average	KERAL 83.17 J & K 81.7 M.P. 74.9 KRNTK 76.1	GOA 4.29 M.P. 3.14 U.P. 3.04 RJSTN 2.88	M.P. 1.57 A.P. .53 J & K .83 PNDCH 1.71 RJ 1.92 GOA 1.43	RJSTN .96 H.P. .48 U.P. .20
Well below Average	RJSTN 57.7 GOA 58.6 POONA 59.8 H.P. 60.4	PNJAB .57 WBNGL 1.01 BIHAR 1.16 A.P. 1.60	TNADU .19 U.P. .20 KRNTK .25 REST 0	REST ALL ZERO

Table A.III.21

% of college teachers who moved various number of times from lecturer to professor/principal level - state-wise disparities

No. of times	Never		1		2-3		> 4	
Average	67.13		3.22		.32		.06	
Range	49.7 - 79.70		0.00 - 5.60		0 - 1.92		0 - .45	
Well above Average	KERAL	79.7	ORISA	5.60	RJSTN	1.92	GJRAT	.45
	J & K	79.2	GJRAT	4.98	HRYNA	1.83	H.P.	.39
	M.P.	76.08	ASSAM	4.59	GJRAT	0.90	KRNTK	.25
	U.P.	72.6	KERAL	5.45	J & K	0.83	U.P.	.20
Well below Average	WBNGL	49.7	RJSTN	.96	A.P.	0.18)		
	PNDCH	59.8	DELHI	0.00	BIHAR	0.29)		
	HRYNA	60.6	HRYNA	.00	ASSAM	0.00)		
	DELHI	61.6	PUNJAB	1.13	H.P.	0.00)		
			GOA	1.43	KERAL	0.00)		

Table No. A III.22

% of college teachers who moved various number of times from an undergraduate to a post-graduate college and vice versa - state-wise disparities

No. of times	Never		1		2-3		> 4	
Average	62.27		6.57		1.67		.17	
Range	41.03-78.2		1.16-18.8		0.0-9.60		0 - 1.18	
Well above average	J&K	78.22	PNDCH	18.8	ORISA	9.60	MP	1.18
			ORISA	16.0				
	KRNTK	75.8	HARYNA	11.01	GJRAT	3.17	PUNJAB	0.85
					PNDCH	3.42	KERAL	0.50
	BIHAR	71.9	RAJSTN	10.6	RJSTN	2.88	TNADU	0.29
							KRNTK	0.25
Well below average	PNOCH	41.03	BIHAR	1.16	ASSAM	0.00)		
	WBNGL	46.96	GOA	1.43	KRNTK	0.49)		0
	PUNJAB	S49.86	Karnatak	1.73	HRYNA	0.92)		
	HRYNA	50.46	Delhi	2.89	BIHAR	0.58)		

Table No. A III.23

% of college teachers who moved various number of times from college to university and vice versa- state-wise disparities

No. of times	Never		1		2-3		> 4	
Average	67.89		2.27		0.46		0.05	
Range	51.35-85.15		0 - 7.73		0 - 3.85		0 - .18	
Well above average	KERAL	85.15	A.P.	4.46			A.P. .	.18
	J&K	81.67	GJRAT	5.88	RJSTN	3.85	MAHAR	.14
	KRNTK	76.3	H.P.	7.73	M.P.	1.57	TNADU	.10
			GOA	4.29	ORISSA	.85		
Well below average	WBNGL	51.35	KERAL	0	J&K	0	0	
	HP	55.07	BIHAR	.58	HRYNA	0		
	RJSTN	58.07	RJSTN	.96	PNJAB	.28		
	DELHI	59.05	WBNGL	.68	A.P.	.36		
					GJRAT	.45		
					MAHAR	.54		

Table No.A.III.24

University-wise distribution of total and sample University Teachers according to Designation

Name of the University	No. of total Teachers*				No. of Sample teachers			
	Lecturers	Readers	Professors	Total (Incl. Others)	Lecturers	Readers	Professors	Total (Incl. Others)
1. Osmania	220	188	70	484	146	86	17	254
2. Gauhati	133	55	15	215	31	31	11	73
3. M.S. Baroda	588	110	65	763	63	18	10	91
4. Kurukshetra	494	72	20	589	26	19	7	48
5. Kashmir	76	33	13	122	21	8	3	32
6. Karnataka	195	62	30	287	96	53	24	173
7. Cochin	56	35	18	107	52	30	20	102
8. Ravi Shankar	24	16	12	53	18	11	5	34
9. Poona	54	48	22	154	32	16	13	61
10. SNDT	207	19	6	244	54	12	4	72
11. Manipur	NA	NA	NA	NA				17
12. NEHU	91	45	13	150	30	13	11	54
13. UTKAL	81	46	22	157	27	19	8	54
14. Guru Nanak Dev	74	39	12	125	78	35	17	131
15. PAU	303	219	101	623	69	52	22	145
16. M.L. Sukhadia	476	119	31	619	175	54	15	246
11. Madras	125	68	52	245	71	37	25	175
18. Tamil Nadu Agriculture	-	57	18	175	1	11	21	33
19. BHU	532	330	180	1042	35	19	9	63
20. Jadavpur	229	150	80	463	50	68	74	193

* Information obtained from the Association of Indian Universities (AIU) Handbook : 1981-82

Table A III.25

Ratio of lecturers to readers to professors in universities

	AIU Information			Sample Information			Ratio of Sample to Total Teachers (%)
	L	R	P	L	R	P	
1. Osmania	3.1	2.7	1	8.6	5.1	1	51.7
2. Gauhati	9.0	4.3	1	2.8	2.8	1	34.0
3. M.S. Baroda	9.0	1.7	1	6.3	1.8	1	11.9
4. Kurukshetra	24.9	3.6	1	3.7	2.1	1	8.2
5 Kashmir	5.9	2.5	1	7.0	2.7	1	26.2
6. Karnataka	6.5	2.1	1	4.0	2.2	1	60.3
7. Cochin	3.1	1.8	1	2.6	1.5	1	95.3
8. Ravi Shankar	2.0	1.3	1	3.6	2.2	1	64.2
9 Poona	3.8	2.2	1	2.5	1.2	1	39.6
10. SNDT	34.5	3.2	1	13.5	3.0	1	29.5
11. Manipur	NA			NA			NA
12. NEHU	7.0	3.5	1	2.7	1.2	1	36.0
13. Utkal	4.1	2.1	1	3.4	2.4	1	34.4
14. Guru Nanak Dev	6.2	3.3	1	4.6	2.1	1	104.0
15. PAU	3.0	2.2	1	3.1	2.4	1	23.3
16. M.L. Sukhadia	15.4	3.6	1	11.7	3.6	1	39.7
17. Madras	1.8	1.3	1	2.8	1.5	1	54.7
18. Tamil Nadu Agricultural	-	3.2	1	0.1	0.5	1	18.9
19. B.H.U.	1.6	1.8	1	3.9	2.1	1	6.1
20. Jadavpur	2.9	1.9	1	0.7	0.9	1	41.7

Note : L= Lecturers; R= Readers and P= Professors

Table A III.26

State-wise distribution of sample college teachers according to designation

States	Lecturers	Readers	Professors	Principals	Senior Teachers*	Ratio of Lecturers to Sr. Teachers
1. A.P.	478	18	12	9	39	12.2:1
2. Assam	95	2	0	6	8	11.9:1
3. Bihar	289	21	1	18	40	1.2:1
4. Gujarat	151	27	22	8	57	2.6:1
5. Haryana	101	1	0	2	3	33.7:1
6. H.P.	163	27	12	2	41	4.0:1
7. J & K	66	19	33	2	54	1.2:1
8. Karnataka	332	34	17	8	59	5.6:6
9. Kerala	96	4	70	2	76	1.3:1
10.M.P.	213	6	11	13	30	7.1:1
11.Maharashtra	674	12	4	26	42	16.0:1
12.Orissa	112	5	0	6	11	10.2:1
13.Punjab	336	0	0	8	8	4.2.1
14.Rajasthan	88	6	2	5	13	6.8:1
15.U.P.	410	28	21	16	65	6.3.1
16.West Bengal	266	9	1	10	20	13.3:1
17.Delhi	215	18	0	3	21	10.2:1
18.Goa	55	6	6	2	14	3.9:1
19.Pondicherry	114	0	3	0	3	3.8:1

* Senior Teachers: Readers, Professors and Principals

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

1.0 Career development of teachers in higher education is contingent upon and intertwined sequentially with professional development, which should be considered to be essentially synonymous with the continuumofris'ng levels of competence in the performance of their defined functions.

1.1 Teachers in higher education are expected to perform the following funtions:

i. to impart the accumulated social experience of mankind to the newer generation;

ii. to generate new knowledge;

iii. to extend the impact of knowledge to the community at large;

iv. to perform othe- non-teaching academic functions within the institution e.g. advice to students in their curricular, co-curricular and extra-curricular work, participation in conferences, seminars and meetings of learned societies;

v. to perform administrative functions in running the institution particularly in respect to its academic life.

vi. to do extra-mural teaching, consultancy and work on non-university committees,

vii. to diffuse knowledge to the lower levels of the educational pyramid.

1.2 Teachers at different levels of tertiary education are expected to perform different mixes of the tasks outlined above. The research function becomes more important as we move up the academic pyramid and, consequently, the weight of this function in the undergraduate colleges would be less than that in university departments. It may, however, be noted that tertiary education as a whole is an intersection sub-set of the two sets of teaching and research and that the two develop in symbiosis within the institutions of higher learning.

1.3 Professional development should be assessed in terms of the level of competence of the teacher concerned in the performance of the above functions, weighted suitably in accordance with the level of education. The method of assessment should be based on a combination of self-assessment, peer assessment, assessment by students as well as by the academic head.

2.1 A necesry pre-condition for proper profesional development of a teacher is the achievement of an adequate level of knowledge base and pedagogic skills prior to his entry in the profession. One way of movingin this direction is to require prospective teachers in higher education to take up some specialised courses directly oriented towards teaching at the M.A. and/or M.Phil levels.

2.2 At least in the first year after entering the profession a teacher should be required to undergo a training course relating to a proper orientationtowards the profession and its values, skills in pedagogy as well as the use of the medium of instruction. The last is of particular importance in the case of appointees whose mother tongue is different from the medium of instruction.

2.3 In view of the fact that teaching is a life time profession in most cases, professional development should be spread over the entire career of a teacher. Study and sabbatical leave, as well as participationin short term summer schools and training programmes should be so regulated that the process of self renewal becomes a

continuoussearch for excellence. QIP, COSIP and COHIP facilities should be further expanded and equitably distributed. Participation in symposia, workshops and seminars provide opportunities for getting exposed to new ideas, methods and techniques; and, therefore, adequate provision should be made for such participation at short intervals. There is an extremely low level of participation in such activities particularly by college teachers. The situation needs to be remedied expeditiously.

2.4 One of the most effective instruments of professional development isprovided by one's own post doctoral research as well as supervison of doctoral work. This should be made possible by adequate and equitably distributed reseach funding.

2.5 While the teaching function is of great importance, particularly in the colleges, no steps are being taken at present to upgrade the teachingcompetence of faculty members. It is essential that training programmes, geared to improvement of pedagogic skills, are intiaited and strengthened.

2.6 The provision of xeroxing facilities, a separate cubicle to work in, subsidization of the purchase of books and journals, and above all, a good library in the institution may be considered to be necessary conditions for professional development.

3.1 Career developmet prospects for teachers are quite unsatisfactory, and they hve worsened over time, particularly in the case of college teachers. This statement does not take into account the recent spate of personal promotions.

3.2 Low inter-institutional mobility has contributed to the poor prospects of career development. hence, facilitating such mobility through the removal of some of the barriers to mobility - e.g. extremely inadequate provision for residential accommodation - would in turn contribute to the improvement of career development prospects.

3.3 Career development prospects should be made relevant to the specificities of different levels of tertiary education. In the light ofthe disparities and diversities, characterising the multi-level structure, a uniform standard of evaluation and a unified path as well as speed of career development would be dysfunctional. The situation calls for multiple paths depending upon the mix of functionsrelevant to a given level of higher education.

3.4 Non-monetary rewards are also perceived to be contributing to career development. Greater role in decision making, for example, may provide a degree of non-monetary satisfaction.

4.0 The following two principles should govern the relationship between rofessional and career development:

(i) Ahigher position should not be denied to a person, who has acquired professional attainments as judged by procedures laid down, just because a higher position is not available.

(ii) A higher position should be considered as a reward for professional attainment; and, therefore, it should neither be automaicnor linked only with the number of years spent in the cadre. Twenty years' service may be distunguished from one year's service repeated twenty times. Experience should not be confused with empty redundancy.

If the above two princples are put into effect there will emerge a situation wherein each university department or college would have a fixed number of positions but the relative share of lecturers, readers, and professors therein would go on changing with the career development of faculty members.