

An Analysis of Higher Education Impact on Socio – Economic Changes

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Abstract

Higher education, tertiary or continuing education plays a necessary and an increasingly important role in human, social, and economic development. The role of higher education institutes (HEIs) in development is vital, but it is also complex, fluid and dynamic. HEIs exhibit numerous different capabilities and scope, and can affect processes of development both directly and indirectly through teaching, research and service. Furthermore, HEIs operate within different contexts in which they can play numerous roles and face various challenges. And while there are many challenges in providing adequate education in pursuit of certain goals, there are also promising improvements in higher education that increase the impact, quality and effectiveness of HEIs' role in development and social change. Investment in education to increase economic growth, as one form of human development strategy, has gained economists' and policy makers' interest. It establishes human capital that makes a substantial contribution to economic and income growth. Its contribution returns in the form of skilled labor which leads to increased development and improved quality of life. Most of them concentrated on human capital accumulation as source of acceleration in economic growth. Some of them used human capital as an engine of economic growth to technological change. But for human accumulation, a country should invest more on education. Hence this paper is prepared based on the primary and secondary sources, which is focusing on higher education impact on socio-economic changes has been analyzed.

INTRODUCTION

Higher education, tertiary or continuing education plays a necessary and an increasingly important role in human, social, and economic development (Sutton 1998; Escrigas 2008). The role of higher education institutes (HEIs) in development is vital, but it is also complex, fluid and dynamic. HEIs exhibit numerous different capabilities and scope, and can affect processes of development both directly and indirectly through teaching, research and service. Furthermore, HEIs operate within different contexts in which they can play numerous roles and face various challenges. And while there are many challenges in providing adequate education in pursuit of certain goals, there are also promising improvements in higher education that increase the impact, quality and effectiveness of HEIs' role in development and social change.

Although the benefits of education for development and social change have long been contemplated, the contemporary study of the role of higher education in developing countries emerged alongside post-colonial discourses and modernisation theories on how best to modernise societies. In most parts of the developing world, education in general was seen as playing an indispensable role in national economic development and cultivating the necessary civic values for societal and political participation.

In the 1980s, higher education was gradually considered less important in the quest for economic growth and social change. This decline was due to three trends. First, universities failed to produce the results that were expected of them in much of the developing world. Second, many HEIs were not concerned with local, regional, or national issues and problems. The content and style of education was often divorced from the reality that surrounded them and sometimes

exacerbated inequalities. Lastly, due to a highly economic view of development and the resulting methods of measuring the impact of HEIs, higher education was considered to have a “low rate of return” and funding and attention were allocated to primary and secondary education (Chapman 2002, 5). This low point in the focus on the role of higher education in development facilitated the degradation of HEIs in many parts of the developing world. It also led to a decrease in studies on the subject.

More recently, the social and economic role of HEIs in development has regained prominence in the development agenda. Additionally, the analysis of this connection has expanded to incorporate new elements. For instance, the UN views higher education as integral to all aspects of development such as environmental awareness and sustainability, post-conflict resolution, poverty alleviation, cultivating values such as human rights, health care issues, and cultural preservation or change. This suggests a reconceptualisation of the importance of HEIs in society, culture and development (McLaughlin, T. 2007). Thus a major theme throughout the contemporary literature is the proactive role of the HEI in the development process. The HEI should be aware of its role and base its operations around developmental objectives (Bawden 2008). For instance, according to Obanya (2002), “development-oriented higher education” constitutes “the total commitment to sustainable human development for the survival of humanity as a core value of higher education.”

Consider the facts. According to Unesco, in the decade until 2009 the total number of those enrolled in higher education across the world increased by more than 70 million, of whom nearly 60% came from Asia. Since Asia and sub-Saharan Africa continue to have much lower average higher education enrolment rates (averaging 10-20% compared to more than 60% in more advanced countries), this proportion is likely to increase even further in the near future. So the bulk of new entrants into higher education will come from these regions in the decade ahead.

Objectives of the study

1. To understand the role of higher education in promoting socio economic changes among the people.
2. To find out whether women have pursuing and participating in the process of learning education.
3. To find out the difficulties in higher education to bring equity.

Methodology:-

The methodology of the present study can be broadly outlined with the help of the Primary and secondary source to analyses “**an analysis of higher education impact on socio – economic changes**” with the help of Primary information, it was collected through questionnaires and estimated on the basis of available secondary sources such are Government publications, reports of ministry of higher education, various institutions, state level and national level journals and books.

STRUCTURE OF HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM IN INDIA

India has the largest number of higher education institutions in the world. The number of students enrolled is 10.5 million, the third largest globally after China and USA. As noted by Pawan Agarwal (2006), higher educational institutions in India are of different types, depending on their academic, administrative and financial systems. Universities may also recognize institutions as „deemed to be universities“ or set up institutes of national importance. The institutions may be funded publicly, be aided by the government, to be funded privately. In additions, it is estimated that well over 100,000 Indian students are enrolled in higher education institutions in countries other than India such as USA, UK, Australia, Singapore, and New Zealand. Many students also venture out to countries where English is not the local language, making use of facilities provided specifically for overseas students. China, Russia, and the Ukraine are some such countries. At the same time, the facilities provided for foreign students in India are appreciable.

There are several interrelated issues, the first of which is sheer quantity. Even during the phase of global boom, the most dynamic economies in the world were not creating enough paid employment to meet the needs of those willing to supply labour. In some countries this led to rising rates of open unemployment, especially among young people. In other countries, particularly those with poorly developed social protection and unemployment benefits, disguised unemployment was more the norm. But this was during the boom; the global recession, and the lingering uncertainty

in world markets, has since made things a lot worse. In most economies, there are simply not enough jobs being created, even for those who have received higher levels of education.

The second issue is quality; that is, matching education and skills with the available jobs. The problem of skills mismatch arises even in growing economies. There are severe labour shortages for some kinds of workers and a massive oversupply of others. Often this is in spite of market forces rather than because of them, since markets and higher educational institutions tend to lag behind. There is another aspect to this, which also has troubling social implications. The shortage of higher-level jobs has forced many young people to take roles for which they are overqualified. This in turn can create resentment and other forms of alienation. Some attempts to explain the recent UK riots have mentioned this aspect of youth frustration.

The third issue – and one that we all ignore at our peril – is related to the second, but reflects a slightly different process. The recent global increase in higher education enrolment is certainly welcome, but it should be noted that a significant proportion has been in private institutions with much higher user fees. This is especially true in developing countries, where costly private institutions often dominate higher education. In India, for example, around two-thirds of enrolment is now estimated to be in private colleges and universities and similar institutes. Even in countries where public education still dominates, there are moves to increase fees.

This creates another complication around the issue of employability. Many students, including those coming from relatively poor families, have invested a great deal of their own and their families' resources to acquire an education that comes with the promise of a better life. In the developing world, this hunger for education is strongly associated with the hope of upward mobility, leading families to sell assets like land and go into debt in the hope of recouping these investments when the student graduates and gets a well-paying job. Employers' skill demands before oversupplying them.

The economic and social gains from female education

Equality of the sexes - in terms of men and women's command over resources, their access to education and health, and in terms of freedom to develop their potential - has an intrinsic value in its own right. The equal treatment of the sexes for intrinsic reasons is, in the parlance of welfare economics, the equity reason for reducing gender-imbalances. A second important reason in favour of reducing gender-imbalances is what might be termed the instrumental reason, that is, the gains to be had from granting equality. For example, if with equal education, women's contribution to economic development (or to other desirable goals) is comparable to men's, then reducing gender-imbalances in education will enhance women's capacity to contribute to economic progress. This is the efficiency reason for reducing gender inequality in areas where women are currently deprived. Both the intrinsic (equity) and instrumental (efficiency) based reasons for gender equality are emphasized in the teaching.

Economic efficiency

Human capital theory suggests that just as physical capital (machines) augments people's economic productivity, so human capital acquired through education improves the productivity of individuals. Studies of the sources of economic growth demonstrate persuasively that education plays a major role as a factor in the rise of output per worker. The new growth theories in economics place education and human resource development at the centre of their explanation for long-term economic growth. Confidence has grown in the belief that education affects economic growth because many studies have shown the positive correlation between a country's educational effort and its economic status, and causality has been attributed to education. Prominent examples of this are the so-called "miracle" economies of East Asia.

If female schooling raises human capital, productivity, and economic growth as much as male schooling does, then women's disadvantage in education is economically inefficient. Research world-wide shows that, in general, the economic benefits from women's education - calculated as the economic rate of return to education - are comparable to

those from men's education. Thus, from the point of view of economic efficiency, the gender gap in education is undesirable.

Social efficiency

While the economic benefits of educating girls are similar in size to the economic benefits of educating boys, recent findings suggest that the social benefits from investing in female education are far greater than those from investing in male education. Specifically, female education has powerful effects on the total fertility rate (and hence on population growth), the infant mortality rate, the female disadvantage in child survival, and on child health and nutrition. By contrast, statistical analyses show that male schooling has relatively much smaller effects on these important social outcomes.

A recent study by Subbarao and Raney (1995) using national aggregate data from 72 countries regressed the total fertility rate of 1985 on the male and female secondary school enrolment rates lagged by 10 years, i.e. on the enrolment rates of 1975. The objective was to examine the effect of education on fertility, controlling for a number of other factors such as family planning service provision and per capita income. The results show that female secondary school enrolment (lagged by 10 years) is inversely correlated with the total fertility rate but that male secondary school enrolment shows no strong correlation. Similarly, a regression of the 1985 infant mortality rate on 10 year lagged male and female secondary school enrolment rates shows that while female education is associated with lower infant mortality, male education has no statistically significant effect.

A similar exercise by Murthi, Guio, and Drèze for India using district level aggregated data shows that whereas the district female literacy rate had a strong inverse correlation on the district average total fertility rate, on under-five child mortality rate, and on the female disadvantage in child survival, the district male literacy rate had no significant effect on each of these outcomes. Moreover, district per capita income, urbanization, and the spread of medical facilities were not statistically significant determinants of total fertility rate. While these latter three variables do have positive effects on child survival levels, their effects were relatively small compared with the powerful effect of female literacy.

Simulations show that the benefits from expanding female education are far greater than the benefits from other public interventions such as improving family planning service provision or increasing the number of physicians in the population. For example, Subbarao and Raney found that a doubling of the 1975 average secondary school enrolment ratio in the 72 sample countries from 19% to 38% would have reduced the average number of births in 1985 by 29% compared to the actual number in 1985, whereas a doubling of the family planning provision would have reduced the number of births by only 3.5%.

The gains in terms of deaths averted are also striking. Simulations predict that doubling the female secondary school enrolment ratio from 19% to 38% in 1975 reduces infant deaths in 1985 by 64% while doubling the number of physicians reduces the number of infant deaths by a mere 2.5%. Doubling per capita income (or GDP) from the average of \$650 in the 72 sample countries to \$1300 would have no effect on the number of infant deaths!

Subbarao and Raney also reported data on desired family size from the World Fertility Survey for 37 countries. Econometric analysis of this data suggested that after controlling for per capita income, female secondary school enrolment was a highly significant determinant of desired family size (and therefore of the total fertility rate and population growth rate). Male school enrolment ratio, however, had no impact on desired family size.

Finally, a large body of microeconomic evidence shows that increases in women's education generally lead to increases in their labour force participation as well as in their earnings. Educated women's greater participation in labour market work and their higher earnings are thought to be good for their own status (economic models say "bargaining power") within the household, and are good for their children because it appears that a greater proportion of women's income than men's is spent on child goods. On the down side, it may be thought that educated women's

greater labour force participation takes them away from their children for longer periods of time (than is the case for uneducated or less educated women) and this may disadvantage educated women's children through neglect. At present this is a relatively unresearched issue. However, limited evidence suggests that children whose mothers work have just as good or better educational outcomes than children whose mothers do not work.

The findings in the studies cited above are corroborated by international as well as national studies, and they demonstrate the powerful role of women's agency and women's educational empowerment in reducing desired family size, fertility, population growth, child morbidity, child mortality, and gender-bias in child mortality, while at the same time showing that men's education mattered comparatively less to these important social outcomes.

Pathways through which education affects social outcomes

Why should education of females significantly reduce the fertility and mortality rates and improve child health? What are the pathways through which girls' education leads to these social gains? Bahá'ís have tended to focus importantly, though not exclusively, on the value of an educated woman for the upbringing and education of her offspring. This benefit is now prominently recognized outside the religion.

Economists tend to focus on the role of incentives as a way of understanding phenomena. They reason that female education lowers the fertility rate by reducing desired family size and that this, in turn, is because education raises the value of women's economic activities by raising the labour market rewards from going out of the home for work. In other words, the opportunity-cost of staying at home for child bearing and rearing increases as women become more educated and so, educated women desire smaller families. Education may also change women's preferences about the quantity versus the quality of children, with educated women choosing fewer children but of better "quality". Moreover, as mentioned earlier, recent research suggests that a greater proportion of women's cash income than men's is spent on child goods, so that women's education and the consequent increase in women's income would appear to have particular benefits for child quality.

Education of women improves child health because of educated mothers' greater knowledge of the importance of hygiene and of simple remedies. All this lowers infant mortality, which in turn means that a family does not need to have a large number of children in order to hedge against the possibility of premature death of some children. Further, it appears that education of females increases the age at marriage (or at cohabitation) and through this delay, lowers the total fertility rate, i.e. number of children ever born to a woman.

Finally, some studies find that mother's education has a greater impact on the educational attainment and school achievement of children than father's education. This is plausible given the greater interaction between mother and children in most families since, in most countries, fathers are usually the main earners in the household. In this way, education of females contributes more significantly (than the education of males) to increases in human capital, productivity, and economic growth not only in their own generation but also in the next generation.

Gender equality in education: a universal value?

It appears that there is an increasing challenge to the principle of gender equality not only from religious fundamentalists but also from a broader current, particularly in Asia, that questions the universality of the principle, contesting it as a "western value". For example, when a recent study found that Pakistan had forgone much economic growth between 1970 and 1985 because of its large scale failure to invest in the education of its females, a large group of angry Pakistani economics academics called education of females a "western value" and argued that education of females had led to increased incidence of divorce, family breakdown and social problems in western countries. Indeed, the Pakistani detractors who questioned the usefulness of women's education and claimed that it had wrought family breakdown in western countries might have a valid argument.

Women's status

Women account for roughly half the world's population, perform two-thirds of the hours worked, receive one-tenth of the world's income, and have less than one hundredth of the world's property registered in their names. Female deprivation is particularly acute in the developing countries with high levels of poverty, though in affluent nations women also suffer low status due to conservative attitudes.

The most dramatic and telling statistic of women's status is the sex-ratio in the population, that is, the number of females per 100 males. It is a well-known fact that life-expectancy at birth favours females. This appears to be a biological constant. Yet, the proportion of females to males varies greatly across different regions of the world. For example, the proportion of females is 52.5% in the industrialized world but in sub-Saharan Africa women account for only 51% of the population. The figures are 48% of the population in East Asia and less than 47% in South Asia. From figures such as these, economist Amartya Sen has estimated that there are 100 million women "missing" in the world. Sen describes the fate of these women as "one of the more momentous problems facing the contemporary world." This is a moral as well as a development-related problem.

The overwhelming reason why 100 million women are missing in the world is excess female mortality. In the developed world, women outlive men by an average of six years; by contrast, in large parts of South Asia, men can expect to live longer than women.

Differential mortality is only the most dramatic manifestation of systematic discrimination against females. Women and girls are more likely to be impoverished than men and boys. Also, studies have found that girls are fed less than their brothers and that their illnesses are less likely to be treated. It should come as no surprise then that, in most regions of the world, female literacy and education fall far short of male literacy and education. While poverty and cultural factors must surely influence the extent of female deprivation, they do not explain it entirely. For example, sub-Saharan Africa is one of the poorest regions of the world but the problem of excess mortality of females is much less severe there than in South Asia.

CONCLUSION

Higher education is more influencing and determinant element to develop the country in terms of economically and socially. But in mean time few countries are caring both elementary and higher education but rest of them neglecting higher education so it left to private sector or elite class to have, when we see this as important to the economic and social changes through education. There is necessary to give importance to enhance higher education to restore the ethical values in the society because as we saw in the society right now everywhere there is irregularities which leads to certain inequalities in the system. And also there is urgency to look after the economic development and hazardless society in which provides to lead overall development of the nation in all respect.

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