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DEVELOPING PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES
OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN INDIA

Dissertation
Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By
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****
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1962

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Problem

India stands today at the threshold of a great change. Developmental programs are being planned and executed to increase the national wealth of the country. Natural resources are being exploited to accelerate economic efficiency. Education is receiving a great impetus. It is realized that democracy can survive and thrive only on mass education. The Constitution requires universal elementary education up to the age of fourteen. Reforms in philosophy, aims, curriculum, methodology and evaluation are being introduced at all levels of education. At the elementary stage, basic education has replaced the traditional subject-centered curriculum. Secondary education is designed to suit the needs of the society and those of individuals. Programs of teacher education are being speeded up. University and higher education is expanding both horizontally and vertically. Adults are receiving formal and informal education to adapt themselves to the changing situation. For this purpose a comprehensive plan of social education is being worked out.
But the success of all these educational plans depends upon the effectiveness of educational administration. During the period of British rule administration was established to carry on an educational program of limited scale. The administrative hierarchy during this period was mainly for the purpose of maintaining discipline and enforcing rules and regulations. The authority and responsibility for administering educational institutions which were operated more or less on a regimented basis were vested in the officers of the state. Supervision and inspection of the schools were limited to assessing the teachers' performance. There were few suggestions for effecting improvement in the teaching program, and no specific responsibility for program change was designed.

Even after India achieved independence in 1947 the system of administration continued more or less on the old pattern. Now the problem before the whole country is how to make educational administration more effective in the face of the changing needs in education. The problem is not simple. It is keenly felt that educational administration is democratic India requires a total change in philosophy, goals, purposes, tasks, methodology, and evaluation. But the problem becomes more complex when one considers that any new program of educational leadership
in a country like India can be realized only in so far as the social structure will permit. What factors are now present to make such a change possible? What changes in organization are needed? What changes in human relationships would be appropriate? What tasks should be assumed by administration? What would inspire and create confidence among the different echelons of the administration? What sort of educational leadership would be required if democratic administration is to result? How should educational administrators be prepared for their leadership?

These are some of the pertinent questions. Their answers must be made on sound philosophical and psychological principles, at the same time being consistent with the cultural perspective of the country. Such an administration model would provide the basic principles and practices of a program of education administration in India. It is the objective of this study to develop such principles and practices as the basis of elements of a model for educational administration in India.

The Background of the Problem

India achieved its independence on the 15th of August, 1947. It prepared its constitution within two years, and the Constitution became effective January 26, 1950. According to the constitution, education became a
state responsibility. Most educational policies and practices are formulated and implemented by the state department of education. Theoretically, the education department of the central government maintains only an advisory relationship to the state. However, S. N. Mukerji observes:

But the new constitution of the Republic of India has not made a marked improvement upon the government of India Act of 1935. Education, with previous restrictions, continues to be a "provincial" subject. But institutions for profession, vocational and technical training, together with promotion of special studies or research are to be controlled by the Republican Government. But the states are autonomous in regard to their educational matters except in respect of those programmes for which they receive subsidies from the central government. ¹

Under such circumstances, a study is needed to clarify where responsibility for education in India really lies. India is in a process of development. Political, social, economic, cultural and educational changes are taking place every day. Within a decade, wonderful progress has been made. Five year plans are being worked on. Their results are encouraging. A report of the Indian Government says:

The first plan being essentially one of pre-rapid development in the future, its target of investment and of increases in production were modest compared with what would have to be achieved within the next twenty years or so. Initially an outlay of RS 2,069 crores was proposed; it was later raised to RS 2,356 crores.2

The Second Five Year Plan was submitted to Parliament on May 15, 1956. The main objectives are (1) an increase of 25 per cent in the national income; (2) rapid industrialization with particular emphasis on the development of basic and heavy industries; (3) a large expansion of employment opportunities; and (4) a reduction of inequalities in income and wealth and a more even distribution of economic power.

The Third Plan aims at securing an increase of 5 per cent per annum in national income so that over the fifteen years from 1950-51 to 1965-66 the total increase in national income would amount to about 80 per cent.

The overall effects of such changes are noticeable in all the departments of administration. Education can be no exception. Each department operates on a philosophy, a set of objectives, and techniques of its own. No set pattern of administration exists for all departments. Each

department evolves its own policies and procedures in the best interest of the performance and achievement of its several tasks.

Education has a very significant role to play in this development plan. Because of the changing and growing educational program in India, its administration, too, must change. The old-fashioned administration, a legacy of the British Government, must give way to administration that is new in spirit, outlook and form. "New wine in old bottles," as the saying goes, is not good enough for an administrative program which has the responsibility for the execution of education which aims at assisting the country become a truly democratic state.

India is now an independent and a republican country. It is essentially different from an India under British subjection. It is developing a national system of education. This is a stupendous task. S. N. Mukerji observes:

The task is not very easy, so far as our country is concerned. Imagine the magnitude of the undertaking - the provision of universal compulsory primary education for all children of school-going age, when only one-fifth of them are in school; social education for illiterate parents of the children, who form the main bulk of Indian population... Our new education should be national in character. It should receive its inspiration from our national traditions, cultural of the
nation and the literature of the country...
The study of our languages and literature, art and culture, philosophy and history, music and painting must occupy a proper place in the curricula of our school's and colleges.3

At the elementary stage, the nation has accepted the basic system of education which is considered to be the most suitable for the enhancement of the cultural heritage of the country.

In the field of secondary education, efforts are being made to bring an all-around improvement. The Secondary Education Commission4 was appointed by the Government of India in 1953. It made various recommendations in regard to developing objectives, and improving curriculum, methodology, evaluation, examination, and administration. These recommendations are gradually being implemented by the state governments and administration needs to be thoroughly democratized and decentralized. The problems before the educators such as "illiteracy, lack of adequate experience in representative government, and limited taxable resources at the local level make decentralization in any large measure a difficult problem."5

The Commission recommended several administrative measures at the national and state levels. The Commission recognized the difficulty of having as secretary of the education department a person from the Civil Service who is often not fully conversant with educational problems and liable to be transferred frequently from one department to another. It therefore recommended that the director of education should have at least the status of a joint secretary. But the International Team held the opinion "that where the director of education is not the secretary but only a joint secretary, the secretary should be a person with professional experience in education."6

These reports show some trend in the changes of administration. But the studies have neither encompassed all of the various aspects of educational administration nor touched the many techniques, principles, and concepts of organization appropriate to the task at hand.

Various Aspects of the Problem
to be Investigated

To carry out the major purpose of the study, developing principles and practices of educational administration in India, it is necessary to answer a number of related questions which include the following:

6Ibid., p. 105.
1. What has been the nature of administration in India?

2. What was the purpose of educational administration in India?

3. What changes were made in administration after India achieved independence in 1947?

4. What inferences can be drawn from educational administration in America for the Indian situation?

5. Is there a need for a more encompassing theory for educational administration in India?

6. Should such an administrative theory be copied from America or should it be developed in its own cultural setting, taking certain clues from America?

7. What should be the nature of educational administration in India?

8. What tasks should educational administration perform in India?

9. How should educational leaders be trained and developed in India?

The Significance of the Study

In India, educational administration has received much of its spirit and philosophy from public administration. As a result educational philosophy and practices
have not had as much of an impact upon educational administration as might have been desirable.

This study is to impress upon the people, leaders, educators and government officials of India that unless educational administration is evolved on a scientific basis and philosophical grounds, the goals and objectives of the educational plan will not be fulfilled.

Every democratic country needs an educational philosophy. This philosophy determines the objectives and goals of education. For the fulfillment of these goals and objectives, programs have to be considered. But who will consider, plan and execute the program? Here is where educational organization and administration enter. They are responsible for successful implementation of the program.

Thus it is apparent that the task of educational administration involves many steps, including philosophy, goals, objectives and programs. Education is a continuous process. It is dynamic in nature. This means that a set of rules and principles applicable at one time may not be suitable at another time. For this purpose, constant evaluation and research are required. These can possibly be achieved through the leadership of educators. Now it may appear that educational administration exists independently. Much of the theory described in this paper has
been formulated and evolved in America in the cultural background and democratic practices of this country. Educators are the educational leaders. They are professional people. Of course, they do not ignore the laymen. They involve them in the goal setting. The degree and nature of the involvement of laymen are important factors in the determination of principles of action, but the professional does not abdicate his leadership here. For the purpose of policy-making lay and professional co-operation is desirable.

Similarly, India stands now in the need of developing new principles and practices of educational administration. The reason is obvious. In a democratic country like India, education has to be developed in a manner that is consistent with what is known and is being learned about how people learn.

The Design of the Study

The method employed in this study is historical-documental-philosophical. Some of the study is descriptive. Other methods—genetic-developmental and historical—are secondary. Therefore, the various experiences, studies, discussion, conferences, and active work in the library, based upon authentic facts and figures derived from reliable sources, has been considered to be an acceptable means of research.
Source of Data

The following sources of data were used:

1. Reports, records, legal documents, legislative proceedings, bulletins, pamphlets, brochures, acts, ordinances, and orders issued by the central and provincial (i.e., state) governments of India and Indian states.

2. Central ministry of education, central and state bureaus of education, Embassy of India in the United States and Indian and American educators.

3. Educational plans by central and state governments as contained in the accepted drafts of the three "Five Years' Plans."


6. Speeches and writings of American educators who have been to India.

7. Doctoral dissertations and masters' theses on Indian education written in the United States.

**Procurement of Data**

The following procedure was adopted for collecting data:

1. A review of the literature, mostly doctoral dissertations and masters' theses, submitted to American universities;

2. A review of the publications which throw light on the historical development of educational administration in India, especially since British rule in the country;

3. A study of publications which explain educational administration in India;

4. A study of major sources of information about educational administration in the United States.

**Treatment of Data**

The data thus procured was analyzed and interpreted. The analysis was organized around the major problems under investigation. Comparisons and contrasts were made between the different phases of educational administration,
structure, organization, supervision, and other tasks and principles, if any. Finally, the data was examined in terms of logic, sequence, acceptable philosophy, relatedness, relevance, validity, reliability and scientific thinking.

The Limitation of the Study

The study concerns the development of the principles and practices of educational administration in India. The topic is vast. So it is desirable to take up only certain aspects of the subject. While the study is limited, it would be desirable to point out that educational administration covers a large area. It includes elementary, secondary, and higher education. This study is mainly concerned with the school system and its different phases of administration within the several states. Educational administration may be analyzed in regard to organization, management, personnel, and job descriptions. The thesis will embody the general principles governing the purposes of administration, the nature of administration and task areas. To be more definite and specific, the following topics will prescribe the limits of the study:

1. The difference between public administration and educational administration.

2. The issues related to educational administration in India.
3. The characteristics and purposes of educational organization and administration in India.

4. The various task areas of educational administration.

5. Administration at the state level and other levels in India.

6. The administrative processes.

7. The different attributes of educational leadership.

8. The techniques and principles behind supervision.

9. The program for preparing educational administrators in India.

10. The implications to be drawn out of the study of American concepts of educational administration for India.

Years of experience are required to define the necessary criteria and general propositions, to set up the definite policies and line of action to be followed in a democratic administration. But to achieve these ends, it is necessary to formulate some general guidelines so that in the course of time a conclusion may be arrived at. This explanation clears up to some extent the nature of the dissertation. To make it more clear, the word principle as used here does not mean "notions of cause and effect" or that "which the scientist seeks to build."
The principles to be evolved will not be of the "grass roots" variety. The general nature of administrative patterns and the behavior desirable for education will be presented so that a model may be visualized in an attempt to build a theory of democratic administration in education in India. The writer means "to develop a set of concepts that will permit the description in terms relevant to principles and practices of administrative situations." \(^7\)

Naturally, the study being carried on in the United States and by a person steeped in Indian culture, has also these limitations that result from one's own personal growth, such as:

1. The writer's past experiences in education in India as a teacher, administrator, organizer, and supervisor.

2. His study in America as a student of educational administration, secondary education, higher education, adult education and other forms of education.

3. His keen interest, as a student in India, in political science, international politics, and public administration.

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4. His practical approach as a worker in the experimental program of education in basic education (elementary education), residential school (secondary education), teacher-training, and community-projects (extension and adult education).

5. Guidance from some of the most experienced teachers, administrators and researchers of America, especially those who have traveled widely inside and outside the country.

6. Observations of different, selected institutions carrying on specialized programs.

7. Conferences with instructors, university administrators, and researchers on the campus of The Ohio State University.

**Definition of Terms**

Vedic education - started when "Veda" appeared in Hindu society and continued until the rise of Buddhism.

Sanskrit - the classical language of India. Its origin is considered to be the "Celtic" language, from which most of the languages of the West are derived.

Pali - a language in which Buddhist literature has been written. It is different from the classical language.
Ashram - the place where the students used to live with the family of the teachers and received education. It was a sort of residential type school.

"Maktab" - an elementary school. It started during the Muslim period.

Primary education - elementary education.

Basic education - from the first grade to the eighth grade. It was started by Mahatma Gandhi, father of the nation. Its principles are based on activity methods of teaching.

Middle School - consists of grades from infant to the seventh grade. Its curriculum is subject-centered.

High school - covers the latter part of secondary education, generally from grades eight to eleven.

Minister of Education - is responsible for education in the central government as well as in state governments. He is elected by the people as a member of the Parliament and appointed by the Prime Minister as a minister and assigned the portfolio of education. In the state, he is elected by the people as the member of the legislature and appointed by the chief minister as a minister and assigned the portfolio of education. So there is one minister of education and different ministers of education in different states.
Education Secretary - an administrator, generally from the Civil Service ranks and not a professional. He advises the ministers on administrative matters.

D.P.I. - the head of the Department of Education in the state. He is a professional officer who gives technical advice.

Grant-in-aid - the high school which gets financial aid from the state government is known as a grant-in-aid high school.

Board Examination - given at the end of high school for the purpose of graduation.

Overview of Other Chapters

The second chapter depicts the origin and evolution of educational administration. In the third chapter, a cultural history of India from the ancient to the present time is presented. The fourth chapter deals with the American system of educational administration. The fifth chapter contains the model of educational administration for India. It is divided into three parts: (I) Concepts of educational administration, (II) various tasks under educational administration, and (III) a training program for the preparation of educational administrators. The sixth chapter contains the summary, conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER II

THE EVOLUTION OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN INDIA

From very early times in India men have lived in some form of organized society. Even the pre-Aryan races had a system of public administration. "The head of the family became the Chief of the Clan, then the leader of the tribe, and ultimately the ruler of the state... In the course of time the state outgrew its original limitations and became national." ¹

In Ancient Indian states the ruler was never regarded as the head of the religion. The primary duty of the ruler was to look after the social well-being of the people. "Religion was the function of the priests. This led to the position that the political status of individuals was independent of their religious beliefs and convictions." ²

In the beginning the power of the state was confined to the maintenance of internal order. Subsequently it assumed the administration of justice. With the progress

²Ibid., p. 39.
of civilization, society became more complex. The sphere of state action gradually widened and enveloped almost the entire life of the people. This expansion was a matter of the organic development of administration, which had as its goal the maximum development of the people's well-being.

During the earlier stages of administrative growth, there had been no differentiation of administrative functions. One person in authority exercised various powers. But with the increase of state authority it was necessary to separate functions.

There is scarcely any record of what the states did for education during the Hindu and Buddhist periods, before the third Century B.C. There was, of course, the old Brahmanical system of education prevailing in the country. "According to this system the pupils were required to spend a good many years, from the age of six to twenty-one, in the house of their preceptors." 3

The pupils were dependent on the charity of the people and used to do all the work of their teachers. The occasionally got some grants from the kings and landlords. Every citizen thought it was his duty to assist and to contribute to the maintenance of such institutions. So the need for public participation in the educational

3 J. M. Sen, History of Elementary Education in India (Calcutta: The Book Company, Ltd., College Square, 1941), p.5.
administration was demonstrated from the very beginning. It was as much a duty of the rich as of the poor. This tradition bespeaks the sentiments and feelings of the public regarding the educational system. It means that the educational institutions were based on popular opinion. Of course, it would be very difficult to maintain that the administration was democratic, because education was not universal. It was confined to particular classes.

In the early times Hindu civilization remained confined to the Northwestern part of India. In the sixth century B.C. Takshasila (Modern Taxila near Peshawar) became the chief center of learning. The King Bimbisara (582 to 554 B.C.) helped education with grants. The reason was that he was cured of some painful disease by a reputed physician, Jivak, who had been a student of Takshasila.

Nothing further is known about the royal subsidy in the matter of education until Asoka's rule in 269 to 229 B.C.

Some interesting and useful information is available regarding Asoka's participation in education. Vincent Smith, the famous historian, writes:

The care taken to publish the imperial edicts and commemorative records by incising them in imperishable characters, most skillfully executed on rocks and pillars situated in great cities, on main lines of communication, or at sacred spots frequented by pilgrims, implies that a knowledge of reading and writing was widely diffused, and that many people must have been able to read the documents. The same inference may be drawn from the fact that
inscriptions are composed not in any learned scholastic tongue, but in vernacular dialects intelligible to the common people and modified when necessary to suit local needs... I think it likely that the percentage of literacy was higher than it is now in many provinces of British India.4

It is clear that the Hindu and Mohammadan Kings did something for the spread of education out of the state revenue. But too-glowing a picture cannot be drawn. It must be admitted that the education which they provided was not for the masses. It was meant for special classes. There was no such thing as an education department of the state. No comprehensive scheme of education was ever drawn up. However, the schools which the kings founded, or which came under their personal notice, flourished for some time owing to their beneficence.

India was unsettled then. Wars and strife continued at frequent intervals. These conflicts hardly gave the kings any time for thought for the development of education. They were all more or less busy over territorial acquisitions and the expansion of their powers. Their grants for education were in the nature of private benefactions. As a matter of fact, individuals with their private benefactions helped the cause of education more than it was helped by the sporadic grants of kings. Individuals gave endowments to education. The schools started with such foundations continued to

flourish. Schools started by the kings ceased to exist as soon as they lost the patronage of royalty. Under such a state of affairs it is difficult to give any picture of educational administration during these periods. However, efforts were made by the writer to collect some evidence of the organization of the institutions serving the purposes of education. So far as their management is concerned, it is definite that they were not entirely under government control. The schools were managed by the individual teachers, who were assisted by the community. The atmosphere of co-operation and public sympathy and goodwill prevailed in the educational institutions. Furthermore, education seems to have been planned mainly by the teachers. But it does not mean that they did not take into account the popular demand of the people. As the source of financing the school was donations from the people, naturally people's confidence had to be won.

**Educational Administration During the Hindu Period**

Invasion, warfare, conquest, and defeat brought rivalries among the different states. There was an atmosphere of uncertainty and suspicion and fear of losing their kingdoms among the rulers of the states. Therefore, they were busy in military strategy and in increasing their armies. Education had not established its claim for royal
support and management. Hence, the question of educational administration on the state level does not arise during this period. Education was mainly the concern of individuals during this period. It was undertaken by individuals who were learned on their own initiative. So, educational administration in the present sense of the term did not exist during that time, although the place where education was imparted by the individual teachers had some rules and regulations. These rules and regulations have not been properly codified, but they might be considered as constituting the smatterings of educational administrative organization. Because administration is a very flexible concept, its origin may be traced back to primitive time. When two persons combined to roll a piece of big stone, some sort of organization was needed. And any further development of society would obviously need more organizational principles and philosophy. Similarly, the congregation of the students and teachers' family at one place, known as "Ashram," was guided by certain rules. These rules may be classified under the administration of education. Of course, the classification will differ greatly from the present time. But the organization and administration of education during this period may be classified as follows:
1. **Curriculum** - It was prescribed for different phases. The time was fixed from one phase to another. The course was practical and theoretical.

2. **Pupil personnel** - There were certain rules of conduct which guided the pupils. They had to live a disciplined and well-regulated life. They had to observe the rules of health, social life, community life, and economy.

3. **Staff Personnel** - The staff personnel consisted of the teachers and their family members. They had also to follow certain codes of life. Students and teachers were supposed to live together. Life was supposed to be harmonious and co-operative.

4. **Finance** - The main source of finances was the work that students did for the teacher, including cultivation of land, rearing of cattle, and other domestic work. The other source of income was charity, donations from the people. The third source was occasional grants from the king.

5. **Management and organization** - Students were supposed to live a family life in the house of the teacher, and he had to assume a large part of the responsibility for household affairs.
Some of these responsibilities were administrative functions in a very primitive and crude form. But the organizational structure and functions were not altogether based on rules of thumb. The institution which catered to the educational need of the individual and the society was not altogether out of focus with society. There was interconnection between the two. Naturally the social customs and traditions influenced these rules and eventually helped the development of education. The Ashram, which was not under the control of governmental management, became a part of the cultural life of the society. This is the reason why these Ashrams and the teachers who managed them had a high rank in society. The teacher's financial condition was not very favorable but his social status was very high, so much so that even the king held him in high esteem.

In the presence of the teacher, the king stood away from his throne, and he used to sit when the teacher asked him to sit. Of course, this procedure was not regulated by any rules, but it was a social custom which grew out of the seer's respect for the teacher. It means that the teacher, who was supposed to be the fountain of all cultural life, had to maintain a high standard of social life and set an example of moral conduct. Society still
thinks that the teacher should maintain the same ideals and standards.

Without going into detail on the nature of the general administration in the monarchies, it would be worthwhile to trace the system of welfare work during that period. It appears that the predominant function of administration during the period was to maintain law and order. For this purpose there were ministers. Under them were subordinate officials. The business of the state was divided into a number of departments, each of them being under a superintendent. The most important departments were those of accounts, treasury, mines, mint, commerce, forest, armory, weights and measures, tolls, shipping, agriculture, weaving, and police. Nowhere is there any mention of an education department. 'Arthasastra,' by Kautilya, which is the most important book of the period, never mentions educational administration in its outline of administration in the ancient time.

Besides keeping law and order, the civil administration administered justice and public works.

Local Government

Besides central government, there was the system of local government. P. N. Bannerji observes:
Originally, it seems, the villages were completely self-governing. They were practically free from central control. The "gramani" (headman) and other village officials were appointed by the community and were accountable to them...

During the centralized administration of the Maurya Emperors, the village assembly lost much of its power and prestige.5

In their corporate capacity the villagers constructed and maintained works of public utility, and undertook measures tending to the improvement of the village.

From these lines it can be inferred that education might be included in the village administration. It was a work of 'Public Utility,' so probably the local government took care of it.

Educational Administration during the Buddhist Period.

It appears that in the Buddhist period education began to receive royal patronage. Many important institutions offering higher education sprang up. Education here means education after the elementary stage. Famous universities at Nalanda, Vikramasila, Vallabhi, and at other places began to render unique services to the cause of education.

Buddhism was more organized. There were organizations for the Buddhist monks, which were known as 'Sanghi'  

5 P. N. Bannerji, op. cit., pp. 289-293.
and 'Vihars.' Education started to be organized through these 'Vihars' and 'Sanghis.' Altekar observes:

Nalanda University was richly endowed by a succession of Gupta and other rulers; it owned a hundred villages yielding rich revenues... Vikramasila Monastery, founded by King Dharmapala in the 8th century, was a famous centre of international learning for more than four centuries.6

The administrative management of the Vikramasila establishment was entrusted by the Pala rulers to a board of six monks presided over by the Chief Abbot. Different members of the Board were assigned different administrative duties.

During this period, some description of educational administration is found here and there. It implies that the administration of education was never directly promoted by the kings. Educational administration was entrusted in the hands of the experts who formed the Board, which mainly managed the affairs. But the teachers enjoyed a large amount of academic freedom.

The second feature of the administration which emerged prominently during this period was the more organized curriculum.

The third aspect of administration to appear is management. Owing to the residential nature of education, community life was organized. Requirements for the daily life

in the matters of boarding and lodging had to be taken care of. For this purpose, administrative organization developed.

The fourth aspect of educational administration that emerged is the building and plants. Buildings and other necessary allied materials for the educational facilities were designed and completed.

The fifth division of the educational administration came in the form of the maintenance of the necessary rules of admission, studies and final examinations. Moreover, the corporate life of thousands of students at one place automatically evolved some rules and regulations for the smooth conduct of the institution.

The last constituent of the administration is the management of the big staff and the financial assets.

But unfortunately no description of these features of educational administration has found a place in any book of education excepting a few sentences here and there. The financial structure of the educational institutions brought a new type of management. Permanent endowments and property fetched a stable income. So financial management was also different from what it was during the Hindu period. R. K. Mookerji observes:

Life in these monasteries was governed by regulations which followed the lines laid down in the Vinaya. The Monasteries were
maintained by the endowments of the laity, including Kings and merchant princes, "the heads of the Vai-Syas." They "built Viharas for the priests and endowed them with fields, houses, gardens, and orchards, along with the resident populations and their cattle... Fa-Hien refers to "the Annual tribute (from the harvests)" paid to the monks.7

Educational Administration During the Muslim Period

During this period also the administrative system was not organized. Muslim rulers were not concerned with the spread of education on a mass scale. Thus, education was not controlled by the government, but was in the indigenous stage. This means that the individuals and communities had to arrange for education. No central government administrative machinery of any kind existed. Occasional grants were given to 'Maktabs' and 'Madarasa,' but these grants did not constitute formal procedures. The benevolent and liberal attitudes of the kings were the only basis of these grants.

As the government was imperial and the Mohammedan rulers were aliens, the question of encouraging traditional education did not arise. Snaskrit learning was not encouraged, but this education had a deeply rooted and well-established tradition. So the cultural heritage passed

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from one generation to another as a matter of cultural give and take. The new problem of Islamic education emerged. There was the question of bringing a proper synthesis of this new learning with the existing, well-established and rich culture of thousands of years, which grew and became very rich during the Hindu and Buddhist periods.

During the Muslim rule, there were some enlightened and liberal-minded kings, such as Akbar. They encouraged learning and they were not apathetic to Sanskrit learning. As a result of this benevolent attitude, Sanskrit and Islamic learning flourished side by side. S. N. Mukerji observes:

A state administrative machinery of the modern type did not exist and education was self-controlled. But both the Hindu and Muslim rulers considered it a religious obligation to help the spread of education. Liberal grants and donations were given for the promotion of education, and scholarships were awarded to deserving students. Royal patrons built universities and other educational institutions and endowed them with funds, but they neither claimed any authority over them nor interferred with their management. The royal courts were the sanctuaries of poets, musicians, painters, and learned men. Even big landholders were morally bound to spread education, and almost every village had a primary school of its own.⁸

⁸S. N. Mukerji, Education in India To-day and Tomorrow (Baroda: Acharya Book Depot, 1950), p. 5.
It appears that education during this period was mainly the concern of the community. Management rested with the feudal lords or the village as a whole. Thus, the local character of education carried over into this age. The school served the purpose of the community. The desire for education was motivated by the hope of government jobs. Since Hindus were not encouraged in the royal services, the social status of the schools was not so high. People also did not have a keen interest in organizing the schools on the higher levels of education. Along with the lack of incentive in this respect, poverty hampered the spread of education. E. V. Dadape is of the opinion that "Vernacular began to develop. They formed the important syllables which consisted of the 3 R's."

During the Mohammadan rule, openings for educated Hindus in government service became very few. As a result, at the advent of the British rule, only 15 per cent of the children of school-going age were found attending the primary schools and much less in schools devoted to higher education.

Education and religion went hand in hand. So the mosque, as Philip Hartog quotes, "was a madrassa, or school

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of learning in miniature, where distinguished Arabic scholars taught without remuneration."^{10}

Previous to the occupation of the Punjab by the British, there existed three types of schools there. William J. McKee observes:

These were the Hindu schools, the Moslem schools and the Sikh schools. In the Hindu schools (Pathashalas), instruction constituted in the rudiments of arithmetic and reading... Moslem schools (Masjid, Madrassa), the Koran in Arabic and the didactic and poetical works of Sadi in Persian (the Gulistan and Bostan) were taught. In the Sikh schools instruction dealt with the reading of the Granth (the religious book of the Sikhs) in Gurumullhi and the rudiments of arithmetic.\(^{11}\)

The most interesting thing about these village schools was the status given to the teacher. The school master had a definite place assigned to him in the village economy, in the same manner as the head man, the accountant, the watchman and the artisan. Allan remarks that, "he was an officer of the village community, paid either by rent-free lands or by assignment of grain out of the village harvest."\(^{12}\)

The system was handed over to the Muslim administration by the Hindu rulers. The administration and the

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organization of the schools were established on the cultural traditions of Judia. They became identified with the whole structure of the community and its social life. New ideas appeared and developed through these institutions, although their status was that of an indigenous condition. But the Muslim rule could not perpetuate the system. The disorganization was hastened, first, by the gradual decadence of the village community, so that it ceased to function effectively as an organic unit. Secondly, the status and position of the teacher could not be maintained. He became a casual worker, instead of being a village employee with an honored position in the community. The school also became a casual day school. It was not infrequently attached to a place of worship. It began to decay in educational prestige. It lost its touch with village life and became merely a formal and mechanical affair. It continued to emphasize religious subjects and classical writings far beyond the understanding and interest of its pupils in both language and content.

Under the conditions described above, it is not surprising that education and its organizational adhesiveness and solidarity decreased in effectiveness. So much so that Ramsay MacDonald says that "With the break-up of the Indian Government after Aurangzib (1707) misery and anarchy submerged education, and it sank to such a low level that it
ceased to have any influence on the country."\textsuperscript{13}

The administrative aspects of education were not in a very favorable condition in other respects, \textit{either}. The financial condition of the schools did not justify any encouraging progress in the educational field.

The remuneration of the teachers was variable and precarious. It frequently consisted in presents of grain and sweetmeats given by the scholars and their parents. Nothing like the modern system of education was established and maintained by the state during Muslim rule. Education was a private concern, a handmaiden of religion, among the Mohammedans as well as the Hindus. The duty of the state to educate its future citizens was not recognized by the rulers and naturally there was no department of education. The emperors made large grants of land or money to mosques, monasteries and individual saints. This was recognized as a religious and not a political duty and the recipients of these favours were not bound to maintain schools with money. But in actual practice almost every mosque had a 'Maktab,' a primary school, attached to it, where the boys and girls of the neighborhood received elementary education.

The Mughal rulers began to take some interest in higher education, but it was not on a mass scale, nor a regular

feature of the state. B. N. Luniya observes:

Mughal emperors were patrons of education. Humayun was very fond of books, caused a Madarsa to be established at Delhi and changed the pleasure house built by Sher Shah in the Purana Kila into a library. Akbar's reign marks a new epoch in the progress of education in schools and colleges. He built colleges at Fatehpur Sikri, Agra and other places and introduced some changes in the methods of studies and curriculum. Jahangir had promulgated a regulation in his dominions that whenever a well-to-do or rich traveler died without any heir, his property would revert to the Crown to be utilized for building and repairing Madarsas, monasteries, etc. After his accession to the throne, Jahangir repaired even those Madarsas which for the last thirty years had been the dwelling places of birds and beasts and filled them with students and professors. Shah Jahan encouraged learning by granting rewards and repaired the College called 'Dar-ul-Baqi' (Abode of Eternity) which had been almost in ruins. In Dara Shikoh the Mughal Imperial Family possessed one of the greatest scholars that India ever produced. Though Aurangzeb destroyed Hindu schools and temples, he encouraged the education of the Muslim youths in various ways and founded according to Keene, "numerous colleges and schools."

Educational Administration During the British Period

The British system of education started a regular administration for the management and supervision of schools. Educational administration developed organically during this

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period, and its history may be traced on an identical basis with the development of education. The administrative growth may be characterized as facilitating the working of education, which grew in quantity if not in quality.

Educational administration under the British started not with any educational technique or philosophy behind the organization but as a part of British bureaucracy and imperialism. It was designed to play an effective role in giving form to education which might be helpful in strengthening the British government in India. Hence, its structure, policy, principles and organizational concepts were conceived in terms of maintaining a police system of administration. This means that the main motive dominating the administration was the safeguarding of British interests. Its main job was to continue the broader policy of the government. Thus it was very difficult to expect such an administration to be dynamic in spirit and to develop on the basis of educational theory. There were rare instances when the organization was headed by an educator with a free hand and voice. Usually he was ruled either by the governor or viceroy.

Educational theory and principles in a way became the handmaidens of governmental administration. Administration was for the maintenance of peace, order, discipline and
subordination of mind first, and then for educating the people. It was under such an autocratic atmosphere that educational administration originated and developed with the British. The following is a brief historical development of educational administration during the time of British rule.

The East Indian Company and Educational Administration

After the battle of Pallasey, in 1757, the East India Company changed its emphasis on commercial affairs to political organization. In the beginning education was not included as a function of the company. But the company did not keep it altogether secluded for a long time. The Presidency of Bengal was the first province to take up the work of educational reorganization. This was because the liberal attitude which the Court of Directors of the Company adopted in 1823.

The General Committee of Public Instruction

The Governor-General in Council appointed a General Committee of Public Instruction for Bengal Presidency. It was set up in accordance with a resolution dated July 17, 1823. This Committee is the beginning of the Education Department and subsequent expansion in the organization and in the number of administration personnel. The Committee consisted of ten members, including H. T. Prinsep, who was a critic,
of Macaulay. The other important member was H. H. Wilson, who was a greater scholar of oriental learning. The grant of one lakh of rupees (100,000 rupees) was placed at the disposal of the Committee. This amount had been granted by the Charter Act of 1813. The Committee devoted itself mainly to the promotion of oriental learning. Between 1823 and 1833, the Committee organized the Calcutta Madrassah and Benares Sanskrit College. It established a Sanskrit College at Calcutta in 1829 and two more oriental colleges at Agra and Delhi. It undertook the printing and publication of Sanskrit and Arabic books on large scales. Moreover, it employed oriental scholars to translate English books containing useful knowledge into oriental classical languages.

The Council of Education

In 1842, the General Committee of Public Instruction ended. In its place, the Council of Education was set up. In 1845, the Council of Education introduced a resolution for the establishment of Calcutta University. The Court of Directors did not agree to it. The Council of Education by this time included 151 educational institutions, with 13,163 scholars. It spent Rs 5,94,428. After the downfall of Peshwa, in Poona, the Council established a Sanskrit College there. A high school, then called a university, was established in Madras in 1841. Official policy was
divided into two camps. One camp wanted to encourage oriental learning and safeguard Indian culture. The other camp wanted to substitute oriental culture with Western.

As regards administrative policy in education, Nurullah and Naik observe:

Coming to the Political-cum-administrative aspects of the problem, we find that the spread of education among the Indian people was advocated, in this period, on two other grounds as well: to win the confidence of the upper classes of society who had lost their political influence through the British conquest of India, and to secure less costly employees for the subordinate ranks of Government service.15

The Creation of an Education Department

The Education Department was created for the first time in each province in the year 1854, owing to the Despatch of 1854. The main functions with which the start took place was effective inspection by qualified inspectors who were to be appointed. They were to furnish a periodical report upon the state of those colleges and schools which were supported and managed by the government. At that time the posts of Directors of Public Instruction were created in all the provinces. These Directors of Public Instruction were to be recruited from the Civil Service to maintain the dignity

and prestige of the East India Company. So the tradition of a non-educator to handle the Education Department started from this time. The functions of the newly created Education Department were as follows:

1. To advise the provincial governments on matters relating to educational policy.
2. To administer finances.
3. To supervise and inspect educational institutions.
4. To manage government institutions.
5. To prepare educational reports and collect statistics showing the progress of education.
6. To plan for the expansion of education.

These six functions were considered to be very important by the administration. They established precedence for the educational administration. The supervisory work and compilation of statistics were synonymous with the administration. These roots of educational administration became strengthened and firmly established in the course of time. Educational administration grew on a hierarchial basis. It could not expand its jurisdiction from the originally circumscribed area for a long time, until Sir Alexander Grant, the Director of Public Instruction of Education of Bombay in 1867, proposed the creation of a
regular education service. He complained that the Bombay Educational Service was —

A very poor, precarious and in fact, miserable sphere, into which one can hardly dare to advise any young man of ability and cultivation to enter... That an upper Educational Service in Bombay Presidency he formed, which should be open to Natives of distinguished merit, but which would, for a long time to come, be mostly filled by graduates of high standing from the European universities... That this be constituted a "Service" properly so called, with the Covenant of Conditions and regular rules of advance in pay... That this Service consist of Headmasters of First Grade High Schools, Educational Inspectors, Professors of Literature and Science, Principals of Colleges and Directors of Public Instruction.16

Organization of the Education Department in 1882

Education began to spread as the British Parliament took over the administration of India from the East India Company, just after the Revolution of 1857. Hence, the administration was organized on imperial principles and policy without very much deviation in the original doctrine of government. The main objective of the reorganization was to keep a grip tight over administration, in a diplomatic way, by keeping the Indians satisfied. Hence, the Education Department was also not an exception to the general reform in the administration. The Indian Education Commission was set up in 1882. It recommended certain

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improvements. The main improvements related to the increase of the Inspecting Staff, reconsideration for the renumeration of subordinate inspecting officers so that inspection of the schools might be done vigorously and at the place where the school was actually situated. These recommendations of the Commission were endorsed by the Public Service Commission in 1886. Finally, the Secretary of State examined them in 1896 and gave a final approval, which runs:

The Education Department will in future be broadly divided into (a) the Superior Service and (b) the Subordinate Service. The former will consist of two branches, one including all posts to be filled by persons appointed in England, which will be called "The Indian Educational Service" and the other including all posts to be filled by recruitment in India, which will be known as "the Provincial Educational Service" (of Madras, Bombay, Bengal, and so forth)... Generally professors, inspectors and Joint and Assistant Inspectors are to be included in the Provincial Service, and Deputy-Inspectors, headmasters of District Schools, and officers of lower rank in the Subordinate Service.17

The Origin of Indian Education Service in 1896-7

The sanction by the Secretary of State for India in 1896 led to the creation of the Indian Education Service. It was done to bring efficiency in the administrative bureaucracy. A number of hierarchies also came into existence. The higher posts were to attract Englishmen to take assignments in India and keep the British banner flying.

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17 Quinquennial Review of the Progress of Education in India, 1896-7, pp. 53-56.
Grant-in-Aid Schools

These schools were not directly managed and administered by the Education Department, but they were not altogether free from the administration of the Education Department. They had to conform to certain rules and regulations for recognition, text books, courses and money. Thus it may be noted here that two types of institutions came into existence. One kind was entirely managed and administered by the Education Department; the other category was grant-in-aid schools. S. Paul Chinnappa observes:

Education in India is usually classified under two broad heads - Public and Private... The Public Education which occupies our attention now, is under two different kinds of management:

i Public management,
ii Private management.

Under the 'Public managed' institutions are those managed by

i Government,
ii Boards,
iii Native states; and under the 'privately managed' institutions are those called the

iv Aided and
v Unaided.18

So the grants-in-aid schools began to be regulated under the direction of the government. The following extract of a Dispatch from the government of India to the Secretary of

No. 1 State, No. 17 (Public), dated 25th March, 1891, provides clues of this:

The government in all provinces engaged in handing over the control of education to Municipal Committees and Local Boards, and we have, in our Resolution of 23rd of October 1884, on the Education Commission's Report, laid down the principle that "in proportion as the Department withdraws from pushing its own institutions its machinery for inspection will require strengthening. A grant-in-aid system postulates a thorough inspection of all institutions brought under it."19

The Education Department of the Government of India

The Education Department of the Government of India was created in 1910. At the head of the department was the education member. He was one of the members of the viceroy's Legislative and Executive Councils. According to Chinnappa:

The function of the Education Department of the Government of India, is, however, not confined only to the control of education of the Country. It also includes sanitation, local self-government, ecclesiastical matters, archeology, and museums. The Education member is assisted in his work by two secretaries and an assistant Secretary... His chief duty is to control the education policy of the Country and to advise but not to administer or inspect education. He is more a political officer than anything else. He takes care that Imperial policy of India is carried out in all educational activities of the Country.20


20 Chinnappa, op. cit., p. 103.
Educational administration in British India was not clearly defined until 1920. It was difficult to draw a line of demarcation between Provincial Control and Central jurisdiction. Mayhew observes:

Education in India from 1854 has meant a system of schools, colleges, and examinations, ultimately controlled by the government. Administration, though always provincial, was subject to the general control of the government of India up to 1920.  

Many of the institutions were directly maintained from public funds, managed by the Education Department and staffed by teachers who were government officials. Another class was maintained and managed by local authorities subject until recently to close control and supervision by the government. The third class, under private proprietors, has depended on the government either for grants-in-aid, which give financial security, and "recognition," which ultimately qualifies their students for examinations and government service, or for recognition alone. Regular inspection and submission to rules and regulations governing curriculum, text books and all details of organization and equipment were the conditions of such support and recognition. It is true that the provincial governments have delegated to universities in varying measure the control or partial control of higher education by charging them with the framing of curricula.

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and rules or the recognition of high schools or with both these tasks.

Creation of the Post of a Director-General of Education in India

Curzon created the post of a Director-General of Education in India. His main objective in creating this post was to assign great responsibility to the Government of India for education. It would be better to describe the importance of the post in his own words:

My last topic is the desirability of creating a Director-General of Education in India. Upon this point I will give my opinions for what they may be worth. To understand the case we must first realize what the existing system and its consequences are. Education is at present a sub-heading of the work of the Home Department, already greatly overstrained. When questions of supreme educational interests are referred to us for decision, we have no expert to guide us, no staff trained to the business, nothing but the precedents recorded in our files to fall back upon.

In every other department of Scientific Knowledge - Sanitation, hygiene, forestry, mineralogy, horse-breeding, explosives - the government possesses expert advisers. In education, the most complex and most momentous of all, we have none... But I do want someone at headquarters who will prevent the Government of India from going wrong, and who will help us to secure that community of Principle and of aim without which we go drifting about like a deserted hulk on a chopping sea.22

This post was not meant to be an imperial education department. The Director-General of Education was to advise the Government of India on educational matters. Moreover, he was not to control the activities of the provincial and local governments. But he was to give all possible assistance and guidance to these governments. He was expected to collect all the possible information from all the provinces for the government of India. He was expected to summon representative committees and conferences from time to time so as to keep in touch with local jurisdiction. So this highest post of educational administrator was based on the ideal that education is a technical matter, hence the advice should be also technical and expert.

The Educational Adviser. The post of the Director-General of Education of India subsequently was converted to the Educational Commissioner and at present is known as the Educational Adviser.

The Ministry of Education. The Education Department of the Government of India was created in 1945. Later on, in 1947, it was raised to the status of a ministry and then an elected Minister of Education became responsible for its activities.

The Minister is assisted by the Educational Adviser. The Education Department of the Government of India has
four branches: (1) Administration and External Division, (2) Development Division, (3) Scholarships Division, and (4) Technical Division. Each is under the charge of a Deputy Educational Adviser.

The Central Advisory Board of Education. The Board was revived in 1935. It is through this agency that the Government of India co-ordinates the educational activities of all the states. The Education Minister is the chairman of the Board and the Educational Adviser is its secretary. All the states are represented on the Board through the Education Ministers and Directors of Public Instruction who are members of the Board.

The Central Bureau of Education. Its main functions are the collection of educational data, the preparation of educational statistics, and the dissemination of educational information.

Educational Administration at the State Level

Education became a provincial subject under the British rule. Education in the provinces was under the control of the governors. They used to administer with the assistance of the Secretary of Education and the Director of Public Instruction. The Secretary of Education came from the Civil Service cadre; the Director of Public Instruction was selected from among the Indian Education Service. One can find an
anomalous situation arising out of the job description of these two officers. The post of the Secretary of Education was created to help the governor in matters of administration, whereas the Director of Public Instruction became the head of the department. It is an administrative dilemma to define clearly the relationship of the Secretary of Education and the Director of Public Instruction, the former being a non-educator and the latter an educator. This controversy continues even today in educational administration in India. The two categories of posts have created problems and complications in the administrative system. Virtually, the Director of Public Instruction has been subordinated to the Secretary of Education in decision-making and policy formulation, although he is the head of the department. It is a vital issue which will be discussed in detail later on.

It was in 1919, under Dyarchy, that education was transferred to the charge of Indian Ministers. Since then the functions and activities in education department have multiplied. As a result, the headquarters staff of the Directors of Public Instruction have increased. Posts of Deputy Directors of Public Instruction and Assistant Directors of Education were created to assist the Director of Public Instruction. Some of the provinces amalgamated the posts of the Director of Public Instruction and Secretary of Education. The Hartog Committee writes:
Mr. G. E. Fawcus, now Director of Public Instruction, Bihar said that "at the present moment things were being done twice over. After being carefully considered by the Inspectors or Professors, a case would be discussed at great length by the clerks in the Director's office; it was then sent to the Secretariat by the Director, and the work of noting would be done all over again. The work would be halved if the Director became Secretary; there would be one office instead of two..." As we have seen there are two provinces at present in which there is no separate Secretary for Education. There is no evidence that these provinces have suffered under this system...23

The duties of the Director of Public Instruction are excessive and he needs relief, but he is not given that relief by having placed over him an Education Secretary with no expert knowledge of educational administration.

Divisional levels. At the divisional levels inspectors of schools were appointed for the effective supervision of the high schools. They were the administrative heads of the District Inspector of Schools and headmasters of the government schools. The supervision was based on stereotyped forms. It was mostly designed for evaluating teaching in the schools. Actually the supervisors criticised the teachers to find out their faults and offered few constructive suggestions, if any. The Inspector of Schools was considered responsible mainly for the high schools in his division. He was empowered to enforce all the rules and regulations

framed by the Education Department in high schools of both categories - governmental and non-governmental. His recommendations counted much toward the recognition and grant of the schools. He was responsible for the maintenance of efficiency and standards in the high schools.

**Administration at district levels.** Administrators at district levels were known as District Inspectors of Schools. They were in charge of the inspection of Middle Schools and Primary Schools. But the schools were under the management of district boards, district councils and local boards, and municipal boards. The boards consisted of members elected by the people. Each board was responsible for the financial administration and appointment of the teachers. The educational administrators were authorized to supervise the school and assess its efficiency. They had the right to accord recognition to the newly started schools and withdraw it from those found to be unsatisfactory. There were Deputy Inspectors of Schools and Sub-Inspectors of Schools. The main job of these officers was supervisory. They were to assist the boards in technical matters and give advice whenever it was asked for.
Administration After Independence

After independence, India maintained almost all the organizational structures of administration at central and state levels. Educational administration was not an exception. The Central Ministry of Education was headed by the Minister of Education. He began to be assisted by the Educational Advisers and Deputy Educational Advisers. These administrators were selected from among educators. The functions of the Central Department of Education did not change vitally. The newly framed Constitution which was inaugurated on January 26, 1950, made sufficient provision for education to the state governments. But this does not mean that the Central Department of Education had no business to transact. It had an advisory function to the states. Moreover, the collection of statistics and data, by creating an atmosphere favorable to a national system of education, tended to maintain the interest of the central government in education.

The administrative system of the State Department of Education and other levels continued as before. The Secretary of Education with Deputy Secretary of Education and Under-Secretary, in most of the states, give advice to the Minister of Education. They belong to the general administration. They are drafted from the administrative department to assist the Administrator of Education. They are
not professionals for technical matters and advice. The Directors of Public Instruction are entrusted with the responsibilities. They are appointed from among educators as heads of departments.

Educational proposals and policies concerning certain reforms and changes originate in the directorate. They are examined by the Secretary and the staff. It means that they are "subjected to criticisms by the subordinate officers of the Secretariat and are often presented in a form which may be quite different from what was originally conceived by the Director."\(^{24}\) The Secretary is often not conversant with the educational problems and issues as he is frequently transferred from one department of the Secretariat to another. Thus the cause of education suffers in such an administrative system.

There is very little difference in the broader concepts of the educational administration at elementary and secondary school levels. The only difference is that elementary education is administered by the government entirely in co-operation with the officials and elected members of the local bodies, whereas the administration of the secondary schools is divided among the Education Department and non-educators of the community. In a way, it

may be said that administration of secondary education is the function of the school administrators and laymen. But they do not hold joint responsibility. The spheres of activities are divided. The broader policies, inspection and evaluation are under the jurisdiction of the school administrators; everyday administration, including finance, physical facilities and management, comes under the managing committee, consisting of officials and lay members.

Management of the High Schools

It is apparent that there are two types of management for high schools. In the first category there are schools managed by the state or centre. These schools are not large in number. They were started to serve as model schools. The other types of management are through (1) local bodies such as district boards or municipalities, (2) religious organizations and other denomination bodies, (3) registered trust boards, (4) certain private bodies, and (5) individuals. There are various problems and issues which have emerged in the present day educational administration. These problems and issues need to be resolved in the best interest of the administration and finally for the safeguard of education. They will be presented later on.

In the meantime, it would be worthwhile for the State Department of Education to play a vital role in the practices and implementation of education at elementary and secondary
levels. It should plan and administer social education programs also. There are different boards and committees set up for specific functions. They are:

1. The Board of Secondary Education
2. The Secondary School Examination Board
3. The Text-book Committee or Course Committee
4. The Basic Education Board
5. The Adult Education Board

These boards function under the direction and guidance of the Director of Public Instruction. They are represented by the officers of the education department as well as some public members. These boards and committees, as their names suggest, are vested with powers over certain activities. These functions are:

1. The recognition of high schools.
2. The conducting of final examinations and evaluation of high schools.
3. The sanctioning of grants-in-aid of high schools.
4. The prescribing of courses and text-books for all types of schools.
5. The holding of scholarship examinations.
6. The safeguarding of the interests of high-school teachers.
7. The suggestion of changes in the system of everyday administration of the non-governmental high schools.
Problems and Issues Facing Educational Administration in India Today

Administration in the school system presents many problems. These problems need to be analysed and thoroughly investigated for solutions. The methods and means will have to be suggested in terms of the cultural and historical background and perspective. The problems are related to educational administration in the school system with a special reference to secondary education and its background in the Indian situation.

1. The first problem in educational administration concerns the concept of administration. What should be the main feature of educational administration? Is it different from other types of administration? Should an administrator be a specialist trained in the principles and practices of educational administration or should any person with a background of general education be entrusted with the job of administration?

2. The second problem concerns the tasks of educational administration. What should be the various tasks which administrators are expected to perform? How can these tasks be clearly defined? Should the administrator be expert in each of these tasks or should he acquire some training in the technique, principles, and art of administration?

3. What should be the various components of
educational administration? What are the underlying principles in each component?

4. What should be the different processes in educational administration? Are these processes different from those in general administration? If so, in what way?

5. What are the different concepts of organization? In what way does organizational theory operate? What are the different types of organization? What should be the nature of democratic organization?

6. What should be the salient features of a democratic administration? How should the existing administration be democratized? What part should adult education play in the principles and practices of democratic administration?

7. What is educational leadership? How should leadership traits be cultivated in an educational administrator?

8. What should be the principles of supervision? Who should be the supervisor? What is the basis of a co-operative approach in supervision?

9. What are the general principles for formulating a theory of educational administration?

These are the main problems and issues that have emerged from a study of the evolution of education in India and the administrative practices that developed during the long period of evolution. These problems and issues require further elucidation and analysis, for they are vital in the
educational administration of India. Their comprehensive treatment and analysis in a scientific way will provide a basis for predicting the effects of certain administrative principles and practices in the field of education. The above problems and some of the issues have been formulated out of the data collected. The writer feels that these problems are still very broad. For the purpose of making them more meaningful, it is desirable to trace the various side issues and minor problems involved with them. They will serve as specific guideposts for suggesting principles and practices for India.

In such a context it may be mentioned that the educational administration which has evolved in America will provide certain clues for predicting the principles and practices for educational administration in India. Keeping in view the background of India, it would be desirable to draw certain implications suggesting some purposeful ideologies. But it is not easy to draw the conclusion without ascertaining the different views contained in the issue.

The Issues

1. Should educational administration in India have different concepts and philosophy than general administrative principles and objectives, or should it have an integral part of general administration?
2. Should the objectives and goals of educational administration be based on the teaching and learning program or should they emanate from the public administration?

3. Should the educational administration aim at defining tasks consistent with the teaching and learning program or should it confine itself to policy-making and decision-making?

4. Should the philosophy, goals, and objectives of education be formulated by the administrator, or should they be formulated by the community, by the teachers, or by administrators, teachers and people of the community, working in cooperation?

5. Should the curriculum of the school be constructed by the school, by the administration, by the community, or by all?

6. Should the evaluation of the school be done by the administrator, by some agency, or by the school in cooperation with all?

7. Should the pupil personnel administration be separate from educational administration or should it form an integral part of the educational administration?

8. Should educational leadership be democratic or authoritarian?

9. Should the schools be financed by the state government, the central government, the local community, or by all?
10. Should the school-community relationships be maintained on a limited scale, or should it form the integral part of all the activities that the school carries on?

11. Should the administrative organization be on a staff basis or on a line-staff basis?

12. Should the administrative functions be centralized or should they be decentralized?

13. Should the administrator be a policy-maker or an executor of policy?

Some Questions Related to Administrative Principles and Practices

1. What should be the ideal of educational administration in India?

2. Why should culture, tradition and certain existing practices be taken into consideration for enunciating the principles of educational administration in India?

3. What steps are essential for effecting a change in educational administration?

4. How much local autonomy should be given in the administration and management of schools?

5. What should be the relationship between a subordinate and his superior?

6. What should be the organizational principles?

7. Who should control education?
8. How should co-ordination be maintained between the echelons of administration?

9. What principles should be adopted by the administrators to construct a balanced curriculum serving the needs of the individual and those of the society?

10. Is a dichotomy in theory of administration and instruction desirable?

11. How should school and home relationship be strengthened?

12. What part should the administrator play in making the school dynamic and progressive?

13. What role should the administrator play in contributing to the philosophy, objectives, program, method, and evaluation of the school?

Anyone who has been a student of the development of India realizes that its culture, its government and its educational practices have been subjected to many influences. None of them have been revolutionary in their effect. Rather, modern India is the result of a long evolutionary process in which these influences have had partial effects. Thus, the problems of educational administration must again be solved in the setting of strong traditions which have persisted throughout many centuries.

The next chapter discusses the cultural setting in which the problems confronted in this study must be solved.
CHAPTER III

CULTURAL HISTORY OF INDIA

In this chapter, the cultural history of India is traced from the Pre-Aryan time to the present age. Education at all times influences the thought and spiritual life of people. It is also a potent force in the advancement of economic life, and it is an effective agency in the achievement of social solidarity and cohesion. Thus, as one would suspect, education has played an important role in the culture of India.

Culture, however, is something more than education. It is the cumulative effect of man's achievements in literature, religion, art, architecture, science, and patterns of social life. But it is very difficult to separate culture and education. Moreover, it is not easy to assess the degree of impact of one on the other. But the cultural heritage has a definite and positive hand in shaping the educational policy of a country. No educator, consequently, can ignore the cultural background while formulating the principles and practices of education. And the cultural background is even more significant when developing policies of educational administration, for
educational administration has to deal directly and practically with the habits of thought and feeling, the values, beliefs and behavior of society.

Pre-Aryan Culture in India

Indian culture, one of the oldest living cultures, is five thousand years old. Archaeological discoveries at Harappa in the Punjab, Mohenjo-daro in Sind and other sites have brought to light the remains of a highly advanced civilization that flourished between 3250 to 2750 B.C. There are similarities between the finds in these parts of the country and those in the parts of western Asia known in ancient times as Sumer, Babylon, Egypt and Assyria. This evidence indicates that Indian culture is not an isolated phenomenon but a phase of a larger civilization, or chain of civilizations which developed particularly along the river valleys of the Nile, the Tigris and the Euphrates. Although there are many common elements between the Indus Valley civilization and other contemporary civilizations outside India, the differences are so striking that they stamp the Indus Valley civilization with an individuality of its own.

Cultural Progress during the Vedic Period

The Vedas, from which the period gets its name, are the most famous books of the Vedic period. They depict the culture of this ancient time, which is the most important
phase in the origin of Aryan Culture. This period formed the basis of Hindu thought and fixed the pattern and framework of later cultural progress in India. Other subsidiary literatures are numerous in number but the well-known works are "Vedang," and "Upanishads." There is still controversy over the dates of the Vedas; however, the general tendency among scholars is to assign the Rig Veda, the earliest of the Vedic literature, to cover 2000 B.C. The Upanishads, which constitute the last phase of this literature, were written covering 600 B.C. The Vedic period, therefore, may be said to cover the centuries between 2000 B.C. and 600 B.C.

The Vedas constitute the basic scriptures of Hinduism. The word 'Veda' means 'book of knowledge,' and there are four Vedas: the Rig-Veda, the Yajur-Veda, the Sama-Veda, and the Atharva-Veda. Of these, the Rig-Veda consists of hymns; the Yajur-Veda is a collection of hymns for the performance of sacrifices; the Sama-Veda is also a collection of hymns for the Soma sacrifices; and the Atharva-Veda combines Vedic religion and philosophy with popular cults and practices.

Political Organization

The basis of the political and social organization of the Rig-Veda people was the patriarchal family. The prevailing form of government among the Rig-Vedic tribes was monarchical, the Rig-Vedic state usually being ruled by a
king, who was a destroyer and without a rival. Kingship was usually hereditary, but elective monarchies were not unknown. Though the king was the lord of the people, he did not govern without their consent. The business of the tribe was carried out in a popular assembly called 'Samiti,' at which princes and people were alike present. There are references to another body, with the title 'Sabha,' which was a council of Elders.

Social Life

The foundation of the social structure was the family. The members of a family lived in the same house, which was presumably built of wood or reed. Families were patrilineal, with a man ordinarily marrying but one wife; however, polygamy, but not polyandry, was practiced. The daily menu of the Vedic household consisted mainly of parched grain, cakes, milk and its various products, such as curd and butter, and many sorts of vegetables and fruits. The use of animal food was common, especially at the great feasts and family gatherings.

The caste system which had its beginning at this time is a broad fourfold classification of society. Many causes are cited for the rise of the caste system. R. C. Majundar and V. M. Apte observe:

Guilds of workers tended to crystallize into castes, as occupations became more or less hereditary; as examples we may cite the Chariot-makers, the smiths, the leather-workers, and
the carpenters. The peculiar family constitution or the 'gotra' tradition, whereby exogamy as well as endogamy regulated marriage connections and whereby a man should normally marry a woman of equal birth, i.e., within his caste, but not of the same 'gens' or within the 'gotra,' was another factor in the development of complications and distinctions in the caste-system.

The caste system by saving India from complete barbarism and preserving the Hindu pattern of culture even under the regime of alien conquerors enriched and enobled Hindu culture. The vitality of Indian culture through the ages has been mainly due to the Hindu genius for synthesis, a wonderful power of preservation, integration, fusion and absorption, made possible by the caste system.

Economic Life. The Rig-Veda Aryans were mostly scattered in villages. Agriculture was the principal occupation of the village folk. The rearing of cattle and other domestic animals was scarcely less important than agriculture. Cows were held in much esteem and milk formed an important part of the diet in the Vedic household.

Though mainly an agricultural and pastoral people, the Vedic tribes were not indifferent to trade and industry. The principal means of transport by land were chariots and wagons, the former being drawn by horses and the latter by oxen.

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The important industries were wood-working, metal working, tanning, weaving and pottery. The wood-worker or carpenter made chariots, wagons, houses and boats, and they were very skillful in artistic carving. The metal worker fashioned all sorts of weapons, implements and ornaments from various kinds of metal, including gold.

Vedic philosophy. The Hindus call their religion "the Religion of the Vedas" and often worshipped the gods whose favors or boons were expected. For this purpose, sacrifices were prescribed, but the most important aspect of the religion for history is the philosophy which is derived from the rituals.

Philosophy and religion were inextricably combined in Indian life and thought during this period. The seeds of religio-philosophical ideas are found in the Vedic hymns. They sprout and grow with luxuriance in the Upanishads, which record the first explicit philosophising in India. All subsequent development of thought in this country stems from them; every Indian renaissance has been inspired by the Upanishads.

The Upanishads, however, are not systematic philosophical treatises. They are records of the discussions, debates and insights of the ancient seer-poets. The teachings of these texts are usually given in the form of stories or parables. The 'Brahmanas,' the earliest
Indo-European prose literature, are theological treatises. They explain in minute detail the Vedic sacrificial ceremonies. The 'Aranyakas' form a transition culminating in the 'Upanishads,' which is the latest phase of Vedic literature. They are the concluding portions of the 'Brahmanas.' They have been famous because the philosophical and mystical character of their contents required that they should be studied in the solitude of the forest.

The Veda is thus the spiritual and psychological seed of Indian culture; the Upanishads are the expression of the truth of the highest spiritual knowledge and experience. Sri Aurobindo observes:

...and these two great bodies of sacred writing, its first great efforts of poetic and creative self-expression, coming into being at a time preceding the later strong and ample and afterwards rich and curious intellectual development, are conceived and couched in the language of a purely psychic and spiritual mentality. An evolution so begun has to proceed by a sort of enriching decent from the spirit to the matter and to pass on first to an intellectual endeavor to see life and the world and the self in all their relations as they present themselves to the reasoning and practical intelligence... It is this stage of which we get a remarkably ample and effective representation in the immediately succeeding period of Indian literary creations.2

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The Rise of Buddhist Culture

Buddhist Philosophy

The sixth century before Christ was an age of great intellectual ferment which may be said to mark the adolescence of Indian Culture. Various problems engaged the minds of different philosophers during this period. The nature of the soul, the causes of pain and pleasure and the possibility of life after death formed subjects of discourses. The main reasons for the new thought might be due to the change in the spirit of the Vedic religion. Man's life had become a plaything of divine forces. His happiness and misery had begun to be considered as a result of divine compassion or divine caprice. Unrestrained imagination and wild superstition deified all conceivable objects. The growth of rituals began to eclipse the importance of life's reality. The Vedic religion had degenerated thus into a collection of formalities, childish superstitions and soul-stifling sacrifices. It was in this atmosphere of religious unrest that Mahavira, the last of the Jain, Tirthankaras and Buddha, the prophet of Buddhism, appeared on the scene with their philosophies of non-violence and truth.

Buddha, through his spiritual insight, moral elevation, prophetic wisdom, and supreme compassion for suffering humanity, became the leader of a new spiritual movement known as Buddhism. It offered a message of universal benevolence
and hope to the people who had become downcast. Edward Couze has explained Buddhism in the following terms:

Buddhism is an Eastern form of spirituality. Its doctrine, in its basic assumptions, is identical with many teachings all over the World, teachings may be called 'mystical.' The essence of this philosophy of life has been explained with great force and clarity by Thomas A. Kempis, in his imitation of Christ. What is known as Buddhism is a part of the common heritage of wisdom, by which men have succeeded in overcoming this World, and in gaining immortality, or a deathless life...3

The rules of wholesome conduct recommended in the Buddhist scriptures are grouped under three headings: Morality, Contemplation and Wisdom.

Scriptures. From early times onwards, the scriptures were divided into 'Dhama' and 'Vinaya.' 'Dhama' deals with doctrine and 'Vinaya' with monastic discipline. At a later time, a threefold division occurs between 'Vinaya,' 'Dhama,' 'Abhidama.' The Abhidhama deals with more advanced doctrines. Another important division is made between 'Sutra' and 'Shastra.' A 'Sutra' is a text which claims to have been spoken by Buddha himself; Shastra is a treatise written by an author who is generally known by name. The total literary output of Buddhism is enormous.

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Buddhist Literature

Buddhist literature is in the 'Pali' language, not Sanskrit. The 'Tripitaka,' the earliest available and most complete collection of Buddhist sacred literature, is preserved in three systematic collections: (1) the Vinaya-Pitaka or the Book of Discipline, (2) the 'Sutta-Pitaka,' a popular book of discourses, and (3) the 'Abhidhamma-Pitak,' a collection of books on abstruse philosophy based on psychological ethics. Besides these books, there are others, such as the 'Milinda-Panha,' the 'Netti-Pakarana,' and commentaries on Pali Tripitaka and Jatakas. Buddhist literature may be divided broadly into two sections: the Hinayana and the Mahayana. The Hinayana is written in Pali and mixed Sanskrit; the Mahayana in mixed and pure Sanskrit.

Reorientation of Hindu Culture.

The rise of Jainism and Buddhism started a new epoch in the cultural life of India. Their attack on Vedic ceremonialism released a new spirit of enquiry. To meet the challenge it was necessary to broaden the foundations of Hinduism by reconstructing Hindu philosophical and religious ideas and spreading them among the masses. Hence, the Puranas or old tales or legends and Iti, or epics, were created for the edification and entertainment of the masses. Two great epics, the Ramayana and Mahabharata, were brought into the life of every Indian man, woman and child.
The teachings of the Bhagavat Gita are inspiring and full of ideals. They form the basis of popular Hinduism by emphasizing the religious attitudes rather than the philosophical abstractions of the Upanishads. They lay stress on the virtues of purity, self-control, detachment, truth and non-violence. Their fundamental ideas have been accepted by twentieth century thinkers and philosophers also. For instance, Mahatma Gandhi accepted the teachings of the Gita on non-violence, control and detachment. So the Bhagavat Gita gave solace to the Hindus and served a most useful purpose in the life of desperation that Indian society experienced during the Buddhist period.

Conditions of India During the Buddhist Period

When Buddhism arose there was no paramount sovereign power in India. There were small kingdoms and small aristocratic republics. The most important monarchies during the early times were those of Magadha, Kosala, Vatsas and Avanti. The most important republic was that of Lichavi, at Vaisali in modern Behar. Later on, during the Mauryan period, Asoka, who was a great patron of Buddhism, appeared on the scene. There were also clans. T. W. Rhys Davids observes: "The administrative and judicial business of the clan was carried out in the public assembly, at which young and old were alike present."

The economic conditions in the villages were simple, with the economic and social structure being based on rural life. The communities were settled organizations in which the caste system was firmly rooted. The main economic stay was agriculture, and there was occasional famine owing to draught. There were cities and towns also, and there were numerous industries. Trade was carried on extensively inside and outside the country.

Buddhism had its impact on every aspect of life. The royal patronages from Asoka and Kanishka brought certain changes from spiritualism to some practical ways of life also, so that social life was influenced directly or indirectly by Buddhism. N. N. Law states:

Buddhism exercised a great influence over the people of India for more than one thousand years. It has also left many traces of its wide-spread existence in Bengal. The religion that helps the development of arts, literature and society in India for several centuries from Asoka should receive due attention in a discourse on Indian history... A glance at Yhan Chwang's treatise can show that several Buddhist sects with their different views of original religion were found simultaneously at the same locality... The researches that have been made on 'Hinayana' Buddhism are principally based upon the literature of only one of its eighteen schools... The importance of the Mahasanghi-Kas' lay not in number of followers but in their being the parent of Mahayat' Buddhism.5

The Impact of Islam on Indian Culture

The impact of Islam on India was deep and profound. The contact between the new and ancient philosophy created the problem of adjusting the two cultures to one another. The new religious ideology which the Muslims brought had to be harmoniously related to Hindu modes of thought. The assimilation and synthesis between the two systems could not be as perfect as that between Hinduism and Buddhism. The lesser degree of assimilation might be attributed to the alien culture which the Muslims as foreigners brought with them from distant lands. The richness and vitality of Indian culture allowed it to prevail over the great influence of Islam. Abdul Mojid Siddiqui remarks that

The numerous foreign tribes, who settled in Ancient India, soon came under the assimilative influence of Hinduism and Buddhism, and were absorbed into their folds. But, absorption or assimilation in toto of Islam by Hinduism, or vice versa, was not possible because of the sharp contrast in their respective outlooks. Hinduism developed an ascetic other worldly attitude, and concentrated on the redemption of man from the oppressive process of re-births. The affairs of this World were of secondary importance, and assumed significance only as aids to the final emancipation. Islam, on the other hand, was non-ascetic and concentrated on a vigorous social philosophy of life in this World, as a preparation for the Life-Hereafter, marked by an incessant forward movement, steadily equipping the human soul to acquire the talent to behold the beatific vision of God, and continue to live in bliss.
in that state. The greatest achievement of the medieval period was the reconciliation of these conflicting and contrasting cultural outlooks and the evolution of an Indo-Muslim Culture.  

But apart from the differences in the two cultures, there was an impulse toward fusion and synthesis. Cooperation appears in various ways. Ramananda, Kabir Nanak and Chaitanya established an affinity between the religions. The Pathans and then Moghuls rules created an atmosphere of co-operation in the evolution of customs and conduct, fashions and festivals, in the preparation of food, and in other social affairs. This period also saw the growth of a new common language, 'Urdu,' which has close affinity to Hindi. In architecture, sculpture, music and painting, in social habits and popular beliefs, the fusion of the old and new was remarkable. There are unmistakable traces of co-operation between the two in the spheres of philosophy and economics. Humayun Kabir observes:

It is indeed difficult to say how much of the present World outlook of the Indian Hindu is derived from Vedas and Upanishads and how much from the teachings of Islam. In exactly a similar manner, in belief and in behavior, in habits and social institutions, the Indian Moslem shows unmistakable traces of the influence of Hindu Culture and outlook. The influence of India was not in fact confined to Indian Moslems alone but affected

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the development of Moslem theology in Persia and Arabia as well. Buddhist modes of thought had penetrated as far west as Egypt.7

There are several factors which contributed to the Indian way of life: (1) the system of administration, (2) the rise of a common language, (3) the Sufi and Bhakti Movement, (4) the development of Indian education, and (5) the development of Indo-Persian literature.

From the standpoint of cultural development, a common central administrative arrangement extended over a lengthy period of 600 years and over the greater part of India. It was therefore bound to influence the minds of everyone along certain lines. Moreover, both the Hindus and Muslims participated together in the administration, so that a common pattern of tradition, court language and formalities grew up. A more lasting factor in the promotion of the Indian way of life is language. The language which the Muslim invaders spoke or employed in the administration was Arabicized Persian mixed with Turkish. Naturally, during the days of their rule in the country their vocabulary permeated Indian languages. The extent this infiltration had into some of these languages is difficult to ascertain.

The great Mughals were the inheritors of the culture and traditions of Timurids Babeur, who laid the foundation of the Mughal Empire in India in 1526, according to some historians. He was an accomplished poet in Persian. His son, Humayun, who succeeded him, was also a poet and a great scholar. Sher Shah, the Afghan who forced Humayun to flee for life, provided India with a poet of epoch-making significance. This was Malik Muhammad Jayasi. He combined a rare scholarship, both in Persian and Sanskrit. But he chose to write in Hindi, interspersed occasionally with Persian. His great work "Padmavat" is a great contribution to Hindi. He got his incentive from the poetic contribution of the famous poet Amir Khusraw, of an earlier age.

Akbar's regime marks the most glorious epoch in the annals of Mughal rulers. His administrative reforms and his work for Hindu-Muslim unity brought great changes in Indian culture. His fame rests on his 'Ain-Akbari' and 'Akbar-Namah,' which were prepared by Abdul Fazl, who was a most accomplished and famous writer. These books give the minutest details of Akbar's life and mirror the society of which the emperor was the center. Faizi was another poetic genius of great merit. He was as proficient in
Sanskrit as he was in Arabic and Persian. His translations into Persian of the Bhagavad Gita and Lilavati, a work in Sanskrit on mathematics, have earned for him great fame. Badayuni was another historian of the period. He translated the Ramayana and several sections of the Mahabharata into Persian.

Akbar's court was decorated by nine gems, including Faizi Tansen man Singh, Todar Mul and others. Tan-Sen was a musician whose genius in music was unparalleled. The other poet in his court was Abdur Rahim Khan-e-Khanan. His poetic genius in Hindi verses still glorifies Hindi literature.

During this period two great poetic geniuses appeared in the firmament of Hindi literature. They were Tulsidas and Sur-das. Their contributions to Hindi literature and Indian culture are unparalleled in the history of India. Tulsidas wrote Ramcharita Mansa, which is a representative and masterful piece of literature even today. It occupies the highest place in the literary field. Its ideas and ideals are practical and democratic, and thus have been significant for the social, cultural and intellectual progress of India. This is the only book which is studied by people ranging from great intellectuals to farmers in the field, from politicians to dogmatic religious-minded men. Professor S. Hanumantha Rao has said of Tulsidas:
Another name which adorned the Annals of Medieval India was that of Tulsidas. The deep piety of Tulsidas won for him many admirers from among the liberal minded Musalmaus of his time. The famous poet Abdul Rahim Khanikhanan who was a Minister of Akbar, was one of them. He described the work of Tulsidas as "the very life breath of saints and as the Veda to the Hindu and the Holy Quran to the Muslim." In our own times, it profoundly influenced the life of Mahatma Gandhi; and his conception of 'Rama Rajya' or the Kingdom of God on earth was drawn from the beautiful account of Tulsidas. President Rajendra Prasad observes that it will be no exaggeration to say that during the past three centuries, the Manasa alone has served the purpose of all the scriptures and philosophical works for the masses of Northern India.

While Tulsidas transformed the doctrine of Bhakti into Rama, his contemporary Surdas, the blind poet of Agra, spread the Bhakti cult of Krishna, writing several thousands of verses in praise of Krishna — like Tulsidas and Surdas in Northern India, Purandhara Dasa and his contemporary Kanaka Dasa championed the cause of Bhakti in South India.

Architecture. The early Muslim kings were indifferent to art and architecture, but Mughal emperors were well-known for their love of art and architecture. Such famous buildings as Red Fort and the Taj-Mahal bear testimony to their sense of artistic design and craftsmanship. Taj Mahal,

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which was constructed some three hundred years ago by Shahjahan as a mausoleum to the memory of his wife, is still considered one of the Wonders of the World. The beautifully designed and well constructed marble 'Taj' still maintains the freshness and the masterful glory of human ingenuity that prevailed during the period.

The architectural designs of the Muslim period were a synthesis of the two styles. The best synthesis of the Muslim ideas and Hindu methods are visible in the tombs of Humayun and in the buildings of Fatehpur Sikri.

Painting also developed new styles. A new style was evolved by engrafting the traditions and elements of the Timuride school. The Frescos of Ajanta still provide evidence to this fact. To the old pomp, new splendours were added.

Music. Indian music, as developed in the Pathan and Mughal periods, is a true symbol of Hindu-Muslim amalgamation. Indian music in all its ramifications, 'Ghazal' 'Thurmari' and 'Dadra,' began to emerge. These forms represent the union of two races and two minds. Amir Khusraw occupied a very high place in the realms of music as well as literature and history. He raised the standards and enhanced the charm of Indian music by his vocal and instrumental contributions. Tau-Sen of Akbar's court marks
the climax. In Deccan, also, the music, painting and architecture were greatly influenced during this period.

S. M. Jaffar has given a very natural description of the architectural attainment of the period:

Under Shah Jahan's patronage decorative architecture attained to its highest water-mark... According to Mr. Percy Brown, "even the most ardent flatterer, trained in poetical analogies, could hardly do justice to the surpassing beauty of some of these structures, which in spite of vicissitudes still hold their own as the most elegant of their kind." Can there be a soul that will not be stirred to its depths or fall into ecstasies at the awe-inspiring sight of that masterpiece of Mughal architecture called the Taj? 

The Impact of European Culture on India

The discovery of a new route by Vasco da Gama in 1498 was an event of tremendous significance. It brought India into intimate contact with a new type of civilization. When the European nations appeared on the Indian scene, an equilibrium among the forces working in medieval India had been restored. But the tremendous impact of European civilization upset the balance and released new forces. Humayun Kabir observes:

When Europe appeared on the Indian scene, the struggle between the various forces working there had achieved a temporary balance. The religious cults of the saints and mystics mark the attempt at reapprochement in one direction.

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The lessening of the rigorous of caste marked it in another. The comprehensive economic and political stability of the country under the Great Moghuls is evidence that a balance had been reached in these spheres as well... The impact of Europe brought into being an entirely different set of conditions. Europeans who came to India had no intention of settling here... Through a strange irony of fate men who had come for the lure of trade remained to rule the land.10

The Impact on Education

The culture of a nation finds expression in its literature. The most important channel through which Western ideas flowed into India was the Western system of education. When the British gained control over Bengal, the inspiration of the classical age of Indian culture had waned. Higher education was imparted in Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian, and these languages were not spoken by the masses. These languages were, therefore, cut off from the common life of the people. Moreover, Hindu and Muslim education became closely linked up with dogmatic theology. As a result of this, creative energy and the free spirit of enquiry became stifled. In short, the educational system resembled that of Europe during the Middle Ages. Hence, some of the Indians like Ram Mohan Roy, and others felt that education needed a change.

Some English people also realized that the system of education should be changed. The Orientalists did not

favor any change. They wanted to encourage the oriental languages of Sanskrit and Persian. But the Anglicists were convinced that the grave social abuses prevalent in society were mainly due to the ignorance of the people. It would be better to eradicate them through English education.

Macaulay was a great advocate of English education. He recommended the adoption of English as the medium of higher education. Higher education included secondary education also. It was therefore resolved in 1835 that the policy of the British Government ought to be the promotion of European literature and science amongst the natives of India and that all funds appropriated for the purpose of education would be best employed on English education alone.

In course of time the study of English became popular and English books were sold in thousands. A number of private schools were opened, many of which were run by Christian missionaries who rendered splendid pioneering work in spreading education in the early days. The year 1857, which witnessed the birth of the three Universities of Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta, was another important landmark in the history of Western education in India. Since then, a large number of schools and colleges have been catering to the educational needs of the people.

There were, of course, many defects in the British
system of education which will be mentioned later on. But with all its shortcomings, English education brought about many changes in the cultural and intellectual life of India.

The Impact on Indian Languages

The impact of English on the various Indian languages was profound. The vernacular languages can be grouped under two categories, one from the North, which had grown out of Sanskrit, Prakrit, or 'Apalohramsha' dialects of Sanskrit; and the other from the South, comprising the languages of Davidian origin. In the former, Assamese, Bengali, Gujarati, Kashmiri, Hindi, Marathi, Oriya, Punjabi and Urdu are included; in the latter Tamil, Kannada, Telugu and Malayalam.

With the dawn of the British rule in India, and during the period covered by their rule, marvelous changes were wrought in the different languages both in the North and the South. Much of the early literary attempts in every language were no doubt imitative in character. But with the advance of time, a huge volume of creative literature also was produced. New literary motives and stylistic modes were adopted. Various new art-forms came into play. These were biography, the essay, the lyric, with all its subdivisions of metric forms, blank verse, and others. Indian languages got an opportunity to disclose greater potentialities,
There was a good deal of interaction between the English and Indian languages. Words of common use in the English language began to be adopted by Indian languages. Thus, these languages began to rise above the dogmatic rules of grammar.

**The Economic Impact.**

The economic impact is very striking. When the western nations came to India, the economic organization of India was based on economic principles appropriate for an agricultural economy. Handicrafts were of a high order. People were self-supporting. Spinning and weaving were very popular. Hand-spun and hand-woven cloths were in great demand by other countries. In short, India had not experienced the Industrial Revolution. But the coming of the European traders opened a flourishing seller's market in India. The consequence was the destruction of the indigenous industry of India. The British made it a place for selling their manufactured goods and securing raw materials. This economic policy exploited India, whose economy tended to become weaker and weaker. Unemployment began to stare the Indian in the face as the Indian economy was westernized.

The expansion of the British Empire in India coincided with the progress of the Industrial Revolution. India became the dumping ground for British industrial products. This naturally resulted in the ruin of Indian industries.
The laissez faire policy of the British Government led to disastrous results. The free trade policy crushed the Indian artisans. They could not compete with the cheap machine-made goods. Deccan, which was the Manchester of India, producing clothes, decayed from a flourishing town to a poor one.

But considering the economic impact from the modern point of view, it would be worthwhile to note that a modern economy was created out of an agrarian one. Commerce, industry, trade and banking began to be organized on new lines. A new class in society emerged. It was the capitalist class consisting of enterprising converts to the new creed who mastered Western techniques of production and led the way for industrial revolution.

The development of roads and railways was of particular importance during this period. They brought significant economic changes. They helped in connecting the different parts of the country. The easy communication brought a change in the outlook and working system of India. There was a good deal of mobility, which had a great influence on the economic and social life of the country. The old tradition and caste barrier began to give way.

The progress of science and modern inventions created altogether different approaches in the social life, which was greatly enhanced by new kinds of industries and techniques.
The printing press became a powerful channel through which Western civilization and culture spread in India.

The Political Impact: Indian Nationalism

Another important result of contact with the West was the growth of Indian nationalism. India had no doubt developed a strong sense of cultural unity but the concept of political nationality was new to it. The idea of Indian nationalism originated as a reaction to British imperialism. The idea of uniting the people of India under one fold of nationalism was derived from the history of French and American democracy. Political parties like the National Congress began to play an important role in the national uprising and unity of the country. It was created in 1885 by Mr. Hume as a cultural organization, but later on its objectives changed. B. Pattabhi Sitaramayya has described the origin of the Congress:

Great institutions have always had small beginnings, even as the great rivers of the World start as thin streams... The evolution of the Indian National Congress presents the same phenomenon. It had to cut its way through mighty obstacles and therefore entertained modest ideals... Limited as its range of vision was in the earlier decades to matters administrative, it soon became a powerful and authoritative exponent of the political ambitious of the people of India...

Here in a nutshell is the description by Gandhi of this great National organization. If the Congress has achieved nothing else, it has done this, namely, it has discovered its own
destiny, it has focused the thoughts and activities of the Nation to a single point. It has developed a certain self-consciousness amongst the teeming millions of India and animated them with a sense of unity, hope and self-confidence.ii

Later on, the Congress Party under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi became a very powerful organization. Indian politics was dominated by the influence of Mahatma Gandhi until India became independent on the 15th of August, 1947. His contributions to the political, spiritual, social and economic life of modern India can hardly be exaggerated. His principles had an all-pervading effect on the politics of the country. The emphasis on truth (Satya) and non-violence (Ahimsa) laid down by Buddha and further emphasized by Mahavira reached its culmination during Gandhi's time. The application of these principles brought a wonderful change in the spirit of the British. Gandhi applied these principles in politics. The Civil Disobedience movements and "Quit India" movements started on a non-cooperation basis. These political concepts brought a radical change in the minds of the British. The essentially socialistic precepts of his teachings which consisted of the removal of all human inequalities, known as 'Sarvodaya,' adds a new chapter in the theory of political science in India.

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The Administrative Impact

The impact of European culture on India's administrative structure was of special importance. With the decline of the Moghul authority, the administrative machinery rapidly broke down and great confusion resulted. So the British had first to change the existing system of the administration.

In the beginning the administration was organized on a centralized system. Then, in order to bring an improvement in the administration, a scheme of local self-government, on the model of English County Councils and Rural District Boards, was introduced by Lord Ripon during the years 1883 to 1885. This measure was intended primarily to improve political and popular education rather than to improve administration. This was a very important move in the right direction because local self-governments are the best training ground for democratic administration.

But the leaders of the country wanted a parliamentary system of government. Indians got limited power in 1909 through the Morley-Minto reforms. This reform gave the Indians some power for participation in the council. The provincial legislatures were enlarged by fifty additional members in the larger provinces, and up to thirty in the smaller.

The Act of 1919 entrusted representatives of the people with a definite share in the administration. Indians
got the transferred rights in the provinces, and in this way responsible government was introduced into the provinces.

The British system of administration produced different kinds of services. Among these services were Indian Civil Services, Indian Police Services, Indian Educational Services. These services were created for the maintenance of a strong bureaucratic rule over India. These officers were considered to be the backbone of the British Administration in India.

For the recruitment of high officials, the Federal Service Commission and Provincial Public Service Commission were created. The spirit of the services has been described by G. N. Joshi:

The Civil Service of India has always been an attractive service and it continues to be so even under the New Constitution. The start is good, promotion is certain, the future is guaranteed and the prizes in one's way are many. Indian Public opinion is critical about the comprehensive statutory safeguards provided for them in the New Constitution. Indians maintain that these safeguards negative the spirit of responsible government. Again it is pointed out that the main administrative structure in British India is based on the district officers and the members of the Police Service.12

So for administrative purposes a steel frame of services ranging from general administration to educational administration were created.

Spiritual Renaissance

Toward the second quarter of the 19th century mighty movements of socio-religious reform sprang up. These movements, one after another, resuscitated the ancient culture of India.

The earliest of these movements was the 'Brahma Samaj,' founded in 1828 by Raja Ram Mohun Roy. He built up, on a central concept of a formless God, a lofty monetheistic creed. Swami Nirvedananda is of the opinion that "in its conception of religious faith as well as social reform, the Brahmo Samaj leaned at times, to a considerable extent, on exotic ideals. From its very inception, it bore the stamp of Western Christianity."13

Another powerful religious movement arose in 1875 known as the 'Arya Samaj.' It was launched by Swami Dayanauda. He translated and interpreted the Vedas according to his own lights. This religious movement was accompanied by sweeping changes in social customs. The caste-system as a religious institution was abolished; the monopoly of the Brahmans over the Vedas was denied; women were liberated from a number of social discriminations.

A third movement was toward a theosophical society.

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Theosophy was ostensibly a new and eclectic creed, but it resembled to a considerable extent the reform movements of Hinduism.

The fourth movement was started by Sri Ramakrishna. His religion was based on the fundamental belief which has governed Hindu life for ages. He laid before the people practical formulas of social service deduced from the fundamental teachings of the Vedanta.

India After Independence

India got its independence on the 15th of August, 1947, in accordance with the India Independence Act of 1947 enacted by the British Parliament. According to this Act, India was divided into two parts, modern India and Pakistan.

After independence, India had to face many problems. These problems have been well described by M. V. Raumana Rao in the following paragraph:

The first anniversary of the birth of independence was a day on which the people of the Country had to review the situation during the first year of freedom... The attainment of freedom was preceded and succeeded by happenings which left a trail of sorrow and suffering. There were colossal migrations of people and problems created thereby had yet remained unsolved... There were then the problems of poverty, hunger and disease and rising spiral of prices which had to be successfully tackled.14

So independence brought many problems before Nehru's ministry. These may be classified as follows:

1. The problem of rehabilitation of the refugees after the partition of India.
2. The framing of a constitution for a sovereign democratic republic embodying the principles of Sarvodaya as propounded by Mahatma Gandhi, Father of the Nation.
3. The achievement of a stable economic condition by improving agriculture and industry.
4. The introduction of mass education.
5. The setting up of a planning commission for the introduction of Five Year Plans.

The Indian Constitution

The Indian Constitution became effective on the 26th of January, 1950. It is a document of great importance for the people of India. Its preamble runs:

WE, THE PEOPLE OF INDIA, having solemnly resolved to constitute India into a SOVEREIGN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC and to secure to all its Citizens: JUSTICE, social, economic, and political LIBERTY of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship; EQUALITY of status and of opportunity; and to promote among them all FRATERNITY assuring the dignity of the individual and the Unity of the Nation;
IN OUR CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY this twenty-sixth day of November, 1949, do HEREBY ADOPT, ENACT AND GIVE TO OURSELVES THIS CONSTITUTION.15

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The Constitution of India derives its authority from the people and it fully recognizes that sovereignty is exercised through parliament, elected by adult franchise, with a responsible cabinet as its executive.

India is a Union of States created out of the former British Indian Provinces and princely states. The Constitution lays down that "The executive power of the Union shall be vested in the President and shall be exercised by him either directly or through officers subordinate to him in accordance with this Constitution..."16

It was expressly stated that there shall be a Council of Ministers with the Prime Minister at the head to aid and advise the President in the exercise of his functions. The Prime Minister shall be appointed by the President and other Ministers shall be appointed by the President on the advice of the Prime Minister.

The Governors and Chief Ministers form the Executive heads of the states. Governors are appointed. Chief Ministers are elected by the majority party in the assembly. But the appointment of the Chief Ministers and other ministers is formally made by the Governors. Ministers are appointed on the advice of the Governors.

Education is a state subject in the Constitution.

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The economic condition of India was very unfavorable on the eve of the transfer of power. So there was the immediate task of economic reconstruction before the newly formed Indian Government. The economic condition has been described by Percival Griffiths:

The first two or three years after the transfer of power was discouraging for those who had hoped for an immediate spurt in economic activity. The slump in industrial production, which had begun in 1946, became even more marked in the first year of independence... National planning began to be accepted as the sure foundation of prosperity, and ambitious targets for increasing production and for raising the standard of living were fixed by the Planning Commission.17

Agricultural progress since the transfer of power has been spectacular. About 70 per cent of the people in India are dependent on land for their living. Agriculture and allied activities account for nearly half of the country's national income. It supplies raw materials for some of the major industries, such as cotton and jute textiles and sugar, and provides a large production of the country's exports. India ranks first in the world in the production of ground nuts and tea and enjoys a virtual monopoly in the production of lac.

The development programs cover two types of schemes, vis., works schemes and supply schemes. The former include the construction and repair of wells, tanks, small dams,
channels and tube-wells and others. The supply schemes cover the distribution of fertilizers, organic manures and improved seeds. The following tables provide the allocation of funds for the two Five-Year Plans: ¹⁸

TABLE I
FIRST FIVE-YEAR PLAN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Provision in Crores</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Agriculture and Community development</td>
<td>372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Irrigation and Flood Control</td>
<td>395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Power</td>
<td>266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Industries and Minerals</td>
<td>179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Transportation and Communication</td>
<td>556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Social Services Housing and rehabilitation</td>
<td>547</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Miscellaneous</td>
<td>41</td>
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¹⁸ Shri V. T. Krishnamachari, Planning in India, Government of India, 1957, pp. 3-4.
Industrial progress has also been made in the public sector, the private sector, and cottage industries. India's industrial policy was announced in 1948. It envisaged a mixed economy.

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<th>Total Provision in Crores</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Agriculture and Community development</td>
<td>565</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Irrigation and Flood Control</td>
<td>458</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Power</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Industries and Minerals</td>
<td>891</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Transportation and Communication</td>
<td>1,384</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Social Services Housing and rehabilitation</td>
<td>946</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Miscellaneous</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Social Progress

The Indian people are becoming socially conscious. They have begun to understand their needs. Among these needs are economic improvements, better education and improved medical and public health facilities. The awareness is created through a program of adult education known as social education. The adult education program has been planned to bring a change in the outlook of the people. Moreover it attempts to create a democratic atmosphere so that people may understand their civic rights and the ideals of democracy. M. V. Ramana Rao observes:

The Congress at Avadi entered on a new phase of its revolutionary existence. It had always been the objective of the Congress not merely to achieve political freedom for the Country but to bring about a change in the social and economic structure of the life of the people. It wanted to establish what has been a familiar concept - economic Swaraj. Gandhi while on the one hand carried on agitation for political emancipation, laid unmistakable stress on the attainment of economic freedom, an equitable distribution of wealth in the Country, occupation for all people and a decent standard of living. At Avandi a Socialistic pattern of Society was evolved and given a shape.

Thus is it seen that as changes in the social, economic, and cultural life of the people of India have emerged, their inherent relationship to education has

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become increasingly apparent. In fact, education is a potent force in all change that may be anticipated for the future. It is important that it be built soundly and administered effectively.

In the next chapter administration of education in America is observed as a phenomenon which evolved in a manner consistent with the cultural heritage and values of the American people.
CHAPTER IV

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN AMERICA

In this chapter some of the principles and practices of educational administration in America are presented. Education in this country has made tremendous progress. Whereas most countries have not the means of making even elementary education universal, America has opened the door of secondary education to all youth. Apart from this, educators are introducing new ideas and innovations every day. People have actually realized the importance of education and of professional educators. Society places high priority on education. The teaching profession is highly esteemed, and education is considered the business of educators. There is relatively little interference from any section of the society in the transaction of administrative duties by the educators. The community generally limits its participation in educational matters to the formulation of broader policy only. Hence some of the democratic features of educational administration in this country are universally acceptable; thus, some of the policies are worth looking into in relation to the background of cultural and educational developments in America. This is why the writer considers
this chapter of special importance for getting solutions to the problems, issues and questions raised for educational administration in India in the previous chapter.

The American System of Education

From colonial times to the present in America, statesmen have claimed for education a unique position. In the democratic form of government, leaders in government and education are more keen about the proper education of all citizens. Throughout the nation, there is an earnest desire for improving the agencies responsible for education. Hence, there is a growing desire among the people to bring an all-around improvement in education in harmony with the best American traditions, culture, and democracy. Thus, education and democracy have become synonymous.

"State responsibility of education is firmly imbedded in the constitutions of the several states and buttressed by tradition and court decisions."\(^1\) The responsibility of the governments of the several states for the education of the people is fully acknowledged. It is more than a theory or a tradition or a legal convention. But the state government does not deal with educational policy directly. Local control over public education has become an established fact.

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in the administrative system of American education. The belief that education should be kept close to the people so that it can be as free as possible from political entanglements or from the domination of special interests has prevailed. The tide of public concern for education has established certain theories of education and administration. An analysis of these matters can be useful for deriving principles for any democratic country, including India.

Education on all levels, elementary, secondary, higher, and adult, has made tremendous progress. In this achievement the contributions of the people have been great, but the parts played by the educators, administrators, and leaders of education are unquestioned. Their scientific thinking and advocacy at all stages in propounding philosophy, defining objectives, establishing programs, finding methods, and discovering principles consistent with the democratic ideologies for the administration and organization of education present sufficient guidelines for any prospective and practising administrator. Of course, the developments have been the results of gradual growth, research, and experimentation. They are products of concerted efforts of conferences and agencies. With the combined and willing co-operation of all sections of society, educators have been in a position to achieve some tangible results in the forms of principles, techniques, and concepts of education administration.
The Beginnings of Administration of Public Schools

Public schools in America were first established by local communities. But the concept of state responsibility for education developed as early as 1812. The first type of school superintendency appeared in New York during the same year; it was the state superintendency. Within a span of 40 years it won general acceptance by the people. "The early state superintendents were concerned primarily with the inspection of schools, the collection and dissemination of educational statistics, and the apportionment of educational funds."2

Later on, with the growth of the local districts, the role of the state became more prominent. In order to insure efficient administration, an intermediate administrative unit was created by state legislation. Its need was recognized in the first half of the 19th century. Subsequently it developed into the county superintendency. The growth and development of the local district and superintendency took place after 1850.

The local boards of education, the county board and state boards are filled by popular election. The system of electing the board members has tended to democratize educational administration. The board of education is a legislative

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body. It appoints the superintendent of schools as the executive officer of the board, responsible for the administration of all aspects of the school system.

Public school administration has developed to the present stage in an organic way. Its evolution has occurred over a period of a hundred years. Its concepts, principles, and techniques have been established for the most part after practice and experience. The "early period did provide a wealth of varied experiences in administration from which valid hypotheses could be formulated and tested."3

Changing Concepts of Educational Administration

The nature of educational administration began to change around the beginning of the 20th century. Educators began to prepare a body of professional literature. Universities started programs for the training of educational administrators. Opinion began to gain ground in favor of educational administration as a specialized job. Standing committees of boards of education began to disappear. The dual administrative organization, where the superintendent of schools and the business manager are directly responsible to the board, gradually proved unworkable. There was a popular acceptance of a single superintendent of schools.

3Ibid., p. 20.
The board of education came to be recognized as a policy-making body and the administration of the board policies was delegated to the superintendent. These developments have brought new concepts in the field of educational administration. These principles and ideologies have changed the professional position of the administrator and established him as the chief executive of the educational enterprise. There has been an emphasis in administration on scientific management. Greater importance has been placed upon the administrator's being in command of specialized knowledge relating to the operational aspects of his position. To obtain efficiency in operation, emphasis is placed on organizational structure and the formal relationships of personnel. It has been realized during recent years that technical knowledge is significant in educational administration, but that administrators also operate in an inter-personal setting.

The Encyclopedia of Educational Research describes:

Thus, the crucial factor in administration is the nature of human relationships involved. The Administrator's basic functions are to exercise broad judgement, provide professional leadership, and exhibit discriminating insight and understanding in the utilization of personnel. The co-operative, rather than the manipulative, process is utilized in obtaining the contributions of personnel to the attainment of organizational goals. Personal needs of members of the organization, as well as organizational goals are recognized. A few of the more recent emphases

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in educational administration which reflect the human relations concept are staff participation in policy development, a functional form of organization emphasizing councils and committees, and citizen participation in the study of educational problems.5

An Analysis of Administration

The art of administration has been considered one of the essential virtues of mankind. Management from the ancient time to the present age has certain attributes which are equally true at all times. Administration is concerned with management. But management and administration are not synonymous. Administration is something more than management. It is concerned with the "direction, co-ordination and control of many persons to achieve some purpose or objective." It is determined action taken in pursuit of some decided purpose. It is the systematic ordering of affairs and the calculated use of resources projected at making those things happen which we want to happen. It is the marshalling of available labor and materials in order to gain that which is desired at the lowest cost in energy, time and money.

The first characteristic of the administrator is desire and interest. Then individuals and groups fix their

goals in respect to their interests. Finally, the translate these goals into positive achievement. These steps result from an organization. Thus, administration figures in the fulfillment of the task. It outlines programs, devises procedures, directs and supervises operations, and ultimately evaluates the outcome. "The objective of administration is to secure the maximum beneficial result contemplated by the law with the minimum expenditure of the social resources."7

Administration is a process common to all group effort, public, private, civil, and military. There are common elements traceable to the administration of depar­tmental store, a bank, a high school, a railroad or a city government.

Public Administration

Public administration embraces every area and the activity under the jurisdiction of public policy. In the literal sense of the term, public administration covers all agencies, military as well as civilian, and it provides executive, legislative, and judicial structure. "Public administration consists of all those operations having for this purpose the fulfillment or enforcement of public policy." This definition covers

8Leonard D. White, op. cit., p. 3.
a vast field. It includes military as well as civil affairs, such as police protection, education, health, conservation, and the construction of public works. The performance of public affairs in the developed civilization of the present age needs the employment of almost every profession and skill including engineering, law, medicine, teaching, the crafts, the technical specialties, the office skills.

A system of public administration is the composite of all the laws, regulations, practices, relationships, codes, and customs that prevail at any time in any jurisdiction for the fulfillment or execution of public policy.9

Skill in administration is dependent on social accomplishment and the general stage of cultural advancement. The state of the administrative art varies with many related social factors, such as social discipline, scientific and practical knowledge, the quality of communication and leadership behavior, and the preferences and prejudices of people. Donald C. Stone observes:

Viewed in this light, public administration embraces infinitely more than the policies, processes and techniques of administration, broad as this subject matter is. It requires competence, in synthesizing and applying many disciplines in carrying out public purposes, and in the mobilization and use of a vast array of skills and techniques to achieve these purposes. It calls for sensitivity to public reactions, responsiveness, considerateness, a sense of the feasible.10

9Ibid., p.4.
Scope of Public Administration. The scope of public administration is commensurate with the welfare of the public. The objective of public administration is the most efficient utilization of resources at the disposal of officials and employees. A competent management aims at the elimination of waste, the preservation and effective use of men and materials and the protection of the welfare and interests of employees. In the broader sense, the ultimate goals of administration are the welfare of the state itself. This means the maintenance of peace and order, the progressive achievement of justice, the instruction of the young, protection against disease and insecurity, education of youth—in short, the attainment of good life.

Fundamentals of American Public Administration. The American system of administration, formed by the culture and history of the country, has the following distinguishing features:

1. The system of administration is based on law. Public officials are responsible in accordance with the rule of law.

2. Public administration is dependent on representatives. They are elected bodies—Congress, the State Assemblies, County Commissioners, City Councils and Board of Education.

4. It is democratic in spirit. A sense of teamwork in a common enterprise usually prevails, making it easy
for the official to mingle with the rank and file. There is a constant flow of downward, upward, and horizontal communication.

4. The conduct of public administration depends heavily upon the consent of the governed.

5. Since 1900 the tendency has been toward making public administration professional in outlook and spirit.

6. Public administration is civil in structure, personnel, and point of view.

7. The system of public administration is flexible, adjustable, and constructive.

8. Public administration is deeply rooted in the local communities.

Development of Educational Administration in America

History shows that the organization and management of schools was the function of the laymen in the beginning. Two hundred years ago the school committee was made up of selected people of the town. In 1827 school administration was differentiated from general government. It was still some years later that the lay school committee or board of education was ready to employ a school administrator. Educational Administration did not develop as a field or practice until the latter part of the 19th century. It did not become a field of study until the 20th century.
State and county school administrations have both played important parts in the development of educational administration in America. But the major role of local administration, chiefly in the growth of the school superintendency and the school principalship, has been unquestioned. This phenomenon has been largely a result of the decentralization of education in America. School administration at the present time is local.

Administrative leadership in the local school system came first in the cities. "The first cities to establish the office of superintendent of schools were Buffalo and Louisville in 1837, and St. Louis and Providence in 1839."11

The history of American education is replete with a number of outstanding administrators. Some of them are "Cubberly of Stanford, Strayer of Columbia and Reeder of Ohio State."12

The early students of educational administration assessed the administrator's work from the viewpoint of job analysis. Many professors of educational administration considered school administration as the school survey. The main objective of the survey was to improve practice. These surveys were also useful in improving practices in school


12 Campbell and others, op. cit., p. 71.
administration. Those who approached educational administration on a job analysis basis observed administrators at work, evaluated their tasks and made certain suggestions for improvement. Bobbitt\textsuperscript{13} wrote an article on the principles of management and their applications in 1913. The second approach to the theory of educational administration was by Sears. He was a professor at Stanford University. The work of Fayol, Gulick, Urwick and others has been an invaluable contribution in public administration.

Recent Developments in Educational Administration

In the post-war period, during the last two decades, attempts have been made by scholars of school administration to make contributions in the field of educational administration. There are several agencies influencing the development of administrative theory. Important among them are the National Conference for Professors of Educational Administration (NCSEA). It was established in 1947. This group holds annual meetings and conferences. It has facilitated communication among the professors of educational administration. It has increased the efficiency and standard of training in educational administration.

With the organizing of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration in 1947, educational administration became a field of study as never before.

The concern of the Conference was the improvement of educational leadership in the United States. A statement of purpose was presented at the 1950 meeting by Walter K. Beggs and unanimously adopted by the Conference. The group called the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration thus began to comprise a roster of individuals representing almost every facet of educational specialty. The group of teachers of educational administration started to promote and develop the principles, practices and theory of educational administration. It was then recognized that the functions of the Conference were interrelated with the work of other agencies in the matters of research and refining it for general use.

A philosophy of educational leadership has been formulated and tentatively accepted by the National conference of Professors of Educational Administration and the basic principles of theory have been outlined. There has been established a theoretical understanding of the purpose of education in American society, of the purpose of educational administration, and of the problems involved in the administration of good schools and in the preparation of competent administrators.
The second agency is the Co-operative Program in Educational Administration (CPEA). It has started in 1950 through the W. K. Kellogg Foundation's support. Its programs cover research and development. It has opened new channels of communication between educational administrators and the social scientists. "Some of the original nine CPEA centers have made substantial progress in this regard."¹⁴

The third agency is that of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA). It was established in 1956. The financial support for this project comes from member universities, the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, and grants for special projects. It has undertaken large research projects designed to develop measures for the performance of educational administration.

The fourth tangible agency is the American Association of School Administrators (AASA). It operates a branch of the National Education Association, better known as NEA. School administrators and professors of educational

¹⁴ Andrew W. Halpin, Administrative Theory in Education (Chigao: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958), p. 2.
administration have a unique opportunity for the communication of new ideas and their implementation.

The fifth agency of importance and financial guarantee in educational administration is the United States Office of Education.

A sixth agency for the propagation, growth, and extension of new ideas, concept and ideologies is the university and colleges of education. The university professors in educational administration have performed very useful services through their thinking, investigation, experimentation and massive writings. Their role in teaching, authorship, consultantship, research-work, and contribution in conferences, seminars, clinics, and so many private organizations have been superb. Their consistent and methodical planning and execution have been a great aid in developing principles, techniques, and concepts of educational administration. Their thought processes and their refinement of ideas through research designs and projects have cultivated a scientific outlook and a critical analysis in administration. Educational administration, a comparatively new discipline, has set up a very comprehensive program consisting of the essence of educational principles, sociological concepts, political thoughts, psychological research, group process, individual guidance and school-community relationship. The combination of all tends to bring a synthesis in educational administration
consistent with the democratic ideals of the country. Consequently, educational administration at all levels has to be visualized in this context.

Some of the Principles and Practices of Educational Administration in America

Educational administration in the United States may be classed as public administration along with the administration of all other non-profit-making enterprises. It is opposed to private administration, which is concerned with the organization and administration of enterprises primarily conducted for private profit. French, Hull, and Dodds observe:

Educational administration of social service organization of an educational, religious, or philanthropic nature, quasi-public in character, may be regarded as in the same class as governmental agencies, and therefore their administration falls wholly and clearly in the area of public administration. The term "Public administration" will be used to apply to the administration of Public Agencies and "Private administration" to apply to the administration of private enterprises, where the term "business administration" is commonly used.12

Educational administration is concerned with the teaching and learning programs. The central purpose of educational administration is to co-ordinate the efforts of people toward the achievement of its goals. "In education these goals have to do with teaching and learning. Thus, administration is

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an educational organization has as its central purpose the enhancement of teaching and learning."

Therefore, educational administration is a technical subject. It calls for a specialized type of training to develop goals and policies basic to educational programs for their successful implementation by qualified personnel. But this does not mean that lay citizens are altogether outside of educational administration. They play a very important role in formulating policy and the goals of education. Administrators are responsible for their successful implementation. But the implementation of programs is not excluded entirely from goals and policies. The administrator's job is not exclusively managerial. The managerial decisions of administrators have no values unless they are geared to the programs which have grown out of the goals and policies. The administrator in the managerial role has to influence public opinion with his expert knowledge of educational principles and concepts. He has to get cooperation from professionals in evolving the policies and objectives of education; he programs a curriculum for evaluation.

The administrator discerns and influences goals. "In suggesting that the administrator not only discern but

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13 Roald R. Campbell, John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer, op. cit., p. 76.
influence goals and policies, we recognize that we have departed from the formulations of some students of administration."

Educational administration calls for a distinctive value framework. There are important differences between the concept of general administration and that of educational administration. Educational administration is a distinct profession. It should not be characterized in ways common to other types of administration. It differs in purpose and function somewhat from business administration. The following are the special conditions under which it operates:

1. The uniqueness of educational institutions.
   Schools have the responsibility for providing education to the people. It is obvious that the administrator of the schools derives his specialized tasks from the philosophy, objectives, purposes, programs, and methods of the institutions being considered. The administration of any institution derives its character, in part, from the functions of that institution.

2. All community institutions are related to the schools. Schools cannot operate satisfactorily unless they deal with the educational aspects of

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the problems of the entire community.

3. **The school aims at developing people.** Education as a process must be aimed directly at human development.

4. **The school offers new ways of resolving conflicts.** "Public schools are not maintained to preserve differences in our important cultural mores, traditions, and values; the school deliberately brings people with different values together." Administrative leadership should be capable of managing an institution that touches on man's most significant problems.

5. **New concepts of public education.** The public school is a new concept, a new ideology, based on democratic principles. It offers equal opportunity to all American youth. Naturally, administration in education has a new set of values, and as a result educational administration is one of the basic social activities. The administrator must be able to utilize all the social disciplines; sociology, psychology, anthropology, and all of the other social studies undergird educational administration.

American education has certain characteristics of its own which are meaningful for administrative and organizational purposes. An appraisal of the salient features provides some important principles. These are as follows:

1. There is decentralization in the control of education. This means that the people have full responsibility for education. Much power has been delegated by the state to the local districts.

2. The ultimate responsibility for policy-making in education lies with the people, not with the educators or government officials. Citizens make the policies. For this purpose members of a lay board of education are elected to represent the people.

3. Primary emphasis has been placed on public schools, but this does not mean that private schools are not taken care of. The American people have an implicit faith in public schools. They consider that they are necessary for
developing the American way of life. Sufficient provision has been made for these schools, which are supported by public tax funds. Public schools are available to all American youth. But parents can choose to send their children to either a public or a private school.

4. Education is safeguarded from partisan political control and influence. Control of the schools by any political group is considered undesirable as well as dangerous. It is essential to maintain their independent status so that school boards and administrators may not be subjected to the domination and control of a particular group or agency.

5. Universal education at public expense is essential in the public schools through the secondary grades. Each child gets the opportunity for education regardless of political, religious, social, economic or social background or status.

6. The American people have realized that educational administrators need a special kind of preparation to meet their responsibilities. Similarly, teachers should also be given specialized training in the area they prefer to teach. Not everyone can become an administrator or a teacher; to hold such
position one is required to obtain sufficient training and orientation.

7. The American people borrowed some of their educational practices from European countries in the beginning, but ultimately they built up a system appropriate to their own culture.

8. The programs of the schools have been adjusted to the needs of the individual and society. Such an ideology has tended to extend the schools horizontally. This means that curricular offerings and the services provided by the schools have been widened. With the development of the school system, the purposes of education have broadened, the number of pupils has greatly increased, and the range of abilities, interests and needs of children have been extended.

9. Students learn a democratic way of life. School is a democratic organization where participation in planning and developing the school life by children, teachers, parents and administrators has been commonly recognized. In the words of Campbell and others:
Sufficient respect of individual differences that administrators, boards of education, parents, laymen, and teachers are making an effort to vary the learning experiences of children to meet individual needs and that differences of opinion, beliefs, values and customs, both in school and out, are given freedom of expression in making decisions.19

The Components of Educational Administration

In any administration there are certain components. They possess distinct features. But the homogenous nature of these components tends to a unity of purpose. Halpin has analyzed administration into "four components: 1) the task, 2) the formal organization, 3) the work group (or work groups), 4) the leader (or leaders)."20

It will be sufficient to suggest that the sum of these four components is not equivalent to administration. The components are blocks. To join them into a composite whole, cementing forces are necessary. These forces are the processes which operate in a specific situational and


environmental background. However, these may be included as a vital part of administration. So the process also may be considered an adjunct if not a component or part of administration. Group processes and human relations are aspects which influence the administration. But Halpin's classification has sufficient justification and logic. The four aspects are the broad classes into which multitudinous elements may be embodied.

But Griffith feels that

School administration has generally lacked a unifying theory around which to solidify...

The concept of school administration, particularly of the role of the chief school administrator, advanced by Davis, deals with three components; the administrator's job, the man and the social setting.21

The classifications mentioned above—1) the administrator's job, 2) the man, and 3) the social setting—appear very broad. It is known as the tri-dimensional concept of educational administration. Each component has been subdivided into —

A. The Job. The job of an administrator is important. It is divided into four areas:

1. Maintaining effective inter-relationships with the community.

2. Improving educational opportunity.
3. Obtaining and developing personnel.
4. Providing and maintaining funds and facilities.

B. The Man. The man in the job has to be considered in relation to his capacity for work. Therefore, the behavior of the man is significant here, and it is categorized as

1. Sensing the problems and collecting relevant data
2. Making inferences
3. Relating to people
4. Predicting and deciding
5. Implementing and reviewing.

C. Social Setting. The school administrator is an important part of the total social setting. The school as a social institution is considered part of the culture. The content of the social setting is divided into four categories:

1. Physical, technological and human resources.
2. A relational system in the community.
3. The network of organization.
4. Patterns of thought, belief, and value.

The contents of the three broad components are comprehensive. They give sufficient color to the whole spectrum of
educational administration. The contents of the social setting have a great impact on the administrative process.

In the words of Griffith,

"The content of the social setting influences the process or the way in which society reacts to changes in the content. These changes take place in reference to a time sequence of four phases:
1. Deeply rooted traditions,
2. the recent past,
3. the present and near future,
4. the long range future."

The Tasks of Educational Administration

The task of educational administration is to facilitate teaching and learning. It is therefore necessary to define the tasks involved in the achievement of administrative objectives. "The factors which define the task of educational administration constitute no fixed body of dogma. Instead they may be viewed as variables influenced by numerous factors of psychological as well as social-cultural and individual nature." Three approaches to a definition of the tasks are observable. They are the observational, behavioral, and responsibility approaches. But "the task approach to administration is not characterized by any highly developed theory."

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22 Ibid., p. 7.
24 Roald F. Campbell, John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer, op. cit., p. 90.
The New York University interviewed 20 superintendents of schools to determine the jobs of educational administrators. Five important areas of responsibilities were classified:

1. Working effectively with people
   a. in the community
   b. on the board of education
   c. within the professional staff
   d. among the pupils
2. Providing efficient business administration
3. Developing an adequate school plant
4. Improving the educational program
5. Serving the profession.

Haskew describes eight roles of the educational administrator:

1. The role of prophet
2. The role of chairman
3. The role of organizer
4. The role of executive
5. The role of policy formulator
6. The role of technical consultant and technician
7. The role of decision maker
8. The role of leader.

Another detailed analysis of the desirable behavior of educational administrators has been developed by the School-Development Study at The Ohio State University. These are:

Walter A. Anderson, March Beauchamp and Quill E. Cope, "Responsibilities of School Administrators" (New York: Department of Administration and Supervision, New York University, 1952) Mimeographed.

1. **Setting goals.** The establishment of the over-all objectives of the education program and the lesser and more immediate goals of individual schools and teachers.

2. **Making policy.** All who are affected by policy should share in making it. Therefore, an important area of administrative behavior and leadership is that of developing educational policy with all who operate in keeping with it.

3. **Determining roles.** Personnel in school systems should have clear assignments. It is the administrator's responsibility to clarify and determine roles for and with the staff members with whom he works.

4. **Co-ordinating administrative functions and structure.** The administrator must operate in such a way that all educational activities are co-ordinated.

5. **Appraising effectiveness.** The administrator must provide leadership in the continuous and searching appraisal of the educational program.

6. **Working with community leadership to promote improvements in education.** An important area of administrative behavior is the work with community leaders and agencies and the use of community resources to improve educational programs.
7. **Using the educational resources of the community.** The success of the administration is dependent on carefully husbanding the resources of the community.

8. **Involving people.** The participation of people is necessary.

9. **Communicating.** The administrator must read, listen, speak, write, and depict and express ideas clearly.27

A detailed treatment of critical tasks has been made by the Southern States Co-operative Program in Educational Administration. The competency pattern has been organized into different task areas. Each task area is discrete.

**Instruction and Curriculum Development**

1. Formulating the philosophy of the institution.

2. Fixing objectives and goals of the curriculum.

3. Determining curriculum content and organization.

4. Relating the curriculum to available time, physical facilities and personnel.

5. Implementing the programs.

6. Providing materials, resources, and equipment for the implementation of the program.

7. Managing for the supervision of instruction for appraisal.

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8. Arranging for in-service education of instructional personnel.

**Pupil Personnel**
1. Pupil inventory and organization.
2. Pupil accounting.
3. Pupil personnel services.
4. Control of pupil behavior.

**School-community Leadership**
1. Knowledge of the community.
2. Assisting the community to identify its potential for improvement through the use of natural and human resources.
3. Determining educational services.
4. Establishing home-school relationships.
5. Helping to develop and implement plans for the improvement of community life.
6. Determining the role of other community agencies.

**Staff Personnel**
1. Formulating staff personnel policies.
2. Securing personnel.
3. Promoting the general welfare of the staff.
4. Developing a system of staff personnel records.
5. Supervising personnel.
6. Appraising teaching effectiveness.
7. Stimulating and providing opportunities for the professional growth of staff personnel.
Physical Facilities

1. Determining the physical plant needs of the community and the resources which can be marshalled to meet those needs.

2. Developing a comprehensive plan for the orderly growth and improvement of school plant facilities.

3. Implementation of the plans for the growth and development of school plant facilities.

School Finance and Business Management

1. Organizing the business staff.

2. Determining sources of school revenue.

3. Formulating a salary schedule.

4. Preparing the school budget.

5. Administering capital outlay and debt service.

6. Administering school purchasing.

7. Accounting for school property.

8. Providing for a school insurance program.


Organization and Structure

1. Understanding the meaning of formal organization.

2. Developing administrative organization as a means of implementing educational objectives.

3. Organizing lay and professional groups for participation in educational planning and other educational activities.
An outline of the tasks of educational administration was prepared by the Middle Atlantic Region Co-operative Program in Educational Administration. The tasks of educational administration have been divided into four major categories of responsibilities.

1. Relating to the community.
2. Improving educational opportunity.
3. Obtaining, developing, and improving personnel.
4. Providing and maintaining funds and facilities.

In the first category are found the following responsibilities:

1. Community improvement.
2. Defining educational need.
3. Working with the Board of Education.
4. Interpreting the educational program.
5. Encouraging community support of education.
6. Interpreting the role of other agencies.
7. Interpreting community moves to the staff.
8. Establishing communication between school and community.

In the second category, the following specific responsibilities are included:

1. Defining the philosophy and objectives of schools.
2. Continuous evaluation of the educational program.
3. Establishing an appropriate organization.
4. Establishing appropriate processes.

In the third category, the following responsibilities are included:

1. Policy development.
2. Continuous professional development.
4. Consideration of personnel.

In the fourth category the following responsibilities are found:

1. Demonstrating technical competence.
2. Balanced judgement.
3. Co-ordination in the area of funds and facilities.

The Administrative Process and the Group

In any administration the processes are significant. They are akin to methods for the performance of tasks. They cannot be conceived in a vacuum. They are related to the jobs. These processes have broader components. There are no set rules as to how they operate in practice. The manner in which they influence the achievements of a group is important.

Administration has been defined as "the total of the processes through which appropriate human and material resources are made available and made effective for accomplishing the purposes of an enterprise."^{28}

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During the past two decades, the essential elements of the administrative processes have been analyzed. Gulick has advocated POSDCORB, which is made up of the initials and stands for the following activities:

1. Planning
2. Organizing
3. Staffing
4. Directing
5. Co-ordinating
6. Reporting
7. Budgeting

Tead has also made a comprehensive analysis:

1. Defining purposes and objectives.
2. Developing the broad plan for the structuring of organization.
3. Recruiting and organizing an executive staff.
4. Delegating and allocating authority and responsibility.
5. Carrying forward of the delegated activities.
7. Achieving co-ordination through committees and conferences.
8. Stimulating and energizing the entire personnel.
9. Evaluating the total outcome in relation to purposes.
10. Looking ahead and forecasting the organization's aims as well as the ways and means for realizing them.

Writers in educational administration have started to deal with the administrative process. Sears was first to publish an extensive treatise and he discussed the following elements of the administrative process:

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1. Planning
2. Organizing
3. Directing
4. Co-ordinating
5. Controlling

On the process of administration, it appears that Sears holds the same views as Gulick. Both favor "directing." Thus, they do not consider administration in the terms of a democratic approach and democratic behavior. Gregg has tried to improve their ideas by analyzing the seven components and including the staff members. They are:

1. Decision making
2. Planning
3. Organizing
4. Communicating
5. Influencing
6. Co-ordinating
7. Evaluating

These seven components are comprehensive. They seem to have been split up into further sub-components, such as "planning" and "organizing" can be combined into one "programming." Similarly, "communicating" and "influencing" can be combined into "stimulating." Therefore, the following conception of the administrative process as enunciated by Campbell, Corbally and Ramseyer seems to be justifiable and in keeping with the non-directive ideals of democracy.

1. Decision-making
2. Programming
3. Stimulating
4. Co-ordinating
5. Appraising

Decision-making is very important in administration. Some of the writers, including Griffith, consider administration and decision-making synonymous. Decisions must be based on many factors. Various problems and issues have to be resolved.

Programming comes after decision-making. Once a major decision is reached there are a number of decisions to be made in the course of implementing it. This aspect of the process is known as programming.

Stimulation is the third step in the administrative process. It is the opposite of commanding and directing. It is more rational, and indicates that the administrator does not bring pressure. The effective administrator acts according to rational behavior rather than pressure behavior.

Co-ordinating the fourth step, aims at achieving an appropriate relationship between the people and things necessary for the organization to achieve its purpose.

Appraisal is the last step. Some writers use evaluation instead. When the decisions are made and the programs

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are set up, planning is needed at every step for implementa-
tion. In the last stage, an evaluation is essential to
ascertain the success or failure of the program. Hence,
the purpose of appraisal is to assess the strength and
weaknesses of the whole situation.

Changing Concepts of Leadership

Concepts of leadership in administration are changing.
Numerous studies since 1925 on group behavior, human relations,
and formal and informal organizations are resulting in new
ideas. Such studies serve meaningful purposes in educational
administration. The National Conference of Professors of Ed-
cational Administration, Co-operative Program in Educational
Administration, The American Association of School Administra-
tors and the University Research Centers such as the Personnel
Research Board at Ohio State University, the Research Center
for Group Dynamics at the University of Michigan, the Graduate
School of Business Administration at Harvard University, and
the Yale Labor and Management Center are making useful contri-
butions:

Studies made by Stogdill,\(^{34}\) Hemphill,\(^{35}\) and

\(^{34}\) Ralph M. Stogdill, Individual Behavior and Group

\(^{35}\) John K. Hemphill, Situational Factors in Leader-
ship (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1949).
Knickerbocker, are significant contributions to new concepts of leadership.

The leader affects the group in different ways—by initiating action, facilitating communication, establishing structure, etc. He has his own way of implementing the philosophy which influences people. The most extensive list of dimensions by which one could measure the influence of a leader upon a group has been prepared by Hemphill. His fifteen group dimensions are size, viscosity, homogeneity, flexibility, permeability, polarization, stability, intimacy, autonomy, control, position, potency, hedonic tone, participation and dependence.

Stogdill, in 1948, drew a number of conclusions out of 124 studies. He found that the average person who occupied a position of leadership exceeded the average members of his group in (1) intelligence, (2) scholarship, (3) dependability in exercising responsibilities, (4) activity and social participation, and (5) socio-economic status. He was of further opinion that the qualities, characteristics and skills required in a leader were determined largely by the demands of the situation in which he functioned as a leader.

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37 Hemphill, *op. cit.*, p. 31-33.

His other conclusions, based on positive evidence, were that the average person who occupied a leadership position exceeded the average member of his group to some degree in (1) sociability, (2) initiative, (3) persistence, (4) knowing how to get things done, (5) self-confidence, (6) alertness, (7) co-operativeness, (8) popularity, (9) adaptability, and (10) verbal facility.39

His findings in a recent study relate the behavior of leaders to the performance and achievements of the group members. He states that "an organized group may be regarded as an input-output system in unstable balance." This means that group behavior has a direct impact on production. Group behavior is the result of many factors, including the behavior of leaders. Productivity is thus influenced by a simple interplay of "function" and "responsibility" upon "performance."

Leadership Behavior in Educational Administration

Leadership in educational administration has a special significance. Social scientists believe that leaders may be found among all strata of society. Bell, Hill and Wright hold that leaders are found among holders of status positions.40

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power people in the community, those who are not necessarily office holders but who, for some reason, wield power; active volunteers, those who are active in volunteer services in the community; opinion-influence people, those from many walks of life whose judgment in limited areas of decision making is respected; and those even-oriented people who seem to rise to the challenge of a given occasion or circumstances.

Hunter suggests that between 100 and 300 people constitute the nucleus leadership group in the national government of America. McCamy and Corradine identify as many as 7300 government leaders. 41

But research shows that it is not necessary that leaders should be found from among the people holding top positions. All normal people have some capacity for leadership in certain situations and circumstances.

Jennings has analyzed the behavior of prominent leaders and identified three traits in leadership: (1) the princes, or power seekers; (2) the heroes, those dedicated to noble causes; and (3) the superman, the inner-directed value creators. 42

Concepts of Organization in Administration

Organization has a major role in administration.

The democratic philosophy of organization is different from


the authoritarian one. An organizational structure is necessary in a group which has a common task. "An unorganized group is a mob. It can neither determine nor accomplish its goals." The organization provides procedures for making decisions and taking action. These procedures are for the following purposes:

1. Selecting leaders.
2. Determining the roles of each member of the group.
3. Identifying the goals or purposes of the group.
4. Achieving the goals.

Any organization, whether democratic or authoritarian, has some elements, although patterns and procedure differ. Organization and administration are equally important in all undertakings of society. The elements of organization are:

1. **Unity of purpose.** The purpose and objectives of an organization must be clearly defined. The process of determining purposes and objectives may be formal or informal. In a democratic organization almost all the people of the group are involved in the determination of objectives. The authoritarian organization does not observe such a process. In such an organization selected people determine the goals and purposes.

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2. **Single executive.** Every organization should be headed by a single executive head. There may be different leaders at different levels, but there should be one central leader to co-ordinate the group.

3. **Authority and responsibility.** Authority and responsibility go hand in hand. Authority is delegated in the individual, who then places responsibility. These are essential for maintaining the solidarity of any organization.

4. **Personnel policies.** Personnel policies include selection of the competent personnel, training them, elimination of the incompetent, and finally, providing incentives for all members of the organization.

5. **Security.** Each member of the organization is very important in maintaining solidarity and cohesion. So it is necessary that an atmosphere of security and a climate of confidence should be created.

6. **Co-ordination.** Co-ordination of functions, activities, interests and assignments is necessary for successful completion of work. It is desirable in the interest of achieving best results.

7. **Stability.** An organization needs stability of policies and programs to work effectively.
8. **Flexibility.** In the management there should not be too much rigidity. But flexibility does not mean the counteraction of stability. There should be sufficient scope for effecting changes to bring about improvements in the whole system.

9. **Co-operation.** It is of importance that there should be a complete understanding among the members of the organization. Complete co-operation brings efficiency in the organization and personnel.

10. **Division of work.** The scheme of organization should provide for maximum homogeneity in the major divisions of work. Assignments of individual responsibility should be based on work loads, individual capacity, interests and homogeneity of tasks. As an organization becomes larger and more complicated, this principle becomes progressively more important.

11. **Executive leadership.** Executive leadership means influencing the whole group, on giving guidance.

12. **Executive conduct.** It should be consistent with the policies and objectives of the organization. Orders and circulars should be issued, keeping in view the ethics and principles of service.

13. **Span of control.** One person can deal with only limited responsibilities. This means that every
individual should have limited power. This can be possible through the delegation of authority.

14. **Planning and decision-making.** Every organization is dependent on effective planning and decision-making. Policies, goals and programs are all subject to planning. Decisions have to be made concerning goals, purposes, objectives, policies and programs that are regarded as legitimate by the organization.

15. **Production.** An effective organization must attain its goals if it is to survive. This is true regardless of whether the organization is authoritarian or democratic. Organizational success depends on productivity and stipulated output.

16. **Evaluation.** Evaluation is essential to the progress of any organization. Without assessment, it is difficult to ascertain success or failure in the achievement of goals. For proper ascertainment of results, evaluative criteria have to be devised. Evaluation thus becomes a process of improving the methods of production.
What Does Organization Mean to Educational Administration?

Organization has a lot to do with educational administration. Much of the success of administration depends on a sound personnel policy and an effective procedure of organizing. So an administrator has to be very particular about the formulation of policies governing the transaction of duties and responsibilities in the hierarchy of an administration. The head of the department has to instill in different administrators, at different levels, the sense of democracy and a sensitivity to duties, co-operation, sociability and human values.

Organizational solidarity is bound to bring better results, and educational objectives and programs can be ensured when the chief executive has the proper attitudes toward human behavior and achieves co-ordination and stability in the educational organization.
CHAPTER V

A MODEL OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION FOR INDIA

From heterogeneity, a cultural synthesis developed in India. As a result of the dynamic forces shaping society, educational ideas sprang up. These ideas have resulted in the development of a scientific attitude and from this attitude has evolved a program of education; in order to implement the educational program, a system of administration emerged. This program was described in the second chapter of this report. But the system of educational administration which has emerged in India is fraught with many problems, issues, and questions.

It is not possible in this report to take up every issue, problem and question separately. So a model of educational administration will be used to answer them collectively. The cultural and historical background of India together with some of the universal administrative principles and policies that have developed in America will form the basis for the model. The model will therefore incorporate the ideas discussed in previous chapters and provide a co-ordinated whole from which to draw definite conclusions and to formulate recommendations.
The suggested model of educational administration for India is divided into three parts—concept, organizational tasks and leadership training.

In the first part, the concept of educational administration is presented. It is necessary to set forth the philosophy, goals and nature of educational administration first, because philosophy and goals determine the programs. However, programs are built by organizational efforts in which tasks are defined and carried to completion. This aspect of administration constitutes the second part of the model. The performance of the job depends on certain methods and techniques. These methods and techniques can be acquired from systematic training. This is why in the third part of the model a training program for developing leadership is developed.

The following discussion outlines in broad perception the basic guidelines for improving educational administration in India.

1. **What Concept of Educational Administration Is Appropriate in India Today?**

A concept of educational administration for India needs to be clearly defined. Educational administration should be distinguished from other types of administration. Administration is a social invention. It operates in social organizations and affects relationships among people and
Institutions in society. It deals with men and materials. Thus it should be based on empirical laws and be guided by the rules of human relations.

Educational administration has to be distinct from other types of administration. It should differ in purpose and function from others, as the administration of any educational institution derives its character from the unique nature, functions, and technical operation involved in facilitating the teaching-learning process.

Schools are charged with the major responsibilities of providing education. The school is concerned with the teaching and learning program of the community. Therefore, educational administration has as its main objective the facilitation of the educational program.

Educational administration must be conceived of as a technical subject. It thus requires training in the techniques of education, the art of human relationship and the management of an organizational structure.

Educational administration should have specific goals, policies and programs. These are basic to teaching and learning. Campbell, Corbally and Ramseyer observe:

Educational administration occurs in a school community and consists of facilitating the development of goals and policies basic to teaching and learning, stimulating and
development of appropriate programs for teaching and learning, and procuring and managing personnel and material to implement teaching and learning.  

This statement makes it clear that education cannot thrive and progress unless its technical nature is comprehended by every administrator in the country. The concept of educational administration in a democratic country like India must involve the community, administrator, teacher and students in the formulation of broad policy. But the execution of the policy requires technical knowledge. So only an administrator with experience and training in educational administration can do full justice in this sphere.

The Philosophy and Objectives of Educational Administration

Educational administration in India needs specific philosophy and objectives. At present, Indian society is confronted with momentous changes and decisions. The decisions the Indian people make will influence the future of democracy. Therefore, an administrator of education has to think in this frame-work. Alberty has defined philosophy in the following manner: "Philosophy involves the cultivation of a set of values which serves as a guide to conduct."  

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When we speak of the philosophy of a school, we refer to the purposes that give direction to the activities which it sponsors, to the beliefs which the teaching staff holds concerning the development of human personality, and to the conception of the good life held by society.

The purpose of educational administration in India must be determined by a philosophy of education. Philosophy in American education has helped determine the goals of education and thereby of administration. It asks:

What should be taught?
How should it be taught?
Who should teach?
Where should the teaching be done?

Education is not static but dynamic. This means that the objectives of education need to be redefined at times. One finds that American secondary education in the course of the last fifty years has redefined its objectives numerous times. The reason is obvious; objectives serve as foci for the activities of the school. "They spring from two inter-active sources—the needs of society and the needs
of individuals."

But they are rooted in the dominant culture and reflect the complex values of a civilization. In 1918 the famous Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education were formulated by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. In 1938 the Educational Policies Commission listed specific goals for education under four headings. In 1944 the National Association of Secondary School Principals, in conjunction with Educational Policies Committee of N.E.A., detailed the "ten imperative needs of youth." In 1961 the Educational Policies Commission formulated the Central Purpose of American Education. These objectives have been influential in establishing the purpose of education in this country.

Similarly, it is desirable that the central purpose of education in India should be decided and set forth from time to time to guide the formulation of goals of educational administration. For this purpose the following forces must be taken into consideration:

1. The expanding Indian culture.
2. Developmental plans and the changing economy of the country.
3. Growing needs of the society and those of the individual.
4. Influence of new concepts of evaluation and examination.

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5. Functional concepts of education.
6. State and national legislature.

Within the situation depicted by these forces, educational administration can develop goals, programs and policies to facilitate teaching and learning. Some of the factors suggested above will influence the ultimate goal of educational administration.

The Nature of Educational Administration

Educational administration in India should be democratic. This means that there should be a team approach in administration, although it would be very difficult to employ. As far as practicable decision-making should involve all persons with administrative positions, from the lowest rung to the highest in the hierarchy. Human relations, together with collective talents and ingenuity, should be made use of.

There should be a free flow of communication in all directions to bring a total change in the spirit of officials who might be more interested in maintaining their official positions than in protecting the rights of the people or even promoting the interests of society.

In America communication channels are very fast. Decision-making is expedited through telephone discussion, conferences and other rapid methods. Such rapid communication is essential to democratic procedure, and India also needs rapid methods of decision-making; such as the interview, face-to-face contact, group discussion, training in
human relationships, horizontal communication, clearance, reviews and conferences and the delegation of power.

These methods have effective means for sharing knowledge and securing unified action. Redfield feels that a "conference draws together bits of information and experience from many limited positions and puts the data into broad organizational perspective." This is why horizontal communication in educational administration is desirable. It would provide an opportunity for the upward flow of ideas. Its objective is to gain understanding, participation and acceptance. Among the Greeks, the best way to solve a problem was to subject it to intensive public discussion.

The leader of the discussion group has the responsibility of stimulating and inspiring all the members to participate. The leader should be conscious of the interest of the whole group. He should possess mental alertness, sensitivity, perception, language facility, impartiality, tact, poise, self-restraint, friendliness, good will, a sense of humor, interestedness and humility.

The traditional methods of communication need to be changed to take into account human relationships, especially in order-giving, oral or written instructions, circulars, manuals and handbooks.

Occasional conferences with the members of the various

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groups representing the community are also helpful in encouraging a democratic attitude in the administration.

Planning at different levels should be done on a cooperative basis. This means that all the learning activities should be planned by the administrators, teachers and students as far as practicable. The purpose of democracy is the maximum development of all. This purpose is served when everyone concerned—faculty, administrators, pupils and parents—has an opportunity to share in planning, work and evaluation. This means that duties and responsibilities as well as freedom have to be shared in accordance with objectives and the ability of the participants. The writer feels that the following statement explains this point very well:

Teachers and administrators must keep in mind that the major purpose for this participation is not merely the maintenance of good morale, however necessary that may be. Staff participation in decision-making must be justified not merely because of what it does for teachers, but because experience and research show that it is the most effective means available to accomplish the purposes for which the schools are organized.5

It is necessary to realize the importance of faculty members. They should be stimulated to think and inspired to participate in faculty meetings. "The faculty should participate in an active fashion in the planning of each faculty meeting."6

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5 Campbell, et al., op. cit., pp. 211-12.
2. How Should the Organizational Solidarity Be Strengthened in the Educational Administration of India?

The present administrative set-up in India, as discussed in Chapter III., needs more co-ordination and articulation. The Director of Public Instruction who is the professional leader, should have direct access to the Minister of Education. He should be the chief executive under the Minister of Education. He should be assisted by "staff" and "line" personnel. "Line" officers are usually thought of as those responsible for the operation of the major units of an organization. Staff officers usually serve in a fact-gathering or advisory capacity or perform a specialized function for line officers. The staff personnel should be confined to a few deputy directors and assistant directors in charge of secondary education, elementary and basic education, and so on. To improve curriculum, guidance, evaluation, planning, business management, finance, buildings, textbooks, libraries, there should be a considerable number of experts and specialists in each area for advisory purposes.

Education in India is mostly the concern of the states. There is no local government, as there is in America, taking the delegated responsibility of education. The Indian state has to maintain an administrative structure on the state, divisional, district and further levels. The total number of administrative personnel in any Indian state is considerably

less than in any state in America. In staff personnel only specialized types of professional personnel should be recruited on all levels. The posts of specialists should not be filled by seniority and promotion alone. Of course, any person within the cadre who is qualified by his education and training should be preferred to an outsider. The diagramatic representation on the following page will help clarify this point.

It is suggested that the Director of Public Instruc-
tion should have overall responsibility in assisting the Minister of Education in policy-making and decision-making. The staff officers and deputy directors on the state level, as represented in the diagram, should extend their expert advice in their respective areas to the Director of Public Instruction. Further, he should work as the Secretary of the Advisory Committee, which consists of the people's representatives under the leadership of the Minister of Education. The size of the Advisory Com-
mittee should be fixed by each state on the basis of population and other factors. Staff officers should be delegated full authority for the execution of policies after they are finally approved by the Advisory Committee and the Minister of Education.
The Regional Deputy Directors, the District Education officers, the Sub-divisional Education officers, Deputy Inspectors and Sub-inspectors should be delegated the power of carrying out the execution of policies, appointments, improvements of instruction, the curriculum, inspection, in-service education and such other tasks as the Director of Public Instruction considers suitable in the interest of education.

The Tasks of Educational Administration

Considering the historical perspective in which education and its administration has developed in India, it seems that the present day administration in education has the following tasks.

Administration and Organization

The broad policy of educational development and planning should be considered, discussed and endorsed by the Ministry of Education, both at central and state levels. Administrators are supposed to think concretely about the problems growing out of the expansion, consolidation and working of basic education, secondary education, teacher education, in-service training, and special education. They have to assist in the formulation of policy and decision-making.

Important considerations have to be given by educational administrators in India, to policy making. In a democracy, the views of the people, the culture of the land,
the economic interdependence of all people, population mobility, widespread communication, the growth of knowledge, technological advancement, values, the beliefs and aspirations of society have to be taken into account in evolving policy. "Policies for education begin with the basic movements in society." Policies can be very broad in scope. They can encompass anything and everything in education. But the basic principles governing them are suggested by the following questions:

1. What should be the philosophy of education?
2. What should be the goal of education?
3. What should be the characteristics of the curriculum?
4. Who is competent to make decisions in educational matters?
5. What should be the role of the executive?
6. What degree of school-community relationship is desirable?
7. What should be the salary schedule for the educators?
8. How should laymen and educators co-operate with one another?
9. How should schools be financed?

Campbel et al., op. cit., p. 241.
10. What should be the expenditure plan?
11. What should be the specifications for school buildings?

These are some of the questions; their answers are determined by the policies. At this point, it should be pointed out that the narration of policies is not as important as ways and means for formulating the policies. It is necessary in a democratic society to decentralize administration and associate with the people at various levels so that education will be the people's program. For this purpose the following suggestions are made:

1. At the state level there should be an Advisory Board consisting of legislators, educators, administrators, teachers and representatives of various professional and interest groups for considering policy on the state level. The Minister of Education should be the chairman of the Advisory Board. The Deputy of Public Instruction should be the ex-officio Secretary.

2. At the divisional levels, there should be a similar Advisory Board. This Board should be represented by persons from among the divisions. This Board should plan divisional-level operations. The administrator at the divisional level should act as a secretary. The chairman of the Board
should be the people's representative. The decisions of this Board should be considered by the State Advisory Board.

3. Similarly, an advisory board should exist on district, sub-divisional and circle levels.

4. The principle "planning from below" is significant in this respect. All planning and policy-making should move from the bottom to the top for final consideration by the State Advisory Board and approval by the Minister of Education. Wherever necessary, laws should be framed by the legislation to give legal sanction to such policies.

5. The success of advice depends on the importance given to these boards at different levels and the amount of interest created in the members of the boards and in the different administrative processes such as decision-making, planning, organizing, influencing, communicating, co-ordinating and evaluating, which have a great influence on administrative procedures.

6. The building principals and headmasters should set up parent-teachers organizations. They should establish contact with the parents. They should try to keep in touch with other local groups also. These have immense value in incorporating new ideas into education and policy-making.
The Collection of Data

The collection of information and data, and the preparation of reports are an important task of the educational administrator for successful planning largely depends on the dissemination of information.

As far as the second task is concerned, there can be no question that the collection of information is very important for decision-making and policy-making. The type and amount of information to be collected is also worthy of consideration. For statistical purposes, it appears desirable that questionnaires of various kinds should be constructed which may be answered very easily and worked out immediately. These instruments should not be cumbersome or involve much time. The instruments should be based on the fundamental principles of planning, evaluation and formation. For this job, experts in statistics should be attached to each office to help in administration.

Curricula and Instruction

The construction of curricula, syllabi, the approval of textbooks, the preparation of literature, manuals and guidebooks, the conducting of examinations and evaluations should be included in this area.

The educational administrator should be an instructional leader. Every administrator should have a thorough grounding in curriculum construction. He should be fully
aware of the philosophy and goal of education. Every institution should have specific written objectives formulated to derive the details of the curriculum. The building principal and headmasters should be fully authorized to plan, discuss and work out a curriculum on the outlines supplied by the Education Department. These outlines may be in the form of guidelines but the framework should not aim to produce uniformity in all the schools. Every administrator as an instructional leader should have a complete comprehension of the following principles concerning curricula, syllabus:

1. The curriculum "should be conceived in terms of a succession of experiences, projects or enterprises having a maximum of life-likeness for the learner."\(^9\)

2. The curriculum should be organized with a view to giving the learner opportunities most helpful in meeting life situations.

3. The method by which the learner works with these experiences, projects, enterprises or drill exercises should call for a maximum of self-direction, assumption of responsibility, and exercise of choice in values.

4. The pupil should be kept central in the curriculum

and in the educative process. His interests, experiences, and needs should be evaluated and the most worthy of these so utilized and guided in the classroom as to secure his best development toward a social end.

5. The curriculum should take the child's out-of-school play and work interests and experiences also into consideration. All that is undertaken in school should have a definite relation to the life of the pupil and the community.

6. Learning should be thought of as new ways of behaving—as changes in conduct and ways of responding. Learning is not the mere storing-up of information to be released upon demand, but is the actual reorganization of experiences to secure more satisfying and effective responses.

7. The curriculum should be dynamic and flexible, adjusting itself to the pupils' needs from day-to-day and from grade-to-grade. This will involve constant observation of all the elements that enter into curriculum construction.

8. The curriculum, though of fundamental importance, should be thought of as only one part of the total educative process. This will entail the utilization of all means of improving and extending
the work of the school through the efforts of pupils, teachers, and parents, and also through such administrative aids as diagnostic tests, supervision, etc.

9. The aims, objectives, and ideal goals of the curriculum may be determined (a) by a personal analysis of the life and attitudes of the pupils; (b) by a social survey of the benefits and deficiencies of environments; (c) by an analysis of the favorable and unfavorable influences and movements in national and international life; (d) by determining the desired results of classroom activities; (e) by accepting those aims which have been shown to be of real educational value in other times and places: (f) by including these phases of knowledge and techniques, habits, attitudes, appreciations and ideals which will enable pupils to fit into and improve their environments.

10. These aims should be stated not only for specific outcomes of knowledge but also for desired changes in behavior, habits, appreciation and ideals. There should be recognition, too, of the need for a broad, progressive, democratic outlook; for tolerant, unselfish attitudes and for deep appreciation of the rich cultural heritage of the
past. These are necessary for preserving some of the developed culture of the past as well as to keep abreast of a rapidly moving civilization and to make the progress of which India is capable.

11. Curricular activities may come from different sources: (a) the spontaneous interests and activities of the children arising from their school life or from their out-of-school life; (b) an analysis of the life and needs of the pupils; (c) a study of the community; (d) observation of and contact with nature; (e) wider social contacts and relationships; (f) proof of value in other places and school systems. All these activities should be evaluated and classified for pupils of different ages.

12. Purposeful activities are emphasized as the fundamental units in the successful attaining of objectives; purpose provides the readiness and the drive to carry forward useful work. It defines the end to be attained; it guides and directs the process and it brings about degrees of satisfaction as the various subsidiary objectives are successfully accomplished. Interest, satisfaction and the desire to continue related phases of the activity fulfill the essential conditions of effective learning.
13. In terms of environment, classroom activities might include those related to the home and its associations; to the outstanding needs of life—food, clothing, shelter, utensils, tools, machines, records; to play and various other forms of recreation; to health, hygiene and sanitation; to the farm and to various other occupations; to the village—its life, work and relationships; to the various social and civic institutions; to scientific progress and invention; to nature, beauty, and the aesthetic side of life; and to the wider social, economic, and cultural relationships of the nation and the world. In terms of types, these activities will involve constructive or creative work of an investigative, observational and problem-solving nature.

14. Content selection is very important. Every administration should know the procedure for the selection of subject matter. The selection made can be through "judgmental procedures" which involve an exploration of the cultural heritage. Another way is the "experimental procedure."

15. The administrator has to be careful to take into consideration the fact that the curriculum makes adequate provisions for all youth regardless of
intelligence level, interests, race, creed, or socio-economic background.

16. The curriculum should make provision for an effective program of general education, vocational education and special interests education.

17. The administrator should have a complete knowledge of "subject-centered," "experience-centered," "society-centered," "child-centered," and "problem-centered curricula.

The Recognition of Schools

Another task of importance is the granting of recognition (what is known as accreditation in America) to elementary, basic, middle and high schools. Certain conditions should be laid down for the approval of schools. These conditions are adequate land, financial guarantees, a qualified teaching staff, a sufficient number of students, the requisite physical facilities, especially if the schools are started by the public educational administrators supervise them and make evaluation in terms of the conditions.

The recognition of any school depends on various factors. These are the growing needs of the school in a particular area, the response of the community, the adequacy of facilities, approachability, the quality of the teaching staff. So an administrator has to consider when these criteria are met.
The American method of accreditation by professional agencies is perfectly sound. There are criteria laid down by these agencies. If these criteria are fulfilled, schools are accredited. This system has certain advantages over the Indian system. Private agencies establish good precedence. There is no political or governmental influence of any nature to interfere with free decisions. This is why these private accreditation agencies have very good reputations throughout the nation.

India should also make an attempt to encourage such professional agencies, especially in the recognition of high schools. There should be five such agencies throughout the country, one for each zone, including north, south, east, west and central.

Administrators should try to develop these agencies for the purpose of recognizing high schools and training institutions; but this does not mean that the state should withdraw. It should set up a minimum standard.

School Finances

In financial matters, administrators are supposed to help in preparing budgets and making allocation to different institutions. There are two kinds of expenditures—recurring and non-recurring. In recurring expenditures, salary allowances and expenses of a permanent nature are included, whereas non-recurring expenditures comprise any
type of allotment for the purchase of teaching materials, building costs and so on. The other financial task is to recommend and sanction grant-in-aid to those high schools which are managed by the public.

In financial administration, most of the jobs are performed by the Treasury and the office of the Accountant-General. The treasury is a very important organ of the state government. All payments are made through the treasury, on the presentation of bills and checks duly endorsed by the persons authorized by the state government.

The Accountant-General's duty is to see that accounts are properly and accurately maintained by every office. He keeps watch over the proper utilization of government money in accordance with the budget and allotment. His expert knowledge in accounting and auditing is devoted to controlling defalcation and misappropriation of government money.

The burden of financial obligation is very light for educational administrators in India. But it is of importance for an administrator to be expert in school finances. He should have a clear conception of how to finance a school. Finances for school are mostly provided by the government. The state government has its own revenue plan. Money is procured through taxation, which is a common source of revenue for all governmental expenditures. In the expansion phase of education, it is desirable that new plans of taxation be
worked out. The state government gets a subsidy from the central government. But this is not an efficient way of providing for all the expenditures of schools.

The American system of taxation, by the local government on property, seems feasible as a plan for India. It offers sufficient opportunity for better financing of the schools. Everybody owning real estate has to make a financial contribution to education. This plan has the virtue of creating enthusiasm among the people for local autonomy and control of education.

Educational administration in India should also explore new means of financing education. Schools finances have three aspects—educational goals, expenditures and revenue. An administrator in education has to be familiar with all of them, so that he can correlate them with one another. The educational goals must be translated into financial costs and balanced with receipts and expenditures. India today needs both quantity and quality education. For this purpose more money is required. Every school needs better facilities and equipment. Teachers' financial status should also be enhanced. Hence, a revenue plan to meet these contingencies has to be considered.

It is therefore suggested that there should be local taxation for education. The subject of local taxation should be individual property. There should be proportional assessment. "The best justification for some local school taxes
is that this policy gives the local people the opportunity to provide better schools for children... The local freedom encourages local initiative to find new and better solutions to educational problems. "

Payment for the school and education by the community would create a sense of greater participation.

A further proposal in respect to finances is that the school administrator should be expert in—

1. Translating educational goals into financial terms.
2. Preparing the budget.
3. The principles of co-operative support by local, state and federal governments—what is known as financing foundation programs in America
4. Financial organization and operation
5. Business management
6. Cost analysis
7. Estimation of costs
8. Purchasing
9. Storing
10. Records keeping
11. Accounting and auditing
12. Reporting

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Staff Personnel

The educational administration in India is comprised of two kinds of personnel: gazetted and non-gazetted. The gazetted personnel are mainly administrators of various categories. And the non-gazetted are teachers, clerks and peons. The appointment of staff is made at different levels of administration. Teachers in the elementary schools, basic schools, and middle schools are appointed within the districts by the school administrators. Generally, there is a committee that assists in making appointments. For the appointment of other non-gazetted staff teachers in the government high schools and others, the Director of Public Instruction is responsible. He makes appointments on the recommendation of a committee, which consists of the deputy directors of education.

The gazetted members are appointed by the government on the recommendation of the Public Service Commission.

Promotion depends on seniority and efficiency. Records of work are confidentially maintained by the administration. These records are considered in promotion and demotion.

Service conditions are guided by the Civil Service Code and Education Code. These codes are manuals on the conduct or privileges and limitations of the staff members. The education code prescribes their rights and responsibilities together with certain expectations.
Any punishment for a breach of rules, misconduct, disobedience, subordination, and negligence in duties should be imposed by the appointed authority. But appeal should be referred to the next higher authority.

It is noted with concern that there are few incentives for the staff to seek further professional growth. They are not encouraged to enrich themselves with new ideas and methods. As a consequence, it is felt that policies effecting staff personnel need to be improved and renovated.

It is therefore suggested that administration in the existing organizational framework should develop personnel policies. There should be reasonable working conditions, clear channels of communication, staff participation in the formulation and operation of policies, a merit basis of promotion, recognition of effectiveness in teaching, encouragement for continued professional growth, the establishment of employment, assignment, induction and supervision procedures. Teachers should be encouraged and stimulated to enrich themselves with new ideas and methods. Special recognition should be given for the initiative, resourcefulness and devotion to job performance by the staff.

Every administration has a philosophy regarding the operation of organizations in general and of the function of personnel in particular. The operations of an organization are likely to reflect the philosophy held by the
administrator or the administrative group. The personnel in education in India should also be guided by the same philosophy, which should embody the following fundamental principles.

**Communication.** It is an important element for the organization of personnel. Communication involves thought, the process of analysis, as well as some exchange of ideas through oral and written media. This communication must form the basis for co-operative action. Administration in India should try to improve communication among the staff.

**Purpose.** A well-defined and meaningful purpose is the motivating factor for an organized staff. It gives the personnel a sense of belonging.

**Social efficiency.** The development and nurture of social efficiency should be the objective of staff personnel. A structurally sound plan of organization may be worked out on the basis of social efficiency. The staff, for instance, should have a close relationship with the society.

**Integrity.** It is the corner-stone to successful personnel organization. Sincerity, honesty, and justice in the dealings and relationships among the staff members should be developed to the fullest extent. The higher officer should create a climate of confidence and friendliness

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among his subordinates.

**Appraisal.** Improvement can be made only in terms of appraisal of the activities, performance and the achievement of the staff. Appraisal may reveal the conditions, process and success of persons, materials and procedures. Therefore, the principles of appraisal have to be developed co-operatively in India for further improvement.

**Programs for Staff Personnel**

The following programs and procedures affecting staff personnel need to be improved in India—

1. Recruitment, selection and assignment of staff members.
2. Orientation and in-service education of staff members.
3. Rating and promotion of staff members.
4. Transferring, demoting and discharging of staff members.
5. Salary schedules (should be on the basis of prevailing economic conditions, the nature of the work, qualification and experience).
7. Work schedules.
8. Service conditions and privileges.
9. Health and safety of staff members.
10. Staff participation in management.
The Formulation of Personnel Policies

For personnel administration, the following principles should be borne in mind by administrators in India:

1. Human dignity should be placed above all considerations.

2. The administration should discharge its duties with a high sense of responsibility to the organization, its personnel, the community and students.

3. The potentialities of each employee should be exploited to the maximum and he should be helped to hold the position for which he is best fitted.

4. Confidential information should be kept in inviolable trust.

5. All recommendations should be based on truth and objectivity.

6. Administrators should discuss with employees all the matters affecting them vitally.

7. The interest of the staff and those of the management should be represented with full loyalty.

8. Every member of the organization should make himself as efficient as the job requires. He should maintain the highest standards of quality and quantity in his daily work. Encouragement should be given by the administration for training and education.
9. The over-all objective of personnel administration should be the just treatment of all who are served by the organization.

10. Personnel administration should be constantly developed and improved methods should be constantly adopted.

Pupil Personnel

Some counseling work has started in Indian schools. But its scope has not been adequately defined so this area is not fully developed. Some attempts are being made to start guidance and counseling. Various records are being devised to ascertain the aptitudes, interests and achievements of the students.

There can be no two opinions that sufficient scope exists for introducing a lot of things to improve the teaching and learning program. The program can help the students be more observant in their cultural life and restore the ancient Indian intimate relationship of teacher and pupil, with a stress on observation, thought, and the development of character.

The introduction of these activities is the role of the administrator. Pupils' welfare is the primary concern of the school. Therefore, this matter has to be considered in a systematic manner. Activities included within the operational area of pupil personnel embrace
those services to pupils that supplement regular classroom instruction. The major tasks to be introduced are:

**Pupil inventory and organization.** The administrator should determine the number of children who are of school age in a particular area or circle. This can be done by means of a school census, and by keeping enrollment and attendance data. It is usually necessary to count the number of pupils by grade level. With this information in hand the administrator is in a position to determine to what extent school rooms in the existing buildings will house the pupils in a particular zone. The enumeration of pupils furnishes one of the bases for determining new building needs. Enrollment data also furnishes the administrator with the best single index of teaching personnel needed by grades, by subject, by school and by attendance. It is necessary to know the characteristics of the students within each school. The identification of students with special problems requires the co-operation of teachers, parents, and specially trained personnel.

**Pupil personnel service.** In this sub-area there are many kinds of services which need special attention by the educational administrator. They include: (1) child study; (2) guidance; (3) test and measurement; (4) visiting teacher and social worker; (5) speech and hearing therapy; (6) medical aid and nursing; and (7) special education for the
physically handicapped, the emotionally disturbed, mental deviates and gifted children.

In order to make the pupil personnel service more effective specialized personnel should be recruited in each area.

Pupil personnel service and guidance service are used by most people in some sense. Peters and Farwell say,

...the term guidance services is sometimes used as synonymous with pupil personnel services or more often as a title for the services of the school counselor. In this latter context, guidance services include (1) the individual inventory service, (2) the information service, (3) the counseling service, (4) the placement service, and (5) the follow-up service.12

It may be suggested here that guidance services with all these five branches need to be set up in almost all the schools and the administrator should have special responsibility for achieving this goal. The secondary education commission report also stresses the problem of guidance:

It covers the whole gamut of youth problems and should be provided in an appropriate form at all stages of education through the cooperative endeavor of understanding of parents, teachers, headmasters, principals and guidance officers.13


Guidance should be considered by the administrator in the terms of a developmental approach. The inventory service for each pupil should be regarded as essential and the cumulative records and other necessary instruments should be maintained. These are: (1) cumulative record on longitudinal basis, (2) anecdotal record, (3) rating scale, (4) scattergram, (5) articulation report, (6) psychograph, (7) case-study record, (8) autobiography, (9) the diary, and (10) sociogram.

In this manner, other services should also be planned. While planning, the following ideas, expressed by Erickson and others, should be kept in mind:

1. Any service, whether new or old, needs the acceptance and leadership of the school administrator. Without his approval and continued support, any service will 'wither on the vine.' Teachers and pupils sense and frequently adopt the school administrator's attitude toward any service in the school...

2. The success of a service depends upon a state of readiness of the school staff to accept, contribute to, and utilize the service—success depends upon the co-operation of staff members.

On the basis of these principles, it is fair to say that guidance has a place in the total program of the school. It is concerned with all the children and it serves the needs of educational, vocational and social-personal

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purposes. Therefore, the top level administrator should be "responsible for the provision of time, space, staff, and money for the operation of this program at an effective level. This officer must be sensitive to the guidance point of view."  

School-Community Relations

School-community relations in India should be improved. A start has been made in this direction by the building principals and headmasters. It is essential that efficiency be achieved in education and that the many educational problems on all levels be solved. Administrators should encourage the community to co-operate and the schools should create a favorable climate for public participation.

The school-community relation should be established on the basis of creating intimate contact with the home and the members of the community. But the ultimate goal should be to improve the quality of education for the children and youth in a democracy. It has been "discovered that the citizen has an indispensable role in educational planning."  

Public relations should be based on communication between the school and community.

The main communication media for creating public

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15 Peters and Farwell, op. cit., p. 374.
16 Campbell and Ramseyer, op. cit., p. 149.
opinion is face-to-face conversations. Public opinions need to be developed to solve the problems which the schools have to face.

"Only as lay citizens and professional school people work together can public education become and remain what it ought to be."17 This principle holds good in the case of Indian schools also. It is important for educational administration in India to develop this aspect of the administrator's job. Public consciousness relating to their rights and duties has to be aroused since decisions regarding what the school ought to be are matters in which the lay citizen cannot be ignored.

Educational administration in India needs to take stock of the whole complex of elements which create a good institution. Such factors as physical setting, population characteristics, business life, organized associations, and economic life should be taken into consideration by the administrator while planning for school-community relations. It is imperative for an administrator to acquaint himself with the cultural milieu, traditional background, religious beliefs and thinking pattern of the people.

In the whole question of citizen's participation in educational planning the school administrator has a unique role. In the first place citizen's participation is

17 Ibid., p. 149.
a travesty unless many citizens, or at least representatives of all segments of the community, are involved...the 'how' of school operation is a matter of technical competence.18

The above excerpt provides a lead for the educational administrator in India in determining to what extent public participation is desirable. Public participation is needed at all levels: national, state, county, school district, the school building, and even single school room. Thus the position is made clear. Administration has a definite line of action.

**Supervision and Inspection**

Supervision plays an important part in the job of administrator. Inspection of schools has become an integral part of administration. Every administrator is supposed to supervise his school and make certain comments, without advancing sufficient arguments and suggestions for improving the teaching programs and other activities of the school. Such an attitude in supervision has brought a conventional and casual relationship between the teacher and the supervisors. In the words of the Secondary Education Commission:

The present system of inspection of schools was subjected to criticism by several witnesses. It was pointed out that inspections were perfunctory, that the time spent by the Inspector at any particular place was insufficient, that the greater part of this time was taken up with routine work

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18 Ibid., p. 156.
like checking accounts and looking into the administrative aspects of the school. There was not enough time devoted to the academic side, and contacts between the Inspectors and teachers were casual... It occasionally happened that the Inspector instead of being "the friend, philosopher and guide" of the school behaved in such a critical and unsympathetic way that his visit was looked upon with some degree of apprehension, if not resentment. In our view the true role of an Inspector for whom we would prefer the term Educational Adviser—is to study the problem of each school, to take a comprehensive view of all its functions and to help the teachers to carry out his advice and recommendations. We also recommend that for special subjects like physical education, domestic science, art, music, etc., there should be attached to the Director's office certain experts in these subjects who will inspect the different schools periodically and help in improving standards of teaching.19

Supervision principles should include human relationship. The job of an administrator as a supervisor should be considered in such a perspective. He should tackle the problem of education with resourcefulness and adequate planning, with judicious consideration for scientific methods and techniques, and with vision and imagination for the needs of the child and the community. The central purpose of supervision should be to improve the teaching and learning program. This program should be directed toward the growth of critical, constructive and reflective thought in the teacher and through him in the pupil. Inspection, at most, should play a minor role.

The most important purpose of supervision should be the development of the child. Supervision should be so organized and administered that the growth of the pupils can be ensured mentally, physically, morally and spiritually. To do this teaching needs improvement. Supervision should help teachers orientate themselves to new methods and techniques. Supervision should include the following activities: (a) an appraisal of the educational product, (b) a study of the learner; diagnosis of learning difficulties, (c) a study of instruction and its method, (d) a study of the curriculum in operation, and (e) a study of the materials of instruction, including the socio-physical environment. The following observation, made by H. Burton, regarding supervision is significant for Indian education:

1. Supervision in the new school studies improve the total teaching-learning situation.

2. Supervision in the new school invites the participation of the whole staff including teachers.

3. Supervision in the new school provides for the whole staff, freedom in true sense.

4. Supervision in the new school directs attention to the fundamentals of education and orients learning within the general aim of education.

5. Supervision in the new school substitutes leadership for authority.

6. The new supervision combines respect for personality with respect for facts.

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Educational administration in India should take into consideration the basic principles of supervision. It should evolve some fundamentals helpful to the teacher and supervisor. In India, at present, inspection of instructional programs is an integral part of supervision. This is a valid objective, but it should be conducted with the aim of—

1. Helping teachers as individuals and as groups with their instructional problems.
2. Co-ordinating the total instructional effort into a well-balanced program.
3. Providing proper conditions for the continuous in-service growth of teachers, supervisors and administrators.
4. Developing proper and adequate instructional materials.

The procedures to be adopted in supervision should be in keeping with the objectives and purposes. The procedures should be planned on the following basis: (1) through group leadership, (2) by respecting the individual and his opinion, (3) by securing help from all members of the group, (4) by providing opportunities for the co-operative formulation of policies and plans, (5) by adhering to sound principles of supervision, (6) by helping the group obtain as complete and accurate a picture of the
schools and their problems as possible, and (7) by including teachers, pupils and parents in the schemes for solving the problems.

These procedures are supported by Adams as follows:

Good supervisors know that group success depends upon action in which every member feels he has a part and in which he participates to the fullest extent. Leadership is not merely a matter of making teachers feel they have a part. Rather its dynamic elements include cooperation, freedom of action and expression, experimentation, understanding, mutual acceptance and willingness of individual to accept and support the judgment of the group in preference to his own.21

Some of the specific jobs in supervision should be these:

1. Demonstration of teaching techniques.
2. Helping to organize a guidance program.
3. Holding conferences with teachers, principles, and other supervisory groups.
4. Attending and contributing to faculty meetings.
5. Giving leadership in the establishment of testing and evaluation program.
6. Helping with the establishment of curriculum policies in the school.
7. Improving school-community relationship.
8. Setting up or participating in workshops and conferences for teachers.

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9. Trying to keep teachers supplies with up-to-date materials.
10. Making surveys of the conditions and needs for instructional materials or equipment in the school.

3. **How Should Leadership in Educational Administration be Developed in India?**

An administrator in education is a leader of a group. He is a leader only in terms of his functional relationship to the group. Therefore, the part he plays in influencing the total behavior of the group defines him as a leader. He is a leader not merely because he is intelligent, skillful, or original, but because his intelligence, skill or originality are means of influencing the group members.

History reveals that educational leadership, if any at all existed in ancient times in India, was bureaucratic in nature. It was based on rule of thumb or the principles of autocracy. Democratic leadership could not be developed. Autocracy was designed only to maintain discipline and order among the various ranks and files. Good human relationships were lacking, and the free flow of communication, the expression of public opinion, and participation of all the members in planning and decision-making were denied or
obstructed. There was no administrative process to inspire and influence the people and members of the faculty.

The administrative leadership at all levels, including national, state, divisional, district and local levels, should be better grounded in the theories and principles of organization and administration. The writer agrees in this respect with the view that "the really professionally competent school executive, by reason of the completeness of his education in organization and administration ought to be able to keep his sense of direction in the midst of present confusions and contradictions..."  

The nation has a great stake in the education of all children and has to develop leadership among the people at all levels to consolidate democracy. The nature of education, as well as theories of educational leadership, administration and organization, require that there should be equitable distribution of functions and responsibilities of the executives of the different echelons. There should be decentralization of most activities. Local control, home rule and local initiative should be encouraged to the maximum. At the same time some centralization at national and state level is also not altogether ruled out. Educational leadership at various levels needs to be geared

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to the changing situation of the country. The following

describes the leader's task:

In short, the effective leader is one who
delineates clearly the relationships between
himself and the members of the group, and
establishes well-defined patterns of organi-
zation, channels of communication, and ways
of getting the job done, and whose behavior
at the same time reflects friendship, mutual
trust, respect and warmth in the relation-
ships between himself and the members of
the group.23

Educational leadership has to be made more effective;
this can be done by establishing close relationships, im-
proving the organizational pattern, creating confidence
among all the members of staff and, above all, by efficient
training in educational administration. Leadership behavior
has to be inspired.

Various studies have been made on leadership in
America. Several important ones are The Ohio State Uni-
versity School-Community Development studies, the Southern
States Co-operative Program in Educational Administration,
the North Carolina Co-operative Project for School Improve-
ment and Leadership Development, and Halpin's Study of
Ohio Superintendents. In spite of differences, there are
similarities in the studies. It should be noted that the
most important common element is the emphasis on human
relations. The writer feels that educational leadership

23 Andrew W. Halpin, The Leader Behavior of School
Superintendents, SCDS Series (Columbus, Ohio: College of
Education, The Ohio State University, 1956), p. 79.
in India can also be progressive if this factor is taken into consideration. The worth and dignity of the individual are the basic tenets of democracy.

Halpin's classification of an administrator's behavior according to two dimensions, initiating structure and consideration, offer a clue for leadership behavior in India also. At the same time educational leadership in India should take the following factors into consideration:

1. Leadership is directed toward changing the behavior of people. Changes in people's behavior are manifestations of changes in their goals, perceptions, understandings, insights, values, beliefs, motivations, interrelationships, habits and/or skills. In bringing about a change in the behavior of people, leadership alters one or more of these factors.

2. Leadership is a function of the interaction among individuals and groups.

3. The quality of the interaction of persons in a group may be recognized by the initiative, originality, communicativeness, empathy, understanding, morale, and performance which they exhibit.

4. Leadership is not necessarily related to status or position. In fact, status assignments may

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Ibid., p.
either enhance or reduce one's effectiveness as a leader. Such assignments place individuals in group situations where their behavior is more readily perceived by others. This makes leadership easier for some, more difficult for others.

5. Normal people at all levels of the hierarchical structure of an organization, institution or society have some capacity for leadership, and possibly exhibit such behavior at some time and under certain circumstances.

6. The effectiveness of leadership behavior is measured in terms of productivity (achievement of accepted goals), maintenance of group solidarity, and a manifestation of the fact that group members are growing more proficient both individually and collectively.²⁵

Preparation of Educational Administrators in India

Educational administration is a technical subject. Nobody should think of becoming an administrator in the school system unless he receives training in educational administration. From the task he has to perform, it appears clear that the administrator has to be a professional leader as well as an instructional leader. He has to give advice

²⁵ Campbell, et al., op. cit., p. 171.
and guidance, and make suggestions to the group working in the school system. He has to plan for and make decisions on educational matters. After decision-making, he has to program and stimulate the personnel. Then he has to co-ordinate all the members and resources for successful performance. Finally, he must evaluate the results.

These processes show that an administrator has to be conversant with the principles and practices of the educational system in which he works. Without a sufficient knowledge of the technique and concepts of education, it is very difficult to do full justice to his various tasks. Thus it is clear that educational administrators need special training. In America, nobody can think of holding a job as a chief executive, or to hold any administrative rank in an educational institution without proper and adequate training in educational administration. A number of universities offer courses in educational administration on the graduate level. The principals of elementary and secondary schools, the supervisors, directors, assistant superintendents and superintendents are required to take these courses. Similarly, it is desirable in India also that administrators of every rank in education should have a thorough training in educational administration. For this purpose comprehensive planning is needed. Since the details of a program should be arrived at through co-operative
planning, it will not be feasible to develop them here. It cannot be said that one particular kind of educational background will automatically provide a person with the necessary prerequisites for educational administration. But certain educational patterns will prove more helpful than others. On this assumption, it is possible to suggest what is expected of an educational administrator in India.

The Philosophy and Goals of a Training Program

A training program for preparation in educational administration should be planned on fundamental principles. These principles should specify a broad philosophy and goal, the type of people to be selected and trained for the administrative jobs, the nature of the curriculum and activities and the duration of training. It is clear that the rationale and concept of educational administration implies that not everybody can be an administrator in education. A statement developed at The Ohio State University of competencies\(^\text{26}\) needed by school administrators included several competencies such as the following that should be possessed by Indian students before they are permitted to enter into administrative training:

1. Understandings, attitudes and skills resulting from an adequate general education.

\(^{26}\) Campbell, et al., op. cit., p. 275.
2. An understanding of the role of the school in the social order.

3. An understanding of the instructional program and skills in curriculum development.

4. An ability and a disposition to apply sound problem-solving procedures.

5. An ability to understand one's own motivation and how it affects his way of working with other people.

When a decision has been made and a student enters a graduate program to begin his formal preparation for educational administration, it is to be hoped that many of the required competencies are already developed, if not fully then at least partially. The advanced program should enhance and continue the development. There are, in addition, a number of technical skills peculiar to educational administration which need to be developed during this period. While it can be noted that certain physical and personal attributes contribute to competency in educational administration, the profession also requires that its practitioners possess a body of basic knowledge and skills pertinent to the profession.

Through administrative training

...the student should be expected to develop competency in the technical aspects of school administration, in the use of sound problem-solving or research procedures in dealing with administrative concerns, and in the process of administration itself... Finally, the potential administration needs to gain
through his graduate program a conviction that he wants to be an educational administrator and that this desire is based on a well-founded analysis of his own strengths and weaknesses.27

A rich background of experiences is a great asset for an educational administration. Experience can lead to competency only through mental activity. But one has to be careful about experiences; in the words of Dewey, "experience and education cannot be directly equated to each other for some experiences are mis-educative."28

An adequate training in educational administration is greatly needed for the improvement of educational programs in India. This program has to be envisioned consistently with the existing physical, material, intellectual, cultural and historical conditions of the country. Before developing the program, the following concepts should be considered:

1. The training program should proceed in the light of a real understanding of the social, economic and political factors operating in the community, national and world.

2. Educational administration is related to people, as individuals and as groups. It should reflect the practices and values of democracy, accepting

27 Ibid., pp. 275-276.

both the freedoms and responsibilities involved.

3. Educational administration should develop in administrators an appreciation for people of different cultural, racial, religious, economic and national background and teaches him to accord them equal opportunity.

4. Educational administration should develop in administrators the ability and responsibility for planning, guiding, and evaluating their own education and the education of others.

5. Educational administration should develop sufficient understanding of the activities and agencies of local communities and a working knowledge of the principles governing the formation and functioning of social groups.

6. Educational administration should create in administrators a desire to understand the purposes, the development of programs, the financial support and the organization of educational activities.

7. Educational administration should be based on the consideration that the administrator himself acquire a teaching competence, in both knowledge and skills, in an academic subject.

8. For the purpose of attaining efficiency and quality in education, the development of a plan
that is national in conception is imperative. So the recruitment and admission of smaller numbers of candidates of a consistently higher quality should be the important national goal.

9. The development of program to improve both pre-service and in-service training should be the main purpose and objective underlying a training program in educational administration.

10. The training should encompass the total professional program, section of educational goals, curriculum design, teaching content, staff utilization, instructional methodology and follow-up activities.

11. Preparatory programs should be designed to recruit into school administration a greater share of those persons in society who have outstanding intellectual talents and capacity to become perceptive generalists to see the inter-relationships of specializations clearly.

12. Unless more systematic and effective plans for recruiting and educating school leaders are developed and implemented, other professions will swallow up an even greater proportion of intellectual and leadership talent than they have in the past.
13. The curriculum of the educational administration training programs should be intellectually rigorous, systematically conceived, broadly based and essentially relevant to educational administration. It should include the social sciences and humanities to develop perception regarding social change, morale building, decision-making, communication and values that impinge upon the determination of educational goals.

14. Programs should interrelate theoretical learnings and field experiences. This can be made possible through internships, laboratory work, field work and the case method.

15. Programs should contain instructional methodologies which should be carefully designed to achieve explicit training goals. Systematic experimentation is needed to determine the most effective instructional methods.

Objectives of the Training Program

1. According to the American Association of School Administrators' Yearbook 1960, the first objective

29 Professional Administrators for America's Schools, Thirty-eighth Yearbook, 1960, p. 175.
of the training programs should be to prepare the administrator-to-be to handle the technical aspects of his job with effectiveness and efficiency.

2. Technical skills have to be mastered by the prospective school administrators.

3. A preparation program should develop proficiencies in handling people.

4. The school administrator who is proficient in both the human and the technical skills could still fail if he is deficient in a third category, the conceptual skills. So the conceptual skills have to be acquired. The conceptual skills are characterized by activities leading to (a) an adequate functional knowledge in each of the major areas of the curriculum, (b) a thorough grounding in all of the services required in a program of modern education, (c) an understanding of the social order in which schools operate, (d) an understanding of the psychological make-up of children, youth and adults with whom school leaders come into contact, and (e) a strong and consistent philosophical basis for action.
Guidelines to Curriculum Planning for the Development of Educational Administration

1. There should be an integrated program covering most of the tasks discussed in Chapter IV. The other point of view suggested is to interrelate broad areas around the core as a tridimensional concept of man, job and social setting.

2. The training program should be concerned not only with operational matters but also with the theory and practice of administration.

3. The course should provide adequate guided field experiences with opportunity for the student to be acquainted with the problems of administration under the joint guidance of the teacher and practicing administrators.

4. The program should provide lee-way for training in research for the student administrator.

5. The program should encourage study in other areas of education and related disciplines.

6. The program should include opportunity for the extension of general education.

7. The program preparing the school administrator should be based upon a minimum of two years' training in educational technique, methods of education, and social science and administration, research, school law and others.
8. The program should be built around both the current and long-range needs of the practicing administrators.

9. The program should be kept flexible and adaptable, while maintaining a sense of direction.

10. The administrators in service should share in planning the curriculum.

11. There should be a plan for involving many groups in the development of curriculum.

12. It should be determined whom the curriculum will serve.

13. Revision of the curriculum should follow a gradual process preceded by an evaluation.

Concepts Behind the Formulation of Courses

The prospective school administrator's work should carry him into more penetrating studies of the content and processes of the job. Following are some of the content emphasis that may give new tone to the program.

Administrative skills. Preparation for educational administration in administrative skills includes leading discussions, organizing programs, accounting for funds, making budgets, studying communities and explaining ideas to a group.
Instruction. The prospective administrator should have a thorough grounding in the processes of formulating objectives, building curricula, improving instruction, and evaluating outcomes. The internship and apprenticeship programs should assist in acquiring instructional leadership.

Group Process. A successful school administration is largely a matter of working effectively with groups. This work should make a significant impact on the preparation program. "Through sociometric measures and other analytical devices used by the group to study its own composition and dynamics, students become impressed with the possibilities of using scientific procedure in improving the effectiveness of groups."\(^{30}\) Such techniques as role playing, brainstorming, buzz sessions, demonstration and a study of process itself should form the basis of the curriculum.

The community. Contact with the realities of socio-economic class and power structures, formal organizations, informal associations, communication networks, and role expectations, together with the relationships among these variables, are significant factors governing the administration of the school system.

Decision-making. Good school administration is, to a great extent, a process of making good decisions. The process

\(^{30}\) American Association of School Administrators, op. cit., p. 183.
of decision-making is essentially the process of problem-solving. It involves defining the problem, gathering information or data, setting forth the various possible solutions and testing each one, selecting the best solution, putting it into effect and then evaluating it. So decision-centered activities and case discussion, in-basket exercises and on-the-job learning are important methods in this respect.

**Human relations.** Motivations and incentives are important in the performance of school personnel. The human-relations approach can create a climate favorable for keeping up morale.

**Theory.** Theory makes its presence felt not only in new content but also in a new approach to the study and practice of administration. The program should attempt first to develop clear understanding of the meaning of the term "theory" and then set out to equip prospective administrators with good theory.

**Content in Preparatory Programs**

With the vast amount of knowledge that has relevance to administration, it is difficult to determine priorities in content. Culbertson holds the view that "to establish an appropriate balance and relationship among the various types of content is equally significant." The following outline of content is suggested for the training program of school administrators in India.

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1. **Process aspects of school administration.** (a) Decision making, (b) communication, (c) coping with change and, (d) building morale may be included in this subject.

2. **Policy aspects of school administration.** (a) Economic concepts, (b) political concepts and (c) sociological concepts should form parts of this subject.

3. **Technical aspects of school administration.** (a) school finance, (b) student personnel administration, (c) staff personnel administration, (d) curriculum construction, (e) schools housing, (f) business management, (g) school law, (h) school-community relations, (i) learning theories and instructional methodology should be taught in this subject.

**In-service Training**

In-service training of the practicing administrator is as significant as the pre-service training already discussed. In-service training is in great need in India. School administrators at various levels need orientation for all-around growth.

In-service training consists of those experiences which result in the personal, social, academic and professional growth of the individual administrator. Therefore,
careful planning is required to equip all the practicing administrators with new ideas, trends, issues, and research in education organization and administration.

In-service education should form an integral part of the school system's program. Adequate financial and time provisions should be made for this purpose. It should be noted that free inquiry, free discussion and co-operative efforts should characterize high level in-service education. A program of in-service education should include activities in which the individual administrator has to participate. The program should clearly state that learning is a process that goes on within individuals. It has to be related to the modification of behavior. The importance of in-service activities should be determined in relation to individual and group functions. The importance and necessity of in-service training is revealed in the following statement:

Today it is universally recognized that new discoveries are being made in the field of education the same as in medicine, engineering and other fields. Technological improvements, social changes, international developments and greater insights into human growth create new and perplexing problems for the schools.32

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32 Chandler, op. cit., p. 182.
The In-service Program

1. **Workshops.** One of the most widespread programs for professional growth is the workshop. It is an effective procedure for in-service education. It is the modern counterpart of institutes, clinics or working conferences.

2. **Seminars.** They are stimulating and purposeful. They proceed with deliberation.

3. **Professional conferences.** Certain national, regional and state conventions and conferences are helpful. There should be arrangements for the administrators to attend these conferences.

4. **Individual conferences.** They are held on an individual basis. They are also helpful in discussing problems. They should be based on definite purposes and objectives.

5. **Research and experimentation.** Research is occupied methods of improving talent and scholarship.

6. **Professional study.** This program can be set up in two ways: (1) individual reading and (2) summer school or regular sessions, extension and correspondence courses.

7. **Observation and visitation.** Observation and visitation of some significant experimental programs can contribute significantly to professional growth and improvement.
8. **Professional writing.** It leads the administrator to grow and create a favorable climate to think, explore and organize.

9. **Discussions, forums, and symposiums.** They help the administrators get acquainted with new ideas, new practices and principles. They contribute to the profession through participation, exploration and definite results.

10. **The case method, the simulation method, field experiences, evaluation methods and internships** should also be adopted for in-service training.

**The Characteristics of the Model Program**

A type of preparation program which would be required to develop the technical, human, and conceptual skills, even to a minimum level of adequacy, would have these general characteristics.

1. At least a two-year training program would be necessary, assuming that the individual already had strong foundations in the social sciences, the natural and physical sciences, the communication arts, philosophy and one or more of the fine arts.

2. The program should be designed for selected individuals.
3. The necessary resources, both human and material, should include a strong faculty with demonstrated competencies in scholarly pursuits, in teaching, and in the practice of educational administration, together with adequate libraries, laboratories, material centers and space for classrooms and offices.
CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND IMPLEMENTATION

Summary

The problem—developing principles and practices of educational administration in India—was selected for investigation. The solution of this problem is of special importance for India today because it is in the stage of planning and reconstructing its educational program. The schools are rapidly expanding. The philosophy, purpose, goals, objectives of this educational program are being defined in terms of the learner and society, and a new curriculum is being devised and tested. In short, organismic approach has been applied to education theory and new methods have been tried inside and outside the classroom.

The success of all these educational developments are dependent on scientific principles of administration. Educational administration in India developed in accordance to the whims of past rulers rather than on the merit of educational principles. Now it is felt that educational administration is in urgent need of developing a set of principles in consonance with educational aims, and these principles have to be implemented to produce a better educational system.
On the assumption that educational administration in India requires a new philosophy, new goals, a new methodology and evaluation, this thesis has been written to suggest ways and means of promoting scientific principles and practices in educational administration. The research has been conducted in the American system of education, with a view to exploring certain principles which give direction to all democratic administrative practices. The study in no way recommends a wholesale transplantation of ideologies, practices and policies that have been developed in America. Rather, these principles and practices suggest what aspects of educational administration in India, in her own cultural background and tradition, can be improved by some innovations or total reformation. The study of educational administration in America, of course, provides certain clear-cut guidelines, specific purposes, and well-defined tasks of educational leadership, which are of great help to the writer in suggesting solutions to the problem under investigation.

An analysis of educational administration in India from the past to the present reveals that the duties and responsibilities of the administrators are vast. But these duties have not been classified in a systematic way, as they have been in America. Moreover, there is a difference in the techniques and methods of performing the job of fulfilling administrative responsibilities in the two countries.
The American system of educational administration has been evolved by the educators, the community, governmental agencies and various professional agencies, such as the American Association of School Administration and University Council for Educational Administration, the Co-operative Program in Educational Administration, and the National Conference for Professors of Educational Administration. Principles and practices have tended to develop consistently with the educational needs of the child and the community. Moreover, the basic administrative policies emanate from democratic principles. Thus educational administration in America has established its own tradition, and is still in the making, the organizational structure, decentralization, delegation of authority, and other factors in educational administration, are the results of historical and cultural growth.

In this study the cultural growth of India during different ages, dating from the Vedic period, some five thousand years ago, to the present time, has been traced. The cultural impact has a special bearing on the relationship to the resolution of such a problem. In the assimilation and accommodation of different cultures that emerged in the country, one finds that the learning and educative process of the ancient Vedic and Buddhist periods prevailed. Furthermore, even in cases where Indian culture had to face turmoil and upheaval, originating in external sources, the best features of culture have survived. Muslims and English
people brought with them their own religion, language, art and cultural patterns, but Indian education could not be altogether deflected from its fixed path. Of course, some influences of vital significance were manifest in the introduction of such foreign languages as Persian, Arabic and English. But Sanskrit and other Indian languages, as well as Indian philosophy, music, and art, which constitute the inner sentiments and are the voice of an individual's thoughts, kept a position in the culture of the country.

Thus, cultural background had an influence upon education and upon educational administration. Administration was organized to enforce law and order rather than to formulate educational policies in a logical way. Administrative practices could not be based on educational philosophy and the theory of learning but were regarded as a segment of the general administration.

Since India achieved independence from Great Britain, in 1947, it has become an obligation of the democracy to bring a substantial change in the present system of education at all levels. The problem has been how and in what way can changes be brought about. Who should plan it? What should be the philosophy, goals, curriculum, methodology, and evaluative criteria? These topics, which are purely academic, deal with educational techniques, policies and
ideologies, psychological principles of learning and pedagogy. Only educators who are responsible for the education of the society can have a final say in the matter. As education became technical and specialized, it was assumed that the laymen were not capable of determining educational policy.

Educational reforms can be achieved in India through a change in the school administration program. What does this change in administration mean? A change in administration does not necessarily mean upsetting the whole organizational pattern. Rather, it might become a consideration of new techniques and policies that can be introduced to make the administrative machinery more effective, more perceptive of human relationships, and more democratic in procedures and processes.

The study has been made in a different culture and is a piece of historical research. The method followed is philosophical and descriptive. For the purpose of collecting data the writer had to tap various sources, such as the Library of Congress at Washington, D.C.; the Library of the India Embassy; the Library of Teachers' College; Columbia University; The Ohio State University Library, and others. In order to process the data, many government reports, published by the India Government, were read or looked into. Experts in educational administration in the National Education Association and the United States Department of
Health, Education, and Welfare were contacted and interviewed. And conferences, from time to time, with the members of the committee, helped in unifying the ideas and thus the chapters of this study.

In order to tackle the problems, the thesis was divided into six chapters. The first chapter was devoted to an analysis of the problem and presents the background. The second chapter relates the different phases of administrative growth, with various sub-problems and issues limited under the main problem, which is "Developing principles and practices for educational administration in India." The third chapter depicts the cultural background of India. It is based on the assumption that principles and practices in educational administration should be developed in keeping with the various peculiarities and characteristics of Indian culture. The main feature of education in ancient India has been characterized by recounting the cultural growth of the period. Education was an integral part of the culture. The distinctive tendency of Hindu thought in ancient India was more manifest in learning and education. Education was mainly devoted to preserving religious principles and attitudes. It was imparted through oral learning through teachers, outside the home and family life. Educational philosophy in the Vedic period was guided by a spiritual outlook.

The fourth chapter describes certain fundamentals
educational administration in America. It has a bearing on the thesis. This country has made great headway on this subject in writing and research. So for any educational administrator, this section can provide systematic guidelines and clues which are universally applicable. In the fifth chapter a model for educational administration was suggested. The model is based on the resolution of various problems and issues emerging in Chapter II. The sixth chapter is the final one, and contains a summary, the conclusions, and recommendations.

**Conclusions**

1. Indian philosophy during the Vedic and Buddhist period was deep, thoughtful and rich, and enhanced the spiritual culture of the people. With the impact of science and the growth of the materialistic outlook, its significance and importance have dwindled. The altruism that was developed in education has ceased to exist. The present system of education has to take stock of this philosophy of the past which has conditioned Indian culture which aims at the growth of spiritualism and materialism hand-in-hand.

2. Education in the Hindu period was an integral part of cultural life. Its purpose was the enrichment of life. Its objective was mental, physical and spiritual growth. States made no provision for education. Parents had to undertake the responsibility of educating their children.
The children were sent to live in the home of a teacher and their education consisted of recitation and practical training.

Education during the Muslim period was not altogether divorced from the past culture, but it passed through assimilative and accommodative processes. As a result, different languages apart from Sanskrit, such as Persian, Arabic, Urdu and Hindi appeared. Education began to be formally organized in 'Maktab' and 'Madrassah.' Royal patronage on a small scale began then, but there was no control in any form by the state over education. Education during the Muslim period was dominated by religious sentiment as it was during the Hindu period.

3. Education during the British period was influenced by Western culture. The English language was introduced. The state began to take an interest in the education, although not on a mass scale. Elementary, secondary, higher and adult education made their appearance. An education department of the Indian Government was established. Provisions began to be made in the budget for educational purposes. The Department was manned by officers for administration and supervision. Emphasis was placed upon scientific and industrial subjects. It brought a new outlook in the study of the ancient culture. Acquaintance with Western philosophy, modern democracy, the Western system of law, science and its positive contributions, and
most of the concepts of the present system of administration are legacies of English education.

4. Educational administration during the Hindu and Muslim periods was very crude. The students, teachers, the members of the family and the public participated. It appears that the administration of states never interfered with the educational system. This means that the teachers enjoyed full autonomy in constructing curricula, although they did so without any explicit philosophy and goal other than education for life's sake.

5. Teachers, who were also the administrators of the schools during this period, enjoyed unquestioned authority and high social reputation. Their devotion to teaching and learning was exclusively for the sake of education, and not for money. The sense of sacrifice and love of scholarship created a spiritual climate which influenced the people to consider education and the school sacred.

6. Educational administration in India needs a clear statement of objectives that are in consonance with the educational policy of the country.

7. Educational administration in India requires that educators should play a vital role in the formulation of policies.

8. In the face of reconstruction of the country and expanding programs of education, it is desirable that administrative structure be expanded and organized more on a
'staff' basis so that more fresh ideas and knowledge may flow into educational channels.

9. Educational administration in India should seek a more promising balance for educational administrators between the dimensions of initiating structure and consideration.

10. Educational administration in India has manifold tasks, but they may be included in seven broad areas (a) curriculum and instruction, (b) school-community relationships, (c) staff personnel, (d) pupil personnel, (e) school finances, (f) physical facilities, and (g) management and organization. Tasks in each area have to be specifically analyzed and performed by the administrators.

11. Educational leadership in India is more or less of the managerial type. The hierarchy is pyramidal. Human relationships on different echelon levels have not developed to the extent desirable.

12. A study of the American system of educational administration provides evidence that educational administration is a specialized job. It is based on the educational concepts of teaching and learning; it has several tasks which can be performed under different situations by different processes; it seeks the participation of administrators, teachers, students and public. Administrators get special training in various phases of education, administrative policy,
concepts of organization, decision-making principles, practices and theory; it requires competencies which will make the administration more democratic.

13. Educational administration in India has to develop group morale and solidarity in the performance of jobs if group achievement and group maintenance are to be realized. Many studies in American school administration suggest that the expectations of members of a group are varied and often conflicting. Educational administrators should know what these expectations are. Creativity, experimentation and expression of individual skill and talent are encouraged in the group members by school leaders.

14. An administrator in the American school system is a man of general knowledge, a staff leader, a coordinator, a resource person, an organizer, a communicator and an instructional leader.

15. Teachers as well as administrators in America are growing. An adequate program of in-service education provides growth opportunity for both. The rapidly changing industrial, political and social character of the society amply proves that acquiring knowledge is necessary to become and continue to be a good teacher and an educational leader.

16. Indians believe that a good system of education, based on the culture and environmental situation of the
country, can safeguard the newly achieved democracy; hence the administration of education has to be more effective, flexible and dynamic.

17. In India the curriculum needs to be developed co-operatively by the administrators, teachers, students and community.

18. Universal education at the elementary level is the goal of the country. It will take time to achieve the goal. But other segments of society cannot remain ignored. For this purpose the scheme of social education—education for adults—has been launched. But the concept and purpose and agencies of social education programs need to be clearly defined.

19. Education in India at the elementary stage has been reformed into Basic Education which is based on an experience-centered, problem-centered and child-centered curriculum. At the secondary stage changes are being introduced to convert the existing traditional high schools into multi-purpose or multi-lateral high schools.

20. The guidance program is in the initial stage. It is not a constituent of general educational administration.

21. Examinations are traditional and conventional. They aim at testing mental achievement only. Other facts of personality—skills, interests, aptitudes, co-operativeness, sociability, reflectiveness—are ignored.
22. Indian schools have not established deep relationships with the community in spite of the fact that most of the high schools are managed by the people. There is lack of contact between the schools and various social and governmental agencies. Parent-Teacher Associations have not been established to arouse the interests of parents in the programs of schools. Managing committees are more conscious of their rights than their responsibilities.

23. Education in India is in the stage of expansion and development; and co-operation and co-ordination among various governmental and non-governmental agencies are desirable to facilitate this expansion and development.

24. Private agencies and foundations have greatly accelerated the development of American education; they are helping in the research program of educational administration also.

25. In its training program, India has no institution offering specialized courses in educational administration. Therefore, administrators are selected from among persons trained in the general curriculum of training institutions. The other method of getting administrators is through promotion on the basis of seniority from among the teachers and inspectors.

26. Teachers in India need more training both in general, professional and specialized education. Their financial and social status are not compatible with the job they perform.
27. Until very recently educational planning and financial planning were done separately. There was not much relationship between the two. This means that educational plans had to be accommodated to available funds. This condition can no longer obtain if quality education is to become manifest throughout the country.

28. A social education program has been introduced in India for the adults. But social educators are not sufficiently trained in the philosophy, objectives, learning principles, curricula, methodology and evaluation of social education. Social building and plants in India require more planning in terms of educational requirements. There is a lack of physical facilities and equipment.

**Recommendations**

**Administration and Organization**

1. It is recommended that concepts of educational administration in India should be based on the programs of teaching and learning. Educational administration should be considered a specialized job and not a component of general administration. For this purpose administrators at all levels should be prepared by a well-planned training program.

2. It is recommended that in every state of India there should be at least one training college especially
designed for the preparation of school administrators. The training college should be fully staffed by specialists and generalists. The training program should cover both pre-service and in-service education. The prospective administrators should be selected on competency from outside of and from the existing teaching staff. Selection should be in the lowest rank in the echelon. The pre-service course should entail a minimum of two years study. In-service courses should be of six months duration. In both cases there should be a judicious estimation of the school administrator's qualities.

It is recommended that educators be actively associated in policy-making and decision-making. Possibly conferences, discussion groups, interviews and face-to-face relationships should be encouraged to achieve this end.

4. It is recommended that in the administration a large number of posts for specialists be created. They should be planned not on a line but rather on a staff basis. These posts should be created in the interests of education, and should have the titles, Director of Curriculum, Director of Guidance, Director of Evaluation and Examination, Director of Technical Education, Director of Planning, Director of Textbooks, and so on. They should play advisory roles in the formulation of administrative policies.

5. It is recommended that the Director of Public Instruction be considered the head of the department in
principle as well as practice. It means that in policy-making and decision-making, he should be directly responsible to the Minister of Education.

6. It is recommended that educational administration strike a balance between the dimensions of initiating structure and consideration. This means that the human relationship aspect should be one of the positive factors in keeping up the morale of the staff. The flow of communication should be facilitated vertically and horizontally.

7. It is recommended that the administrative organization be more compact through more co-ordination in functions, activities, interests, and assignments necessary for the successful accomplishment of results. Assignments of individual responsibilities should be based on work loads, individual capacity, interests and homogeneity of tasks. Co-ordination and co-operation should be obtained by appropriate division of work and delegation of responsibilities.

8. It is recommended that policies, goals and programs be defined through the planning process. Decisions should be made concerning them by the whole organization through group process, then by the leader, and finally by the senior authority (the Minister of Education).

9. It is recommended that group dynamics be followed at school, circle, district, division and state levels.
These groups should consist of laymen, teachers, principals, headmasters and other administrators. Decisions made at circle levels should be considered by the groups at district levels, and so on and so forth. The final decision should rest with the Minister of Education, on the recommendation of the head of the Department of Education.

10. It is recommended that teachers and administrators at circle levels be responsible to the administrators of schools at sub-divisional and district levels. Administrators at district levels should be responsible to divisional officers, who should be answerable to the head of the department.

11. It is recommended that educational administration be considered a complete unit in itself. In no case should it be tied at any level with the general political administration. Educational administration should not be considered a non-technical subject. In this respect, it is felt that some of the spirit of the American system of educational administration should be introduced in India by entrusting the educators with the execution of administration from top to bottom. Only in policy-making should the co-operation of the public as members of the board be sought; similarly, policy-making in India should be a co-operative matter.

12. It is recommended that the co-operation of officers of different departments at various levels be
sought. For this purpose, they should be included in the advisory committees and their resources, contributions and assistance should be appreciated by the committee.

13. It is recommended that educational administration have the same status as other administrations. For instance, the sub-divisional education officer, district education officer, deputy director of education and director of public instruction should be regarded as having the same status as the sub-divisional officer, district officer, commissioner and secretary in the general administration. Of course, their jurisdictions are different, so their responsibilities should be different. One may co-operate with the other, but the exercise of duties, in no case should the general administration override the head of the education department. The British policy of placing a general administrator without technical training over the head of the educational administrator is inappropriate for a democracy, which needs decentralization. "One executive can only deal effectively with a limited number of persons. Business and military organizations have long recognized this principle. It is also applicable to educational organizations."

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14. It is recommended that the Indian educational system create a committee structure in every school for the development of policies and programs. The committee should function under executive leadership.

15. It is recommended that training in education develop initiative, insight, co-operation, originality, persistence, emotional stability, judgment, popularity and communication skills in educational leadership.

16. It is recommended that leadership in educational administration develop leader behavior of the people in groups. Leadership should further help a group to define tasks, goals, and purposes; help a group to achieve its tasks, goals and purposes; and help to maintain the group by assisting in providing for group and individual needs.

17. It is recommended that leadership behavior in educational administration be clarified in nine areas: (1) selling goals, (2) making policy, (3) determining roles, (4) appraising effectiveness, (5) co-ordinating administration functions and structure, (6) working with community leadership to promote improvements in education, (7) using the educational resources of the community, (8) involving people, and (9) communicating.  

18. It is recommended that leadership behavior

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make all possible efforts to make educational administration and its hierarchial structure completely democratic. This can be achieved through responsible and controlled behavior, not by commanding but by leading, decision-making, influencing, co-ordinating and evaluating.

**School-Community Relationships**

19. It is recommended that schools and home relationships be strengthened. This relationship should be encouraged by establishing parents and teachers organizations. Efforts should be made to co-ordinate all the local organizations on state and national levels.

20. It is recommended that since the school is but an extension and elaboration of the activities of the home, the home and the school should work together in close accord in establishing and realizing educational aims, such accord calls for a common ground of understanding, covering the field of education, and a common language for communication between parents and teachers. This means that parent education should precede child education or at least parallel it. Therefore, a comprehensive program for parents education should be planned because "parents have two broad needs of parents education. One of these is the need to understand child growth and development so that they may guide their children effectively. The
other need is to understand the schools' programs."³

21. It is recommended that opportunities be extended for the broad participation of organizations, groups, agencies and individuals in the development of educational policies and programs. For this purpose various organizations, such as the child study associations in America, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the National Council of Parents Education, children's bureau and child welfare research centers in America should be encouraged.

It is further recommended for this purpose that the training program for adults in India be more intensified. It should encourage and facilitate the dissemination of learning by establishing evening schools, evening colleges, extension-divisional and others. It should set up such programs as group discussions, seminars, institutes, clinics, symposiums and forums. The objective of social education should be remedial, professional, political, literary, self-realization, citizenship training and others. Its philosophy, goal, curriculum and methodology should be well-planned by setting up different committees. Its importance should be realized by all agencies to strengthen democracy and active participation of people in educational administration.

22. It is recommended that administrators at all levels do their best to communicate to the people the educational plans and achievements. Various media—radio, newspaper, meetings, conferences, speech and others—should be employed to make communication effective and to get people interested in schools. Multi-directional communication should be planned. Two-way communication should be encouraged.

Curriculum Development

23. It is recommended that the educational administrator be fully conversant with the philosophy of education, the determining objectives, the construction of curriculum and its principles, and the instructional materials, the principles of learning, and the dynamic methods of teaching and apprising instruction.

24. It is recommended that curricula be planned cooperatively by the administrators, teachers, students and public. Curricula should be clearly defined as the embodiment and sum total of all experiences that students get inside educational classes. Courses of study form a part of a curriculum and it should not dominate the whole curriculum.

25. It is recommended that different textbooks be suggested on the basis of local situations, environments, and peculiarities. The final selection should be left to the individual schools or teachers should be encouraged to help make the decisions.
26. It is recommended that examination and evaluation be reformed. "Evaluation and testing can be used for improvement of instruction. Fifty per cent value should be given to internal examinations and assessments and only 50 per cent weighting should be given to external examinations."  

27. It is recommended that teachers' judgments regarding ability should be taken into consideration when the results of the examinations are being determined. "Competent teachers are better judges of students' abilities to do college work than are outside examiners, who only have access to a single battery of test results."  

Staff Personnel  

28. It is recommended that teachers be adequately qualified. They should be well trained in general, professional and specialized subjects.  

29. It is recommended that a single salary schedule be considered for the teachers and specialists in the elementary and the secondary schools.  

30. It is recommended that the service conditions for the teacher in the private schools be fairly secure.  

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31. It is recommended that the participation of staff members in discussing major school problems be given official endorsement and the need for face-to-face communication should be recognized.

32. It is recommended that working conditions for the teachers along with adequate pay, on par with other services, be considered as a means of attracting more qualified persons to join the teaching profession.

33. It is recommended that the objective of appraising teaching effectiveness be that of improving performance. Therefore, the administrator should discuss frankly the performance of the teacher.

34. It is recommended that the administration and the staff work together to define "good," or "superior" or "meritroious" or "effective" teaching in a manner understood by and acceptable to the administration and at least a reasonable majority of the staff. A procedure should be developed, with staff co-operation, for initiating, implementing, and evaluating the application of merit rating. This procedure should include collecting evidence, reviewing it, and making judgments.

35. It is recommended that the review of evidence for merit recognition be made by a committee of five: three teachers chosen by their own association and two members from the administration.
Plants and Physical Facilities

36. It is recommended that sufficient physical facilities be provided for each school to ensure efficiency in teaching and the learning program.

Finance and Business Management

37. It is recommended that for raising sufficient money for education, some new plan of taxation be employed. In the existing situation the feasible plan appears to be local taxation.

38. It is recommended that budget-making be encouraged on the individual school basis, in relation to an educational plan, which should be translated into an expenditure plan, and finally a revenue plan.

39. It is recommended that a judicious business administration be planned for purchasing, supply management, accounting and reporting, storing and checking, and keeping a property inventory.

Pupil Personnel

40. It is recommended that guidance service be properly organized in Indian schools. There should be arrangements for counseling, advisement, testing, speech and hearing therapy, medical and nursing facilities.

41. It is recommended that there be sufficient arrangement for the education of the physically handicapped, the emotionally disturbed and gifted children.
42. It is recommended that various facets of the child's personality—interest, aptitude, achievement, intelligence and others—should be evaluated by various methods and devices. These methods should be constructed of appropriate tests, interviews, case-studies and so on.

43. It is recommended that in order to study the child, such manifold records as cumulative records, anecdotal records, diaries, autobiographies, and so on be maintained.

44. It is recommended that every possible encouragement be given in the school to developing initiative, co-operativeness, reflective thinking and inquiry in the children.

Supervision

It is recommended that supervision in the Indian schools improve the total teaching and learning situation.

45. It is recommended that supervision help the teachers in the orientation of new methods and techniques.

46. It is recommended that the supervision include an appraisal of the educational product, a diagnosis of learning difficulties, a study of instruction, a study of the curriculum in operation and a study of the materials of instruction.
Foundations

47. It is recommended that exploration be made to determine the extent to which foundations may be started by private enterprise to participate actively in and finance the different aspects of education, such as research and the training of teachers and administrators in a manner similar to that by which the programs of education in America are assisted.

Research

48. It is recommended that research work be encouraged; for this purpose, one training college should be established in each state and it should be well-equipped with materials and staff. Research findings should be communicated to all the schools and institutions concerned.

School Law

49. It is recommended that in order to establish a legal relationship between various governmental and non-governmental agencies, there should be a codification of school law. It should be studied by the prospective administrators in India.
Implementation

Recommendations already made are very comprehensive. They touch the most vital needs of educational administration in India. Their successful implementation is assured if the purpose of the dissertation is to be served. But it is not possible that all recommendations can be implemented at one time. Therefore, it is suggested that a phased program for the implementation of these recommendations be considered. The reasons are apparent. A favorable climate, readiness on the part of the government, community, teachers and administrators, together with the financial resources and physical facilities, are essentially needed.

Taking these several factors into consideration, it appears reasonable to the writer to suggest further that the recommendations can be divided into three groups in order of priority. Before the implementation, it is necessary to work out each recommendation in more detail. The available resources have also to be properly assessed so that an adequate treatment may be accorded. It is better to select those recommendations in the first phase which are likely to create a suitable atmosphere and change the attitude and philosophy of the administrators rather than attempting at the outset, to make changes which disrupt the organizational structure of the school system.

In the first phase recommendations Nos. 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13 should be implemented.
In the second phase recommendations Nos. 4, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25 should be implemented, when the orientation of the staff for the purpose of educational administration, has been achieved.

By the time the third phase is to start, it is expected much of the preparatory and introductory tasks will be complete. So during this period, the rest of the recommendations should be implemented. At the same time, it should be kept in view, that these are not the last words. Rather they should inspire and stimulate further thinking.
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I, Radha Sinha, was born on October 1, 1918. I received my high school education at the B. B. Collegiate School, Muzaffar-Pur. I passed the matriculation examination in 1936. I entered the G.B.B. College and passed the I.A. examination in 1938. I decided to be a teacher and got a Teachers' Certificate in 1940. Since then I have worked in various capacities as a teacher and administrator. I started my service as a teacher in the middle school and was promoted to the post of Headmaster in a year. While a headmaster, I passed my B.A. examination at Patna University in 1944. In 1946, I was selected by the Behar Government for training in basic education at Hindustani Talimi Sangh Sevagram, which was being conducted under the able guidance of Mahatma Gandhi. On the completion of my training, I was appointed an instructor of a basic training school in 1947. In 1950 I was promoted to the rank of Assistant Principal of the Basic Training School and took my M.A. in Political Science as a private candidate at Patna University. In 1952 I was promoted to the post of the Principal of the Training School. In 1953 my services were borrowed by the Development Commission for the Post of Chief Social Education Organizer, in the community-project under the First Five Years Plan.
At first I was deputed to the Agricultural Institute in Allahabad for five month's training in social education and extension. Then, in 1954 I was appointed the Principal of the Multilateral High School and was assigned to teach in the newly started Residential School at Netarhat for the selected and gifted children of the state. From July 1955 to April 1956 I was in charge of the institution and progressively organized it around an experience-centered curriculum. In 1959 I was appointed Superintendent of Basic and Social education in the Chotanagpur Division. In the fall of 1960 I entered the Graduate School of The Ohio State University as a state scholar of the Behar Government. I took another M.A. in Education Administration in 1961.