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CONTENTS.

	PAGE
WORDSWORTH, BY MISS GERALDINE HODGSON	1
IS ENGLISH EDUCATION NECESSARY FOR INDIAN WOMEN? BY S. SRINIVASA MOORTHY, B.A.	6
STATE AND PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN THE CENTRAL PROVINCES	13
EDUCATION AND EFFICIENCY	17
THE EDUCATION OF A TECHNICAL CHEMIST	20
HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIA	37
THE PRACTICE OF EDUCATION, BY MISS H. R. KRISHNAMA, M.A.	65, 341
THE PRACTICE OF EDUCATION—TRAINING, BY MISS H. R. KRISHNAMMAH, M.A.	125
EDUCATION AND CHARACTER— <i>From the London Times</i>	73
THE EDUCATED AMERICAN DRUDGE, BY ELIZABETH BANKS— <i>(North American Review)</i>	73
EDUCATION IN BOMBAY, 1903-1904	136
MICHEL DE MONTAIGNE ON EDUCATION, BY MISS G. HODGSON, B.	183, 249
WHAT IS THE TRUE ETYMOLOGY OF THE WORD "EDUCATION"?	209
THE LAWYER AND EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS, BY R. S. LEPPER, M.A., LL.B.	215
THE SCOTCH UNIVERSITY EDUCATION, BY D. S. RAMACHANDRA RAO, M.A., M.B. CH. B., (Edin.)	295, 435, 639
THE LADDER OF EDUCATION, BY GEORGE BOURNE— <i>(Macmillan's Magazine)</i>	316
THE EDUCATIONAL LADDER IN SCOTLAND	320
THE MORAL EDUCATION OF THE YOUNG AMONG MUSLIMS	351
CHAOS AND CONTRADICTION IN PRESENT DAY EDUCATIONAL THOUGHT	402
FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCE	411
ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND	454
THE VICEROY OF EDUCATION	463
INDIAN EDUCATIONAL POLICY, BY V. RANGASAMI IYENGAR, B.A.	497
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION AND NATIONAL LIFE	503
EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE (1905)	558, 632
MEN OF ACTION ON EDUCATION, BY P.	578
CLASSICAL EDUCATION AND GAMES IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS, BY T. B.	652
RURAL EDUCATION—DEVELOPMENT IN ENGLAND	663
AN APPEAL FOR INFORMATION, BY V. S. SRINIVASA SASTRI, B.A., L.T.	10
CLASSICS OR KINDERGARTEN?	16
CURRENT CRITICISM OF THE KINDERGARTEN	654
MR. MORLEY ON DEMOCRACY AND LIBRARIES	25
LIBRARIES IN JAPAN, BY C. E. A. BEDWELL	358
THE MUHAMMADAN CONFERENCE	28
COIMBATORE DISTRICT EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE	364
THE RHODES BEQUEST AND UNIVERSITY FEDERATION	36
THE MATRICULATION EXAMINATION, BY G. KASTURI IYENGAR, M.A., L.T.	68
THE MATRICULATION MISERY, BY C. K. GOVINDA RAO, B.A., L.T.	128
A GRIEVANCE OF THE MATRICULATION STUDENT, BY HANSES	501
THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS, BY G. SRINIVASA IYER, B.A., L.T.	71
RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN BENGAL	77
THE SCHOOL IN SOME OF ITS RELATIONS TO SOCIAL ORGANIZATION AND TO NATIONAL LIFE	147
"STANDARD SCHOOLS" FOR MAINE	205
BEAUTIFUL SCHOOL GROUNDS	208
STUDIES IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT, BY R. CARY GIBSON, M.A.	323
TEACHERS' SALARIES IN LONDON ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS	359
THE TEACHER AS A CHARACTER-BUILDER BY P. S. RAMAKRISHNA IYER, B.A., L.T.	489
RURAL SCHOOLS IN SOUTH INDIA. A NEW SCHEME	360
RECRUITMENT OF PRIMARY TEACHERS, BY K. SESHU IYER, B.A., L.T.	345, 576
DIFFERENT KINDS OF SCHOOLS: THEIR MANAGEMENT, BY PLAIN SPEECH	573
DISTRESSED PARENTS, A PUBLIC SCHOOL-BOY, AND SOME REFLECTIONS, BY H. G. WELLS	580
A CURRICULUM OF STUDIES FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS, BY T. KRISHNASAMI IYENGAR	642

	PAGE
A FEASIBLE CURRICULUM OF INSTRUCTION IN SOUTH INDIAN MUSIC, BY P. S. SUNDARAM IYER, B.A., LT.	254
MY BOOK OF MEMORY	77
THE CALCUTTA CONVOCATION	83
THE BOMBAY UNIVERSITY CONVOCATION ADDRESS	149
THE MADRAS UNIVERSITY CONVOCATION	198
IMPERIAL LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL	89
SCOPE OF THE LANGUAGE LESSON, GRAMMAR PROPER AND GENERAL ENGLISH IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS, BY S. E. ISWARA IYER	131
UNGRATEFUL INDIANS? BY K. B. RAMANATHA IYER, M.A., B.L., LT.	134
COMPULSORY GREEK AS A NATIONAL QUESTION	139
COMPULSORY MANUAL TRAINING	352
A PLEA FOR COMPULSORY OBJECT LESSONS, BY T. S. VENKATA RAMANA AIVAR, B.A., LT.	383
THE TATA SCHEME—PRESENT STAGE OF THE PROJECT	140
THE DUTCH UNDER-GRADUATE	146
THE SELF-SUPPORTING STUDENT IN AMERICAN COLLEGES, BY ORLANDO F. LEWIS— (North American Rev.)	307
THE IDEALS OF A STUDENT, BY P. S. RAMAKRISHNA IYER, B.A., LT.	442
A CONSCIENCE CLAUSE FOR INDIANS	153
THE VERNACULARS AS MEDIA OF INSTRUCTION, BY A VOICE FROM VIZAG.	187
PACHAIYAPPA'S COLLEGE	596
THE CHRISTIAN COLLEGE, MADRAS	593
THE COLLEGE OF JOURNALISM AT COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY	273
AS TO THE TEACHER	213
BABYLONIAN PEDAGOGY	213
CORRESPONDENCE: O. POLLARD AND OTHERS	217, 328
STUDY OF SHAKESPEARE'S DRAMAS, BY V. V. SRINIVASA ITANGAR, B.A., B.L.	258
A COURSE FOR D. LIT.	272
SHAKESPEARE AND THE INDIAN DRAMA, BY K. S. RAMASWAMI SASTRI, B.A., B.L.	388
CHAUCER'S HUMOUR, BY S. SRINIVASA MOORTHY	649
THE PLACE OF COINS IN THE STUDY OF INDIAN HISTORY, BY E. BURN	268
UNIVERSITY ANSWERS IN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY—TEXT BOOKS AND TEACH- ING, BY C. R. SRINIVASA RANGACHARI, B.A., LT.	301
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION AND NATIONAL LIFE	503
UNIVERSITY OF MADRAS	510
UNIVERSITY OF MADRAS SENATE MEETING	613
BOMBAY UNIVERSITY SENATE	536
CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY—APPOINTMENT OF EXAMINERS	598
CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY SENATE MEETING	618
UNIVERSITY EXAMINERS—NOTE BY MR. JUSTICE MITRA	542
PUBLIC OPINION AND UNIVERSITY REFORM	606
THE GARDEN THAT I LOVE, BY VIVIAN	307
TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY IN HIGHER CLASSES	313
THE MAP IN THE CLASS ROOM	584
GEOGRAPHY AS NATURE STUDY	558
THE TEACHING OF HISTORY—A DIALOGUE, BY F. HAYLLAR	354
SUMMATION OF PRASTRATIONS OF NUMBERS—(Continued), BY C. SRINIVASA RAO	348, 448
"OUT OF THE MOUTHS OF BABES AND SUCKLINGS," BY W. R.	358
MR. JOSHUA REYNOLDS' CONTRIBUTION TO PRINCIPLES OF METHOD	414
OUR ENGLISH LETTER	37, 99, 157, 218, 326, 367, 416, 469, 544, 620, 667
REVIEWS AND NOTICES	39, 101, 159, 219, 274, 329, 369, 418, 471, 546, 622, 670
INDIAN EDUCATIONAL NOTES	45, 102, 164, 223, 277, 330, 371, 420, 473, 550, 626, 671
FOREIGN NOTES	53, 113, 172, 236, 284, 336, 376, 425, 479, 557, 631, 680
THE MADRAS TEACHERS' GUILD	487, 559, 633
THE MADRAS TEACHERS' GUILD REGISTRY	55, 115, 173, 238, 285, 337, 377, 426, 480, 560, 633, 681
EDITORIAL NOTES	

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No. I.

WORDSWORTH.

IT is hardly deniable that the 'general reader' feels some aversion to Wordsworth, or, to speak more correctly, some aversion to reading his poetry. He does not go so far perhaps as to feel that he cannot

"to vulgar Wordsworth stoop."

The meanest object of the lowly group."

but he finds him, or fancies that if he tried to read him he would find him, dull, tedious, tiresome. If this popular distaste were analysed, the main component would prove to be probably a belief that Wordsworth held a thesis. And since Browning overdosed the public with arguments, which with a curious and uncharacteristic humility it decided were beyond its comprehension, to declare concerning a poet that he holds a thesis appears to be axiomatic condemnation. Yet after all a thesis is nothing but a statement, or proposition, on which an argument may be hung. Why should it be ruled outside the sphere of Poetry?

It is one of the curiosities to be found among matters pertaining to Literature, that no one, in the course of all these many centuries has contrived to hit upon an entirely satisfactory definition of the word poetry. Because in this case the new is no better than the old, it is permissible to fall back upon Plato. In the *Ion*, he declares, by implication, that

poetry is a madness—"The poet is a light, winged, and holy thing; and there is no invention in him until he has been inspired, and is out of his senses, and the mind is no longer in him; when he has not attained to this state, he is powerless and is unable to utter his oracles." The pronouncement in the *Gorgias* is in a severer and less illuminating strain—Poetry is "a sort of rhetoric which is addressed to a crowd of men, women and children, bond and free having the nature of flattery."

But a subtler definition, and one more immediately germane to the point under discussion now, occurs in the *Symposium*—"All creation or passage of non-being into being is poetry or making."

In a part of his *Defence of Poetry* which suggests inspiration from the *Symposium* of Plato, Shelley says that "Poetry lifts the veil from the hidden beauty of the world." In a sense, this is a "passage of non-being into being," because there is at least an element of truth in the dictum that nothing is till it is perceived.

Now it is in this last meaning of the word poetry, the Platonic meaning of the transformation of non-existence into existence, that we find the justification of all the poetry, under which, in the ordinary language of every-day men, a thesis lies. "I am a com-

mon man, as said Socrates, "who only speak the truth" and these common men too speak the truth, even the truth according to Plato, when they find argument beneath poetry: their lapse from wisdom consists not in seeing that, but in their protest against what is inevitable. In fact, the poets bring into existence, something—now this, now that, which was not seen clearly, which was perhaps not even guessed before. What is called a poet's 'message' is just this seizing of a reality in itself possibly ephemeral, evanescent, elusive; the presentment of a new 'birth of time', of a being not effectively existent before, because unperceived.

Even in so light and fugitive a love song as Thomas Carew's

'Ask me no more where Jove bestows
When June is past, the fading rose'

there is a touch of this "making", for in all the rich assembly of English erotics, no other can be found with quite this absorption of Nature's loveliness in the charms of a single creature.

To protest against the presence of argument then is to protest in reality against poetry at all.

To blame the process of making the argument clear is another thing. Wordsworth, like every other true poet, caused or superintended, (the verb is immaterial) the "passage of non-being into being."

It is no easy matter to separate poetry from philosophy—(Plato reminds us that there is an 'ancient quarrel' between them)—they are such close neighbours that they struggle for possession of the same plot of ground. Far back in the dawn of thought, when the clouds began to lift, man busied himself with questions, still beyond his solution, concerning the world, his own mind, and the emotions of his

heart. Out of the worlds of sense and thought he wove himself a wonderful tissue of wisdom and fancy. That easy philosophy of his is discredited now in a partial, fluctuating fashion, but, at least, his poetical myths remain if not as facts as suggestions scarcely less potent in result. Winter is still Persephone's descent, and Spring her glad resurrection—

"For ever wilt thou love and she be fair."

In spite of that 'ancient enmity,' the realms of Philosophy and phantasy blend by imperceptible degrees amid the shades which surround man's life.

Pushed to the extremity then, the objection against argument in poetry falls to the ground: proves itself absurd indeed. But the prejudice remains. If poetry must be the passage of non-being into being, if there must underlie it, if not an argument, yet the essence of it in a new truth to be apprehended, then at least—so say those who condescend (not those who do it gladly) to read poetry,—then at least, that passage must not be brought about in a tedious tiresome manner.

Tiresomeness, tedium, those are the faults attributed by a hasty ignorance to Wordsworth—

"Next comes the dull disciple of thy school,
That mild apostate from poetic rule,
The simple Wordsworth."

How it comes to pass that in the same age though not in the same generation, one poet should have penned those lines, and another should have written of the subject of them—

"He found us when the age had bound
Our souls in its benumbing round;
He spoke, and loosed our heart in tears,
He laid us as we lay at birth
On the cool lap of flowery earth,
Smiles broke from us, and we had ease.
The hills were round us, and the breeze
Went o'er the sunlit fields again."

and how it comes to pass moreover that the author of the earlier lines would, though not on the strength of this production, almost infallibly be pronounced the greater poet of the two, these are among the puzzles of human thought when it is distorted or inspired by human feeling.

Probably Macaulay was criticising soundly when he averred in his remarks on Wordsworth's poems, that "the feeling which pervaded them was too deep for general sympathy." It is futile for critics, or Extension Lecturers or anybody else to bewail that the great majority of people do not read poetry. The proper subject for wailing is rather the fact that they would not be improved if they did. There are still, as there always have been, some to whom poetry is a resource, which, were it taken away, would leave the world and life irremediably impoverished. Outside them, there are others who find pleasure in or derive consolation from poetry at certain seasons or in some moods. Further outside still, is that artificial circle manufactured by popular lectures and cheap editions, who read poetry because they are told that they ought to read and understand. Impelled by a strong sense of duty they try; and who suffer most, they or the poets is perhaps a question incapable of solution. Beyond these, and massing themselves in overwhelming numbers are the great multitude of all classes and conditions, alike only in being those to whom poetry is not and never will be anything but an astonishment and a bore.

Yet as, *pace* one great wave of current opinion, the world is lifted, age by age, to higher things not by the mass of mankind and its hurried thought, but by the struggles and failures of discredited individuals and minorities, it is well to draw men one by one to

study a poet who has been neglected or misapprehended. Who knows when the "spark from heaven" may fall?

That Wordsworth could be tiresome, who can deny until all record and recollection of Betty Foy and her Idiot Boy have been expunged from the human mind? But since boring people is nowadays the one unpardonable sin it is eminently worth while to argue that Wordsworth's thesis of the intrinsic worth of men and things who and which have been passed over as commonplace or of no interest—a view not related to the platitudes of the theory of universal equality—is neither false and tedious in itself, nor false and tedious in his finest rendering of it.

No doubt, mainly in consequence though of an opposition which was for a long time persistent, and often misinformed, he became puerile at times. But even Apostleship will not arm a man against every one of the common failings of humanity, certainly will not prevent him from continuing in the face of his enemies.

Perhaps if he had never penned that Preface where he says "The principal object, then, proposed in these poems was to choose incidents and situations from common life, and to relate or describe them throughout in a selection of language really used by men," &c., the whole trouble might have been avoided. Often, it is safe to do a thing, less often so to draw attention to having done it. Perhaps if Wordsworth could have contented himself with writing poetry, leaving prefaces to Dryden, his fault would never have been guessed outside the region of professional criticism and academic exegesis. Perhaps even, some men and women would have derived pleasure where now they find none, because they are deterred from trying by a false belief that

they are to be cheated or coerced into believing something which they know would seem untrue to them if they met it in the homely garb of common prose,

"the earth
And common face of Nature spake to me
Rememberable things."

We mean more things than one by Nature, in poetry: or, to speak more accurately, we recognise that more methods than one of representing nature lie ready to the poet's hand. He may catalogue her charms, an easy feat, accomplished often. He may describe natural phenomena in the terms of human feeling, as Philip Sidney did when he cried.

"With how sad steps O moon thou climbst the sky!" a thought, nearly allied to the 'pathetic fallacy,' which would only occur to some one who had been wearied by over-steep ascents. Shelley again could treat Nature from a purely extra-human standpoint. Sometimes, a poet will succeed in inducing the actual mood which Nature herself inspires when we stand in her presence, like Gray when he steeped us in the country's profound peace—

Beneath those rugged elms, that yew-tree's shade,
Where heaves the turf in many a mouldering
heap,
Each in his narrow cell for ever laid
The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep."

And then some, like Wordsworth, treat physical nature, so we clumsily call it, as the complement of humanity,—the universe of existence being to them a "vast chain of being."

Here then is one half, and the greater half, of Wordsworth's thesis, contained implicitly in those lines quoted above—

"The earth
And common face of Nature spake to me
Rememberable things."

To him, the background of man's life was no inanimate mechanical device, it was not even a panorama, painted by a Master's hand

but through all the visible universe there breathed a spirit, the Spirit rather—

"I felt the sentiment of Being spread
O'er all that moves and all that seemeth still
O'er all that, lost beyond the reach of thought
And human knowledge, to the human eye is
Invisible, yet liveth to the heart:

O'er all that leaps and runs, and shouts and sings,
Or beats the gladsome air; o'er all that glides
Beneath the wave, yea in the wave itself,
And mighty depth of waters."

In the retired haunts of silence, in

"The peace

That comes with night: the deep solemnity
Of Nature's intermediate hours of rest,
When the great tide of human life stands still,"

in the shifting gloom of pinewoods, where the very shade is alive with mystery, amid the loneliness of the fells, on the shore where at the hour of sunset the tide flows imperceptibly, in every place which man's activity leaves undisturbed, the sense of actual life in Nature makes itself felt—not only to Wordsworth.

Not a hostile spirit, not a wholly incomprehensible, indwelling genius, but a soul in sympathy with the soul of man, this it is which Wordsworth claims for Nature; and true to the doctrine of that unfortunate preface, he claims that it is immanent in every created thing.

The 'sounding cataract', the 'terrifying winds', the 'awful solitudes,' speak to him: but no less do we find him

"Catching from tufts of grass and harebell flowers
Their faintest whisper to the passing breeze."

He seems indeed to hear the great heart of Nature beating in unison with his own, as he stands—

"Drinking in a pure
Organic pleasure from the silver wreaths
Of curling mist, or from the level plain
Of waters colored by impending clouds."

And so at last, in a vision which some feel almost hackneyed, so familiar has it grown,

which some reject as mania or as sentimentality, and of which others are sublimely ignorant, the love of Nature which has tinged English Poetry from its earliest moments struggles into full being, rising in Wordsworth's reverent hands to its sublimest heights.

This apprehension of life in Nature has been called Natural religion. But the phrase is somehow misleading. It is not a religion of Nature that Wordsworth preaches; but rather he unfolds a revelation of Man and Nature as complementary parts of one great whole, as souls in sympathy because inspired by one and the same Spirit, manifested here under one form, there under another,—

"The unity of all hath been revealed."

The essential unity of the Universe, not natural religion, is Wordsworth's theme: the soul of man if he will but see it, so the poet holds, can respond to the Soul of Nature because they are actually akin, born of the same Spirit,—

"I have felt

..... a sense sublime
Of something far more deeply interfused,
Whose dwelling is the light of setting suns,
And the round ocean and the living air,
And the blue sky and in the mind of man;
A motion and a spirit that impels
All thinking things, all objects of all thought,
And rolls through all things."

The intrinsic worth of common men and of common things; the intimate sympathy, springing from kinship, between man and Nature—that is Wordsworth's thesis. It has developed gradually through fourteen centuries, and comes to full life in him at last.

An instance of the combination of the two lines of thought may be found in the eighth book of the *Prelude*. In spite of its promising title—Love of Nature leading to Love of Man—the first two hundred lines or so are,

save for here and there a gleam, wearisome enough. But all is not loss, if something is impatience; for though Wordsworth has a peculiar faculty for straying unprofitably, he has an exquisite gift of returning unexpectedly to the lost track, in such a way as to more than atone for his wanderings, and ours. It is truly tedious to be forced away to the contemplation of unconvincing pictures of oriental magnificence, or of equally uninspiring suggestions of the 'herdsman and his snow white herd,' 'or the inviolable stream of rich Clitumnus.' Macaulay has done as much in this direction as was perhaps necessary. Wordsworth can do for us, if he only will, what Macaulay never could; and in his own good time he will. Nevertheless, there are impatient spirits unwilling to wait. For those who will, spontaneously there flashes out of the dulness, that picture which must persuade any one who has ever strayed over those wild fells of Cumberland, meeting perhaps one shepherd in a whole day's wandering:—

"I felt his presence in his own domain,
As of a lord and master, or a power,
Or genius, under nature, under God,
Presiding; and severest solitude
Had more commanding look when he was there
When up the lonely brooks on rainy days
Angling I went, or trod the trackless hills
By mists bewildered, suddenly mine eyes
Have glanced upon him distant a few steps
In size a giant, stalking through thick fog,
His sheep like Greenland bears; or, as he stepped
Beyond the boundary line of some hill shadow
His form hath flashed upon me, glorified
By the deep radiance of the setting sun;
Or him have I described in distant sky,
A solitary object and sublime,
Above all height! like an aerial cross
Stationed alone upon a spire rock
Of the Chartreuse, for worship. Thus was man
Ennobled outwardly before my sight."

Into this passage which gathers impressiveness as it proceeds, Wordsworth has compressed a great part of what is known commonly as his philosophy. Here is his power of describing that which is or which should be obvious to each and all,—the ordinary face of Nature as one might say; here is that finished observation and appreciation of the humbleness of our every-day life; and and beyond it, raising these things which are our common property into a region to which most of us scarcely attain, is the vision which is peculiarly his—of greatness in that which seems so small, of inspiration in everything which seems so ordinary, the vision of human nature, noble and strong, co-existing and harmonising with this world's beauty and spirituality.

It is no fancy picture which Wordsworth draws thus. The shepherd's life on those lone moors asks of a man the finer qualities of courage, self-sacrifice, and wisdom: it is no lumpish yokel whom the poet, to save a theory, chooses to deify, but a man, in lowly circumstances no doubt, yet who must for all that possess those virtues which distinguish men not only from the beasts which perish, but also from those despicable members of human society whose usefulness is confined to themselves, and whose desires are bounded by their own personal interests. For his doctrine of worth rests upon no process of levelling down. Whether it be a flower of no rarity, a man of 'no position,' a region of no extraordinary remoteness which he chooses, it is not the mere commonness or humbleness or familiarity which he exalts. There may be some who do that, but Wordsworth is not of their craft. It was his distinction to behold beneath the commonness which is so palpable to us all the worth which we miss, the worth which in

spite of any reaction against or distaste for the platitudes of democracy, he rescues from oblivion and forces us to realise because it was his rare fortune to catch a glimpse of the indwelling informing Spirit beneath Nature's fair exterior.

GERALDINE HODGSON.

IS ENGLISH EDUCATION NECESSARY FOR INDIAN WOMEN?

I promised in the September issue of the *Review* that I would consider the development of vernacular literature in India with special reference to the education of Indian women. My readers will readily concede that the latter question has an important bearing on the subject under discussion.

It may, at the very outset, be taken for granted that all educated men are at present agreed as to the desirability of educating our women. If any dissentient voice is now and then heard, it may be put down either to bigotry or prejudice or sheer lack of true enlightenment.

But the question as to the kind of education that is to be given has by no means yet been settled. For instance, whether our women are to be educated on pretty much the same lines as our boys, has not passed beyond the region of controversy. Indeed, most divergent opinions prevail upon this subject.

Mrs. Besant and others think that the proper sphere of work for the woman is the home, and consequently advocate the imparting of such education as will fit her to discharge the duties that naturally devolve upon her as mistress, wife, and mother. They desire her to be taught her own vernacular together with a slight overdose of Sanskrit, a little of hygiene and drawing, music, and

such other accomplishments as she may feel inclined to learn. Such a curriculum no doubt leaves nothing to be desired for all practical purposes. But there they do not stop: they hold up Seeta and Savitri, Damayanti and Draupadi, as ideals of Indian womanhood to be unflinchingly followed in every respect. This certainly strikes one as if these admirers of India's past greatness forget that the times have entirely changed, and that, if Indian women want to hold their own, they must keep abreast of the latest refinements and manners which contact of India with the West has brought into vogue. It need hardly be stated that India is being drawn more and more into the vortex of European civilisation, and however desirable it may be to preserve intact the absolute devotion, the charming simplicity, and the artless grace which characterised Indian women in ancient times, nothing short of a re-adjustment with the spirit of modern age will save India from social rack and ruin. But it should be distinctly understood that, in urging that our Indian women should adapt themselves to new environments, it is not my intention to insinuate that the home is not the proper sphere of work for women, or that they should sacrifice all those virtues for which Indian womanhood has at all times been noted.

A good many people on the other hand think that our women ought to be educated in English. They urge that English is the language of polite conversation in educated society, that our boys are learning it assiduously, and that there can be nothing by way of social intercourse between Indians and Europeans without our women acquiring at least a smattering of English. Some of the reasons are no doubt very cogent. Just so much of English Education as should enable them to talk and write in the most ordinary

fashion would be quite ample for all the social amenities of life. This could be easily acquired by girls attending schools till they attained the age of pubescence, and thenceforward by their husbands taking them further afield. What has to be carefully guarded against is vanity, disregard of superiors, &c., which a little learning, especially in a foreign tongue, is apt to engender among us.

So far, we have not touched upon the question of higher education for women. When we come to discuss it, we shall find that our women are totally unprepared for receiving it. Nay, supposing them to have been prepared for it, it may be doubted whether there is any necessity for them to pass the B. A. and M. A. Examinations, or whether actual harm will not result in the long run from a too eager pursuit of knowledge. We shall here consider some of the dangers and difficulties attendant upon the prosecution of higher studies in English by our women:—

(1) Social customs and usages do not allow our women to remain at school or college for a period sufficiently long to enable them to successfully study for the Degree examinations. It is a pity that there is no period in the life of our women, which corresponds nearly to what we are accustomed to find in English women—the ripening years of maidenhood. The period which the latter spend as maidens is looked upon by them as the happiest in their lives and no wonder, for it is the time when curiosity is always on the alert, and when they may enrich their minds by ranging freely over all sorts of subjects. There is nothing which is so destructive of higher education for Indian women as early marriage, and so long as this is the rule rather than the exception, it is vain to hope that they will joyfully take to it. Religion forges the

bonds of matrimony upon every Hind girl that is born into the world, and consequently she cannot conceive how women in other countries can live and die as old maids.

(2) It is patent to all how household work suffers by our women spending the greater part of the day at school and the remaining hours in preparing lessons at home. The late Mr. Digby's *Prosperous British India* has revealed to us with startling effect the poverty into which the masses of Indian population have sunk. This fact alone precludes the possibility of our Indian women leading a life of æsthetic self-isolation which the nature of their studies demands. Even where circumstances allow of our women leading such a life, it is undesirable that they should do so, considering that their life-work lies in a different sphere altogether, viz., in cheering and brightening the home.

(3) That the strain on the fragile constitution of our Indian women will be severe, requires only to be stated to command wide acceptance. The argument derives additional force from the fact that all their energies need to be conserved in view of the responsibility which they have to bear as matrons. The effect of higher education on the eye-sight of Indian boys has been made clear by more than one expert in ophthalmology, and will any one dare to say that the effect will be different in the case of our Indian women? It seems to me that nothing is a sadder spectacle than a woman wearing glasses.

(4) There is no necessity for earning their bread so far as Indian women are concerned. Hence there is not here that chief incentive to higher education. Those who adduce the example of English women often ignore the influence which climate has upon national life and character. Living as English women do in a temperate climate, exertion to them

is a source of pleasure. Moreover, they are unshackled by anything like our social customs. The freedom of intercourse which they enjoy in Society puts them in the way of receiving higher education while the keen struggle for existence that obtains in the West acts as a considerable motive power. On the other hand, the conditions under which Indian women are called upon to work are altogether different. The joint family system effectually protects them from the competition which engrosses so much the energies of their English sisters.

(5) In the prosecution of higher studies, our women are placed at a disadvantage, compared with our boys, inasmuch as they cannot attend public lectures or mix freely with their male teachers, &c. Even in well-equipped institutions intended for girls, a reading-room where all might congregate to read books, newspapers, and periodicals is conspicuous by its absence. A debating club attached to any such institution is almost unheard of. Physical education is deliberately left out in the general scheme of education for girls as pursued throughout India. I doubt very much if under the circumstances represented there is any room for the development of a strong and healthy *esprit de corps*. Again, the charge is levelled against Indian boys, that—the formation of their character has been sacrificed on the altar of cram, and accordingly a plea for religious instruction in schools and colleges has been vigorously put forward in the pages of this *Review*. A discussion of this subject would take me beyond the limits which I originally set myself for this paper. It may very well be reserved for future consideration. In the meanwhile I would ask, if it is true that our boys are growing up in irreverence, drifting towards materialism, through the pursuit

of English education, what would be the condition of girls—girls who are now looked upon as the stronghold of superstition, when they begin to read the works of Hume and Berkeley, Mill and Herbert Spencer? I leave my readers to draw their own inferences.

The above remarks aim at being suggestive rather than exhaustive. There are also some minor considerations which will present themselves to any thoughtful reader. In the first place, to talk of intellectual sympathy between men and women savours of cant, when higher education has not yet made quite appreciable progress among the male population of India. The institution of girls' schools, on the other hand, has produced the unique phenomenon of English-educated girls having husbands ignorant of the English alphabet. Secondly to force girls to pursue higher education, whether it is suited to them or not, by the tempting offer of handsome scholarships, is like rearing exotic plants in a hothouse. Why cannot our women be allowed to specialise or acquire proficiency in drawing, music, cookery, etc., instead of their education being run all into one mould? Lastly, it is not easy to see why the study of Sanskrit should be relegated to the background. Some ask, cannot our women become as good, as wise, or as useful by a thorough grounding in Sanskrit as they hope to become by the acquirement of English education? Without going so far, however, I may remark that, because the study of English brings our women into relation with a potent factor of European civilisation, it is no reason why an outlandish education should be given to them in preference to one, which has been endeared to them by many sacred associations dating from time immemorial.

I have urged the above arguments to show that higher education is quite out of the ques-

tion for the mass of Indian women. That the Universities have succeeded in turning out a Miss Sorabje, a Mrs. Sathianadhan, a Miss Krishnammah, is no proof that University education is equally suited to all, or that all are similarly circumstanced to obtain the much coveted degrees. My contention is that Indian women are utterly unprepared for the pursuit of higher education in English, and that they must therefore continue to draw their mental pabulum from the different vernaculars of India. If this is admitted, we shall have to recur to our former question how to improve vernacular literature so as to make it keep pace with the progress of modern thought? Of course translation must be largely resorted to, to make good the deficiency. I append here a list of subjects for translation in which a beginning might be made:—(1) Stories of Animal Intelligence (2) Description of Countries (3) Wonders of the World (4) Interesting Travels (5) Biographies of Noble Men and Women (6) Golden Deeds (7) Episodes from Sanskrit Dramas and Epics (8) Social Questions (9) Astronomical and Scientific Facts in General (10) Educational Subjects (11) Domestic Economy (12) History of Ancient India (13) Sanitary Science (14) Novels.

I shall not dilate upon this subject any further by considering how the question of the primary education of boys could be easily solved by our women becoming thoroughly conversant with their vernaculars. It will be sufficient, if my countrymen are made to realise their responsibility, and to put forth their best patriotic efforts in the cause of vernacular literature.

S. SREENIVASA MOORTHY.

AN APPEAL FOR INFORMATION.

THE saying that one half of the world lives in ignorance of the other half is literally true of the Indian educational world. A large outlook and a wide-awake interest in the progress of education are not always considered necessary qualifications for those who seek to administer the affairs of our University or of the Department of Education. Teachers, generally speaking, carry on the dull dreary drudgery of their routine without much comparing of notes or strenuous struggle for improvement. Managers' ken is bounded by the petty needs of their institutions, and they do not understand the larger interests of education and remain utterly uninfluenced by ideals. All round there is lamentable ignorance of the needs, conditions, and possibilities of education in the country. This ignorance is the more lamentable at the present juncture when the community appears to have shaken off its absent-mindedness and a general upheaval of interest in education looms in the near prospect. If this new-born interest is to have any beneficial effect and leave things better than they are, it must be not only inspired by lofty ideals, but informed by accurate knowledge of the realities of the present situation. It is not enough to know what our goal is or in what direction it lies; we must know exactly where we are. From the returns and reports of the Department and from such fragments of information as institutions choose to give of themselves on prize-giving days, we can gather some facts and statistics of importance. But such information is mainly quantitative. No stock-taking, however, is of any use in education which does not take full account of the qualitative as well as of the quantitative aspect of the matter. If, for instance, we desired to

know whether there is any increase in the proportion of teachers that adopt the profession as their life-work, we should get no definite guidance from the Departmental records; and yet is it not a matter of considerable importance? Or suppose that it was desired to review and compare the different methods adopted to promote a love of reading among scholars, where shall we turn for the necessary information? In what institutions and with what measure of success are kindergarten occupations systematically taught? How many schools have museums? How do fees and fee concessions vary in various localities? To what extent and why do holidays differ in different places as regards their number, time, and occasion? No trustworthy information can be gathered on these heads from available sources. Take some questions of a somewhat more general nature. The delimitation of province between manager and teacher; the extent to which the requirements of the Education Code, a bare minimum be it remembered, are exceeded in the pursuit of higher ideals; the co-operation of teacher and parent; the increase or decrease in the attractiveness of the teaching profession; the use of magic lanterns, excursions, and other outside aids to school-work; in these and others that are insusceptible of arithmetical computation, the inquirer has no source of definite knowledge ready to hand.

At first one is tempted to say that the Department of Education ought to collect and publish all such information. The Board of Education in England and the Department of the Interior in the United States have done this kind of work in a most praiseworthy manner and on a very grand scale, and educationists all over the world are in great debt to them for their invaluable reports. In India,

however, it is too much to expect that the State will feel the same necessity to instruct the people and take them into confidence as it does in more popular governments. Heads of departments here will laugh at the idea that they ought to provide a sort of information bureau where it will be the business of somebody to supply to the *bona fide* inquirer all such information as is not confidential. How else can they command the sympathy and co-operation of the public in their work? But as a rule, though well-intentioned in the main and ordinarily just, Indian administration cannot be said to court popular sympathy and co-operation. The orthodox official theory is that inquiry is an impertinence and criticism a crime. Witness the curt and cryptic utterances that were vouchsafed at the Legislative Council in reply even to the interpellations allowed by law. Officialdom chafes under the seeming accountability and has occasionally been betrayed into petulance. Irritated by ill-informed criticism, it only withholds correct and full information and thus provokes worse criticism. To mention only two cases out of many. Was it not due to the public to give an authoritative explanation of the considerations that led to the abandonment of the scheme of Model Primary Schools which made so much noise at one time and in connection with which even teacherships were advertised in the *Gazette*? Again, would not the public care to know why the appointment of new Sub-Assistant Inspectors of Schools, first promised three years ago, was kept in abeyance until recently? And who, outside the charmed circle, knows the details of the scheme as it has taken shape, the new distribution of ranges and of work, the principles that govern the choice of the men, or the conditions of their appointment? For this condition of things, however, no individual officers are responsible; the fault lies in the demoral-

ising system which erects independence of public opinion into a rule of conduct and applauds open defiance thereof as an act of heroism. It is difficult to say when this attitude will be relaxed in India, if it will be relaxed at all.

The question of the expense necessary to keep up a bureau of information might appear an almost insuperable objection in a country where already administration is more costly than it can bear. Even in the United Kingdom the Treasury pleaded the need of economy when Prof. Sadler's inquiry department was closed and he felt compelled, amidst the regrets of the educational world, to resign. But a far less ambitious programme will do for India. Taking the province of Madras for example, it is certainly possible for the Education Department to publish and sell at cost price a small periodical expounding official plans and points of view where they admit of precise statement, conducting and giving the results of such inquiries as have been indicated above, and extracting or summarising important passages from the English and American Reports and other educational writings. Such a periodical was once in contemplation. Why it never came into existence continues a mystery to this day. Will the question be considered afresh, and in a more enlightened and hopeful spirit?

But there is one circumstance that will greatly militate against the success of even a government inquiry department, though indeed it will militate still more greatly against the success of unofficial inquiries. That is the rooted reticence of our educationists, managers as well as teachers. One can to some extent understand, if not altogether justify, the disposition to resent an inquiry by the Department as undue official interference and a violation of their independence. But why

have the questionnaires of the Madras Teachers' Guild met with scant response? If any people are disposed to answer that the Guild is not a sufficiently influential body, the retort is easy that it is what the teachers have made it and will be what they mean to make it. Can it be that teachers have no opinions and feelings on the numerous problems that they have to face at every turn? Have they no grievances to ventilate, no ideals to realise? Or do they fancy that things will right themselves in the end without their effort? It is too true that as a class we have no living faith in the power of agitation. We have not mastered the art. Even the need of a central organisation, as Mr. Bilderbeck pointed out the other day, has not been fully appreciated by us. The first requisite of all agitation is that it should be based upon definite, well-ascertained facts. Impressions, surmises, and beliefs, however strongly we may hold them, will not command the hearing of sensible people. Whatever may be the subject of consideration, the status and prospects of the profession, methods of teaching, or details of organisation, a preliminary survey of the whole of the present situation is essential; and how is this possible if teachers be chary of their confidence, if they will not freely and unreservedly communicate to each other their particular experiences and feelings? Managers are not vitally interested in education as we are; they are mostly amateurs and take up school management as a social distinction or a useful occupation for their leisure-time. Even in cases where their interest in education is genuine, it is not informed by knowledge or guided by ideals. Teachers constitute the profession of education, and are responsible for its condition at any time. It is not altogether without reason that they are blamed for its miscarriage. They are the

experts and must neither hesitate to claim the privileges, nor be ready to shirk the duties of experts. The whole domain of education and every part of it is their concern.

One cause of the general unwillingness of teachers to take part in discussions is the fact that they do not feel sufficient pride in the details of their work. Much theoretical boast there is about the dignity of the profession, but in actual practice too many of us are at heart ashamed of it. Compared with the business of a lawyer or of a doctor, ours appears trifling; the question whether children ought to work arithmetic sums on slates or on paper cannot, it is true, stir up the excitement that a question of property or life and death can stir up. But we must all cultivate something of that absorbing love for and pride in the smallest particulars of our work that a much-appreciated writer of the present day exhibits for bolts, bars, and screws. Our little devices and experiments are of great moment to us in our daily routine; so should they prove to our brethren if we would only impart them. I daresay if several answers were sent in to the question, How do you conduct an ordinary Arithmetic or Dictation lesson? they would exhibit such differences and inequalities that most people would profit by a study of them.

But whatever the cause of the general reticence may be, it has been shown that it is most injurious to education in general and the interests of the teaching profession in particular. Just now the whole field has to be surveyed and mapped; it is the duty of every teacher, as it were, to contribute his experience and his knowledge to the work. The future of education lies largely in his hands; when questions of moment are considered, shall he keep back his ex-

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STATE AND PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN THE CENTRAL PROVINCES.

THE year 1903-1904 was an eventful one for the Central Provinces owing to the amalgamation of Berar, by which six districts have been added to the Province. The incorporation of Berar statistics in the annual report for 1903-04 makes it far more interesting than those of previous years. Education in the Central Provinces has during the last ten years been undergoing material advancement and has now attained a high standard of development, but it has yet to achieve a greater measure of success in order that it may claim to be on the same footing as that in the large presidencies of India. Many important changes, and radical reforms have from time to time been introduced with satisfactory results and it is gratifying to notice the efforts that are being put forth in all directions to improve the status of education so as to meet the needs of the growing population. During the year under review the special features of the work of the Education Department have been striking. One of the most notable undertakings has been the organization of the Victoria Technical Institute at Head-quarters. The building for this Institute is at present under course of construction and is expected to be ready for use in the next few months. It is time now that a suitable syllabus of subjects to be taught at this institute were drawn up and put up for deliberation. The other improvements effected have been the reorganization of the Morris College, the erection of suitable buildings for the Training Institution and the Female Normal School, Jabulpore and the general improvement of hostels which has been very necessary indeed.

V. S. SRINIVASAN.

knowledge and look on in silence while others decide the issues? Unfortunately it is too true that hitherto he has not received the respect and consideration that the expert in other departments commands; whether in the University or school-managing councils his voice is but seldom heard. For this result he is himself in some measure responsible. Last year when the subject of religious instruction from a practical point of view was discussed in the pages of this *Review*, many helpful contributions appeared; but was there one from a teacher who had actually tried to do something in the direction of such instruction? Surely at Kumbakonam, Trichinopoly, Vellore, and other places, experiments had been going on for some time, and perhaps in a school or two the experimental stage had been passed. What could possibly be of greater weight in the determination of the proper course than the trials, misgivings, and hopes of those who had conducted these experiments and watched the results? The initial successes and failures in such a movement are of more than local importance and ought to be placed at the disposal of those who have the cause of religious instruction truly at heart. Of course there is no intention to make of these experiences a 'trade secret.' Possibly a hatred of self-advertisement carried too far and a misplaced diffidence in one's own judgment are the true causes of the reticence. But that is not the way in which the thing should be looked at. When others have a right to look to you for guidance, it is a failure of duty to withhold it. The profession is entitled to have your recorded experience at its disposal; whether it gets any benefit from it is no concern of yours. In point of fact, however, we learn from failure quite as much as from success, in the long run perhaps far more.

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been started with pleasing results. "Arbor day" was set apart for general celebration throughout the province and this day is gaining popularity among all classes of pupils. The introduction of the kindergarten methods and object lessons appears to be a great desideratum in the schools throughout the province. This system has been started but a complete scheme such as has been drawn up in some of the leading towns is greatly needed. The extension of such teaching ought to be looked upon with more favour because it tends to correct the existing defects of the intellect of Indian boys in so far as it discourages exclusive reliance on the memory and develops a capacity for reasoning from observed facts. Under these circumstances it is to be hoped that the system which has been tried in some schools will as far as possible be made universal. A satisfactory feature of primary schools in the Central Provinces is the adoption of the system of native exercises known as *Deshi Ksarat* which builds up the constitution of pupils satisfactorily and renders them fit for their difficult studies.

Plague had a decidedly serious effect on the advancement of secondary education; for many schools had to be closed for a period of three months, resulting of course in poor results at public examinations. The growth of secondary education in popularity is proved by the interest taken in it by private persons who came forward and opened High Schools in some districts at their own cost. A great desire for English education prevails among the better classes and hence every encouragement is given to the extension of hostels and of the tutorial system.

In technical education the Central Provinces has made rapid progress for the industrial schools are modern institutions of their

kind. The different Mission Orphanages and Workshops have no definite system of instruction but impart training in various useful industries which enable the youths undergoing instruction to obtain their livelihood in after life. The most important of the industrial schools is the Reformatory School at Jubbulpore; the number of pupils on its rolls during the year under review was 125, all of them receiving instruction in useful trades including gardening.

Female education seems to call for special care as its advancement is by no means as satisfactory as it should be. India cannot be expected to be a great country unless and until the women are educated in a befitting manner. There are many girls' schools in the Central Provinces under the care and management of Missionary Societies but greater effort is needed to make the people realize the value of female education and to induce them to outgrow the prejudice of certain social customs which debar women from entering freely into society of the proper kind.

It is melancholy to observe the apparent apathy exhibited by Europeans and Eurasians in India towards education. The children quit school before they have acquired a sufficient education to equip them for a public career and the result is that the majority of them are obliged to enter the subordinate service of Government that is as clerks on meagre salaries. This deplorable situation of education among this class of people has been the subject of much consideration and it is gratifying to notice that the new code which is expected to be introduced shortly will include provisions which will tend to produce a better state of things.

On the whole education in the Central Pro-

vinces except for the few defects brought to notice above is continuing in a progressive state and now that the Berars have been amalgamated with the Central Provinces thereby rendering the province larger, it is to be hoped that education will be placed on a satisfactory basis in the near future.

CLASSICS OR KINDERGARTEN?

The practical aim of a general education is such training as shall enable a man to devote his faculties intently to matters which of themselves do not interest him. The power which enables a man to do so is obviously the power of voluntary as distinguished from spontaneous attention. Any one for example can read the items in a newspaper with no more interruption than occasional skipping; anyone can read a novel which interests him. Any one can keep his wits fixed on a well-written play, particularly if the performers possess the advantage of personal attraction. But the moment anything be long or dull—sermon, poem, or problem, it is all one—only those can keep their wits from wandering, who have somehow learned to control them.

In other words, whatever interests people commands their spontaneous attention, and accordingly such power of concentration as is naturally theirs. But if a man is to make anything whatever out of a matter which does not interest him, he must concentrate his powers on it by a strenuous act of voluntary attention.

It is precisely this faculty of voluntary attention which education in the broadest sense, can most aptly cultivate.

The fact that it can do so is patent, when you consider what education has actually done. The faculty of voluntary attention, for example, obviously distinguished the American lawyers of the nineteenth century from their fellow citizens, of whom they were so apt to take the lead. That faculty clearly distinguished the college students of thirty years ago from the flabbier students of to-day. And that faculty, I believe, such persons as these, whom we may hastily take as typical, gained largely from that elder system of education to which they were forced to submit. And no one, I believe, can gain it in anything like the same degree from methods as yet devised by apostles of the kindergarten. The older education, to be sure, cultivated voluntary attention, not because

it specifically insisted that pupils should unintelligently devote tedious years to grammars and dictionaries of Latin and Greek, or to lifeless variants of the extinct vitality of Euclid. But, unknowingly, it cultivated the faculty well. Through daily hours, throughout all their youthful years, it compelled boys, in spite of every human reluctance, to fix their attention on matters which, of themselves, could never have held attention for five minutes together. No doubt, plenty of subjects other than classics or mathematics could have been made to serve this purpose and could be made too now. You can hardly imagine a subject, essentially uninteresting, which would not reward plodding work with a similar result—with substantial ignorance of the matter studied, but with increasingly and lastingly muscular power of voluntary attention. The only actual practical virtue which lies in the traditional subjects comes mostly from the accident that they are traditional. As a natural consequence, they have acquired, through the centuries, a degree of precision not yet attained by any rivals. Even unsympathetic and intelligent teachers can, therefore, keep closer watch of them. If the attention of boys who study classics or mathematics begins to wander, it can instantly be perceived as vagrant. If it errs, its errors can swiftly and certainly be corrected. And the very fact that the classical languages are dead and that the abstractions of mathematics must generally seem repellently lifeless, is part of the secret of their educational vitality. Of late years, it has often been supposed that training in natural science would do more for the power of voluntary attention, and therefore would have a higher educational value than training in the old humanities. So far as my observation has gone, this has not yet proved the case. And one reason why it has not, I am disposed to think, is because the natural sciences are apt now-a-days to prove a shade too interesting. In the end, accordingly, like other alluring things, they often excite an attention more nearly spontaneous than voluntary. If so, the study of them would inevitably result rather in technical information and habitual aptitude of a special kind, than in any broad general training, available for any other service than that immediately concerned.

The classics and mathematics have, doubtless, been tyrannical, and, what is worse, they have been supercilious. There can be little doubt, that the day of their dominance is past; and that resentment of their pretensions will long blind the educational authorities of our democratic country and age to the real nature of their educational potency. Of all educational superstitions,

we may freely admit, none is more instantly apparent than that which worships the classics and mathematics as idols. And yet the newer educational superstition, which bows the knee to pedagogics is beginning to seem more mischievously idolatrous still. For behind the dethroned idols there was an orthodox truth, not yet discernible behind the new; and the education which resulted from the elder system had a virtue which must somehow be revived, if the new is to justify the magnificent and generous faith of our still youthful America. No education, I believe, can serve much practical purpose, in training men for the perplexing diversities of practical life, unless it base itself on the training, throughout the flexible years, of that faculty of voluntary attention which only in maturity should be suffered to range among the matters of its choice or of its incidental duty. Any education, on the other hand, which does this work is a priceless boon, not only to those who have won it, but to the country of which they are citizens.—From Barrett Wendell's Article "Our National Superstition."—(*North American Review*).

EDUCATION AND "EFFICIENCY."

From "Child Life" for July, 1904, by H. Threlton Mark.

Students of education in the United States know how commonly one hears there of the "educational revival" of the last twenty-five or thirty years. Inquiring a little further, one discovers that this revival has been, in very large measure, due to the acceptance and application of the educational ideas of one man. This man is Friedrich Froebel. Certainly the strongest and most promising things in American education are the outcome of ideas some of which it is the purpose of the present paper to put forward.

What has Froebel to suggest to the British educator? In the answer here given reference will only be made to the education of children up to twelve years of age. As yet we have not consciously applied Froebel's ideas to any large extent beyond the infant-school period. We have connected Froebel's name with the Kindergarten and with infant teaching, and have only partially considered the larger value of his suggestions in their bearing upon education from end to end. None the less, many of the most recent appeals for reformed methods of teaching are similar in spirit, and are doubtless due in part to Froebel's influence.

In a short introductory paper it will be necessary to limit one's point of view as to the suggestions which Froebel has to make to us as English

teachers. One cannot but note, in passing, the general harmony which exists between Froebel's ideas and the British spirit which tends to make such a study specially profitable. In order to illustrate this, I shall seek for one definite point of contact between Froebel's educational philosophy and British ideals in the bearing which the former has upon the latter-day demand for "efficiency." If, in so doing, one borrows a newspaper term, one gains at least by the use of a word which is common property. [Education suffers through the lack of a stirring or popular nomenclature. Hence it has not been easy to link it on to popular ideals, or to win for it a large place in the popular mind.]

It is in those countries where education has linked itself on to popular ideals, or to the great ends of national existence, that education is most progressive. In our own country—and shall we not be helped in this direction by the remarkable simplification of the Code?—we are turning our attention, as citizens and parents as well as teachers, in a way that we have never done before, to the schools. "School-power," to use Dr. Sadler's now classical phrase, is seen to be a means to national power. And it is in discussing the development of school-power that Froebel—pre-eminently, as I think, amongst foreign educators of any age—offers us help.

For the sake of narrowing down the question, and presenting a direct issue, let me, then, take that portion of the nation's need and the nation's wish which is summed up at the moment, in the word "efficiency." The educational question at once arising is: What kind of attitude and temper are we to endeavour to quicken in the boys and girls before us in order to reach this goal? And by what methods may we hope to create this attitude of mind and spirit?

(a) The first and very common-sense suggestion which Froebel makes is that education shall be looked upon as a continuous process. The Committee who drew up the syllabus for this Conference evidently intended to keep this ideal—so far, at least, as the first twelve years of life are concerned—clearly before us. By taking the ages from five to twelve as one continuous period, we at once bridge over the gulf which is made to exist in some schools between the child of seven in the primary and the child of five in the infant school.

Can parents or teachers imagine a greater loss than, by a deliberate break in the spirit of our teaching or in the methods followed, to draw a line athwart the school life of the child? To permit, and, still worse, to encourage, the child of

of six or seven to look askance on what he has learnt and done with interest and success, and with that full strength and enthusiasm of his first school years, is not to aid the growth of a healthy confidence in himself and of a trust in the things he knows. Yet these are moral and intellectual conditions of efficiency. One of the profoundest things in Froebel's theory of education is his clear showing that it is an orderly and harmonious development, a natural process of growth or evolution.

(b) As to our methods of school procedure within these years, Froebel presents to us a widely embracing principle in the two familiar phrases, "self-activity" and "learning by doing," each pointing in the direction of efficiency as a quality and as an outcome of school life. In order to apply it directly to our school practice, I shall take the principle of the self-activity of the learner—somewhat arbitrarily and merely to focus one's thought—as summing up what is most distinctive in Froebel's theory of teaching. Taking the vast mass of our children between the years of five and twelve, is not the great temptation of the teacher to do too much for them? Chiefly, no doubt, because in most schools these children have to be taught in such vast masses. It is feared that self-activity would spell confusion, if not disaster. Yet even in collective lessons with large classes we do our best teaching when we provoke in our pupils the mood of attack. They may, even under these conditions, learn something of the art of individual attack upon questions and problems; something, too, of the advantage of working in co-operation. The ideal teaching—and it hurts us not at times to look towards the ideal—is that which stimulates each pupil so that the thought and effort of each counts for something in the final result. The highest development of the individual pupil can only be promoted in the collective life of the class. To let him feel his individual force in the crowd, his power to contribute to the common store and to the common life, is to have awakened alike the practical and the social consciousness. It makes for efficiency.

This nineteenth century ideal, as I think one may call it, of pupil-activity strikes at the root of one or two traditional teaching heresies, which are now dying a lingering death. The first of these is that the life of the school and class-room is mainly the teacher's business, and the work done there mainly the teacher's work. Now, happily, there are innumerable cases amongst us as teachers of those who once would have said:

"Will you come and see my work?" who now say: "Come and see the children's work." Not that the teacher plays a less important part or needs to be less highly skilled. On the contrary. But what is happening in all such cases is that the teacher plays a part of far more value to the child in making him feel that the life and work of the class-room are mainly his concern, and that school is not merely a place where he is called upon to passively acquiesce. In such class-rooms pupil-activity is more in evidence than teacher-activity, to the infinite gain of the pupil and to the far greater joy in his craft on the part of the teacher. This is a direct application of Froebel's idea of teaching. The class-room life for each pupil centres in the pupil himself, because the educational process necessarily has its centre in him. Froebel always keeps before us the inner spirit and life of the child as the centre round which education works and from which its active influence radiates. Hence his earnest insistence upon self-activity.

With this new relationship between teacher and pupil a further traditional teaching heresy is swept aside—that, namely, of the necessary omniscience of the teacher. This, too, was an outcome of the idea of the school as the teacher's workshop, a view which is being gradually revolutionised by the admission of Froebel's principle of the self-activity of the learner. We now know that we are greatest as teachers when we are most ready and willing to learn from those we teach. To trust and welcome an item of information from a young child is to give him an intellectual stimulus of the highest kind. We can give no better direction to his intelligence or to his will than to permit him not only to help himself and his comrades in the class, but also us, his teachers, with some new information, pertinent question, or bright suggestion. It scarcely needs saying that this new teaching spirit looks in the direction of the efficiency which the nation demands as the result of the child's schooling.

Self-activity has, to some extent, a negative reference. It means the withholding of excessive teacher-activity, teacher-guidance, and teacher-control. The purely positive principle of education advanced by Froebel is that of learning by doing. Still based upon his clear insight into the central truth that "life develops from within," it asserts that the learning which implies the learner's doing, and the learning which lies apart from doing in a remote abstract world of ideas, are vastly different things; and that the kind of worker and citizen which is turned out

is vastly different in the two cases. Referring to the remark sometimes made that "brains are a drug in the market," an expert observer has said: "Knowledge in a warehoused form no doubt is; but not brains. They are rare." The difference between "warehoused knowledge" and quickened or vitalised brain is the difference between learning which has no practical outcome or reference, and learning which, from its very entrance into the mind onwards, is associated with doing. Some of the ways of accomplishing this fusion of doing and knowing have been already touched upon in this Conference. The merit, for example, of the new methods of teaching mathematics is largely that they enable the child to live his mathematics as well as to learn them. In what other way could one possibly explain the busy interest of a small boy I encountered in an excellent school a few days ago, who (though not yet nine years of age) was keenly intent upon working out the curve or graph which represents the equation $y = x^2 + 1$? The possibility of this lay mainly in the fact that he is being taught by a trained Froebelian teacher, who is carrying forward the principles of the Kindergarten geometry through a series of skillfully devised occupations and exercises—first originated, I believe, by Mrs. Mary Everest Boole, widow of the late George Boole. The method is one which depends almost entirely upon experience, and in the least possible degree upon books or hearsay. Its main interest for us is that it carries forward the Kindergarten methods into the primary school. As stated in the footnote, such a piece of mathematics can only be learnt by doing, guided by a teacher, and in a small class. Nature study is a more obvious instance of school work which brings the child's willing and instinctive doing into line with his learning. Near my home in Cheadle Hulme, Cheshire, is one of the best school gardens I have ever seen—part of the Head-master's garden attached to the school-house. The school garden is part of a well worked out scheme of observational Nature study. When first the Head-master wished to introduce gardening, the parents—many of them gardeners or interested in village occupations—said: "We send the children to school to learn, not to work." They have since discovered that working of this kind is learning and learning of a kind which gives children power of concentration upon actual doing, and the power of applying what they know. Of hand-work, as illustrating Froebel's foundation principle, it is essential to note that learning by doing is vastly different from meaningless hand-work, merely introduced as

a concession to the play-interest of the child. The doing which Froebel has in mind is always either a means of gaining ideas, or of strengthening by their expression ideas already gained. The emphasis is on learning as well as on doing. It is learning by means of doing,—a kind of learning which it is almost impossible to forget. It is in the public elementary schools that the conditions are most difficult, and where any such progress is, therefore, most noteworthy.

(c) Froebel, further, aims to make education real by maintaining a close connexion between school, lessons and the child's everyday experience and environment. Lessons are to intellectualise and enrich this experience, and to invest the environment with larger meanings. The world of things and occupations—the world of processes, human and material—has to be explored. According to the child's success in exploring this world, human and material, is the promise he gives of success in after life. We are making some headway in this respect. It spite of the abstract school exercises, having no meaning except as "lessons," which one sometimes sees given, there is a marked tendency to make school work more real and living. Arithmetic lessons, instead of being a series of sums of rules, tend more and more to deal with real transactions and concrete affairs. Geography lessons, instead of being a long series of definitions and chips of information, are based upon the child's charting out of the class-room and the school premises, and his mapping out of the surrounding district. The challenges of the everyday environment are being more and more constantly dealt with. In such ways the child is to be, and in a measure is being, equipped for the tussle with that environment which awaits him when school-days are over.

Of course much remains to be done. In a report on "The School Training and Early Employment of Lancashire Children,"* based upon inquiries into the after-school history of some thousands of children who went to work in the mill, the conclusion arrived at is that "there is absolutely no correspondence whatever between school attainment and subsequent skill at work, or even—so far was the investigation carried—between school records and evidence afterwards given of general intelligence." Commenting upon this, Sir. John Cockburn, in an address bristling with Froebelian ideas, has recently urged upon the school the necessity of establishing "the normal sequence between the brightest boys at school and the most capable men," adding: "The actual difference in men lies not so much in the store of

* Board of Education, "Special Reports on Educational Subjects," Supplement to Vol. VIII., p. 28, 3d.

knowledge as in the power to use what they possess."

The great feature of Froebel's methods is to make the school a place where real power may come to the surface, instead of a place where (as in many cases it has been) the real trend and vigour of child-nature are held in abeyance. "Any education," says F. D. Maurice, "which fails to make poor men or rich men efficient in action is an unsatisfactory education—one which needs to be reformed, not only for the sake of its results, but because the studies which produce such results cannot themselves be sincere and wholesome." It is this reform which a closer study and application of Froebel's ideas is helping to bring about.

(d) One other point must be referred to. Froebel believed intensely in the moral and religious aim of education. The human and, so to say, spiritual environment is quite as much in his mind as the material. The Kindergarten, for example, really centres in the games (the "Mother-Play"), one main purpose of which is to introduce the child to the social aspects of his environment. There is this further reason for referring to training for citizenship or the training of character—that the moral aim in education, like the practical, is in close keeping with British ideals; and it must be considered if we would bring the idea of efficiency into line with Dr. James Ward's definition of the aim of education as "efficiency for the highest life."

In these three or four ways the national ideal of efficiency and the educational life and procedure of the schools will tend to harmonise. Knowledge will be given, and with it the power to use what we know. Lessons will be related to life, enabling the child to feel at home, and giving him a growing consciousness of mastery, in the presence of his environment. And the educator will, by meeting the child on his own ground, make use of the greatest of all the educational forces—the child's own insight and growing strength of will.

THE EDUCATION OF A TECHNICAL CHEMIST.*

By SIR WILLIAM RAMSAY, K.C.B., F.R.S.

It is customary in our society for the president to give his address when he is on the eve of retiring, and I have looked for hints in those of my predecessors. I had thought that perhaps

* From the Scientific American.

some suggestions dealing with the training of technical chemists—a subject of which I have now had over thirty years' experience—might have been favourably received.

Much has been said about the right course of training for a technical chemist, and the example of our Continental friends has been freely cited. No doubt we have much to learn from them; yet there are some first principles which lie at the root of the whole matter, and which I will venture to lay before you, in the hope that they will commend themselves by being self-evident.

The education of a chemist (and the word "chemist," of course, includes the qualification "technical chemist") must be conceived in the sense that it consists in an effort to produce an attitude of mind, rather than to instil definite knowledge. Of course the latter must not be neglected; the definite knowledge may be likened to the bricks which the architect has at his disposal in erecting a beautiful building; he knows their shapes, their capacity for resisting stresses, and, in short, what can be done with them. But the conception of the design is the result of many attempts to create; just as the poet has to utilize words, or the architect bricks, so the chemist has to know the materials with which he is dealing. The training of a bricklayer, however, will never make a man an architect; nor will the dry research of a grammarian train a poet. In short, it is the inventive faculty which must be cultivated.

Here I am met by the criticism—"The inventive faculty must exist; it cannot be implanted." "*Poeta nascitur, non fit.*" I deny it. There are some persons whose dislike for the investigation of Nature is ingrained. But such persons are few. It is unlikely that they will ever begin the study of natural science, unless impelled by too expectant parents. My contention is that most of the lads who enter a chemical laboratory are able to receive some inspiration, or to have latent inspiration developed, which will fit them to become inventive chemists.

Now how can this be brought about? The answer is perfectly simple: by offering them examples. Every teacher in the laboratory, from senior professor to junior assistant, must be engaged in research, and, most important of all, they must not be reticent, but willing to converse freely on their problems. It is that which creates a "chemical atmosphere."

There are some simple ways of furthering this spirit of research. First, as regards the students. I regard it as a mistake to provide special laboratories for different classes of students. If

students of organic chemistry are walled off from those who are working at analysis, then neither set knows what the other is doing. The best instruction that a student can get, he acquires in having to explain his operations to his neighbours. Now it is customary for the study of organic chemistry to follow on that of inorganic; the organic student is usually the senior; and it keeps up his knowledge of inorganic chemistry if he has frequently to place it at the disposal of his neighbours who are making routine analyses. They, on the other hand, cannot help seeing the very different processes employed by the organic man; and they insensibly learn a number of tips and dodges which prove of service to themselves at a later stage.

Of course, for complicated researches, where much elaborate apparatus is erected, special rooms are necessary, but I have noticed frequently that the inhabitants of these rooms hold informal receptions, and have pleasure in exhibiting the result of their skill in manipulation and in glass-blowing.

In some laboratories a trained glass-blower is kept on the premises. There cannot be a greater mistake. If the members of the teaching staff are glass-blowers, "*es geht von selbst,*" as the Germans say. The whole laboratory becomes proficient. Each imitates the other. No doubt advice is often given which refers to the folly of paying sums for apparatus which it is possible to construct with little trouble, after knowing how; and the money is better spent. And glass-blowing is an all-important adjunct to research. I cannot imagine how anyone can stand the annoyance of having to wait for hours, possibly for days, for the repair of a piece of apparatus, which would probably take fewer minutes if the owner was able to manipulate a blow-pipe. Nearly the same may be said of the mechanic's place in the laboratory. Here, however, the work is slower, and in many cases the mechanic's services may be required; but for small repairs, such as soldering, repairing, contriving stirring apparatus, electrical apparatus, etc., much may be done by the student himself without any direct teaching. I confess, however, that a mechanic is necessary, if only to see that the tools are kept in order.

After the preliminary year I do not think it advisable for the student at once to commence research. There are the usual subjects of complex qualitative and simple quantitative analysis to be mastered, separations, gas analysis, and the preparation of typical organic and inorganic compounds, besides physicochemical operations, such

as vapor densities, determinations of molecular weights, conductivities, and electrical separations. But the time spent on these may easily be too much extended. A fairly good student should have done enough, in a year and a half or two years, to place him in such a position that, if necessary, he can help himself when he is face to face with an analysis which he has not made before. By mixing research students in the same laboratory with others at all stages of advance, the man who is working at analysis insensibly gets to regard his operations as partaking of the nature of a problem, and pursues his work with the greater interest. Moreover, it is not difficult to intensify this view of the question by contriving variations on ordinary routine; the determination of calcium and magnesium in a shell; the estimation of phosphoric acid in a bone; the Dumas method for nitrogen applied to a dried mouse; the analysis of the gases of respiration of a fly kept in air confined in a tube over mercury, and so on. When an analysis is regarded as a problem, it gains greatly in interest. And it can always be checked by a duplicate, and if necessary a triplicate. It often happens, moreover, that the research work of a senior student is greatly helped by analytical work which can be safely intrusted to a junior. In this way double interest is gained—in the problem set, and in the research which the solving of the problem furthers.

Above all, not too much teaching. The essence of scientific progress is the well-worn method of trial and failure. It is simply horrible to think of the travesty of teaching in vogue in some of our colleges, where everything is provided, and where the students add one solution to another by word of command, and record their results in special notebooks constructed for the purpose. What do they learn? To obey? That should have been taught in the nursery. Manipulation? Manipulation consists in constructing what is required, not in using what is given. I had rather see a youth commit the *Æneid* to heart, than carry out such time-wasting, soul-destroying routine operations. The first may result in a stronger memory; the second is fatal to all originality.

Let me consider the matter next from the point of view of the junior staff—the assistants, or whatever they may be called, "*Privat-docenten,*" lecturers, instructors. It must never be forgotten that these young men have their way to make in the world; that it is unjust to treat them as teaching-machines; and that the only opportunity given them to make their mark is to afford

them all possible encouragement to further the aims of their science, for in doing so they will further their own aims. They must become known; and without publication of their work they will remain unknown; and without reasonable leisure for research they will be unable to publish. Hence the duties of the members of the staff of a laboratory should be so arranged that at least half their time is available for research. Again, I am a firm believer in encouraging joint work done by assistants and students; the student gains much, and the assistant gains an assistant. Moreover, he learns the chief duty of a professor—the need of retaining in his mind problems for solution, and the art of getting the most out of his students in encouraging them to think for themselves. It is, indeed, an apprenticeship, where the young teacher learns his trade. He must have tools to work with; these tools are the students who act as his assistants. I regard it as essential, therefore, that the laboratory should have such a number of assistants that each one has half his time at his own disposal.

But, it may be urged, the number of assistants must necessarily be much greater than the possible vacancies in chairs, and it must therefore follow that many men will grow old in subordinate posts, and grow sick with hope deferred. Here the manufacturers should step in: A man who has had such an experience as I have sketched is invaluable, if he is not too old, as a works chemist. Here I may justify my opinion by citing the practice of many German manufacturers; it is the rule, not the exception, to induce the assistants from university laboratories to enter their works.

We come next to the senior teachers or professors. The first point I would urge is that, while it is possible to lecture to as many students as the largest lecture room will hold, it is not possible to supervise the practical work of more than, say, forty or fifty students. The professor should always know what every man is doing. It is not necessary that those who are engaged in routine work should be visited every day; they are under the care of assistants; but it is necessary that the professor should be able to gauge the capacity of each of his laboratory students; for only thus can he tell whether they are profiting by their studies. The reason why the old laboratories of Liebig, of Wöhler, and of Bunsen are regarded with such loving memory by those who were the students of these great men is that the total number of students was small; they formed a family party, where the individual

character of each was known, and where the father lived among his children, and was able to distribute correction, reproof, and instruction in righteousness. Hence the necessity for limiting numbers. Now, if there are forty students, and the professor spends ten minutes each day with each—no great allowance of time—simple calculation shows that more than six hours are gone. I think that two hours is ample for the professor to spend daily in teaching laboratory students. Of course at some critical moment he must spend a much longer time with one; it may be several hours; but that should absolve him from attendance on that individual for the best part of a week. It is better to mix example with precept, and unless a large part of every day is given to research, the professor loses the attitude of mind which it is his duty to cultivate in his students. It does not do to let a day pass without making some effort to continue research; the habit is only too easily lost; it is like all arts; the successful pianist or violinist spends many hours each day at his instrument, and if the acrobat were to take a month's holiday, he would require to begin to learn his trade again. Moreover, it is only by continually keeping his hand in, and his mind turned on his own research, that the professor can conceive new problems, some of which are simple enough to form the best introduction to research to be carried out by his students.

Again, in a large laboratory, the time occupied in the details of organizing is so great as to make a heavy call on the energies of the professor, who is necessarily the director. There are parents to be seen; notebooks to be read; correspondence with old students in search of employment; apparatus to be ordered; servants to be directed; in short, the whole management of a business in addition to the work of teaching and research. The cares of management grow very rapidly with the increase in size of the laboratory, and many of the duties cannot be delegated. Moreover, they are the calls of public duty which often press very heavily on the successful scientific man. Add to these the share which it is always necessary to take in attending university councils, and it is manifest that the administrative duties should be simplified as much as possible.

If the reputation of the professor is such that students crowd to his laboratory, my counsel is, do not build larger laboratories, but appoint a new professor, with a separate chair, and a new laboratory; but do not make your man of talent a mere administrator.

This brings me to consider the method of appointment to chairs, and that involves the government of the university. It is a large question; but as the reputation of a university is entirely dependent on the standing of its professors and teachers, it must be considered.

There are as a rule three methods of appointing to chairs: one is selection by a council or committee—by the governing body of the university; and this, in fact, amounts to selection by the principal or president, for as a rule the principal or academic head of the university is regarded by the council of outsiders as the best judge of scholastic matters. The second method is selection by a committee of specialists appointed by the university; if, for example, a physical chair is vacant, it is filled by a committee consisting of four or five eminent physicists, themselves not connected with the university in which the vacancy occurs. The third method, and it is the one which commends itself to me, is selection by a committee of the faculty in which the vacancy occurs, after a reasoned report in which the relative merits of all the possible candidates are discussed.

The reason for my preference is a very simple one: it is because selection by persons belonging to the same faculty of the university unites two qualifications in the persons of the electors—competent knowledge on the one hand, and self-interest on the other. Choosing, as an instance, a vacant chair of physics, the committee of selection would consist of any other professors of physics in the university, provided there were more than one; the professors of chemistry, biology, mathematics, botany—of all sciences to which physics is a fitting introduction. These men of science either know, or can make written inquiries about possible candidates.

It is true that the academic head of the university—the principal or president—may be influenced by like motives, and that any selection which he may make may be made on very similar lines, after a similar inquiry. But the filling of a chair is not a single-handed job; if it is single-handed, it is likely to become a job; either the principal is not able to get the required information, or his judgment is not so sure as that of those colleagues more intimately connected with the subject of the vacant chair. Selection by the principal may succeed; selection by colleagues of the same faculty practically always succeeds.

As for selection by a committee of outsiders, they have no feeling of responsibility. From personal experience, I know that their aim is satisfied when they have elected a man who will not dis-

grace their choice; they do not necessarily select the best man. I know, having had to act as an elector by all three methods, that one is much more particular when one has to choose a fellow-teacher with whom one has to pass one's days. From what group of persons should a professor be chosen?

There are large universities, and there are small ones; and obviously the professors in the smaller institutions will be available for selection to the larger ones, with their greater field of usefulness and their higher emoluments. Should the professors in the smaller universities have justified their election, they will doubtless be the first to be considered in filling the more important chairs. And for the chairs in the smaller institutions, the assistants will be available. They will have published works of a nature to make their names known as promising investigators, and they will have commended themselves to their chiefs as capable men to whom the management of a department may well be intrusted.

The choice of the assistant from among the senior students may be left entirely to the professor, with whom he has worked, and who is best able to judge of his powers. He will doubtless have filled the position of a student-demonstrator, in looking after junior classes; and his frequent appearances at the local scientific society will render it possible to estimate his ability as a lecturer.

And now let me discuss a question which has not given difficulty in America, I understand, but which has greatly retarded the advance of knowledge and research in England. I refer to examinations. It may well be introduced here, for it may be asked, Should only a graduate be recognized as worthy to occupy a junior teaching position? To this I would reply, Let the choice be free. I have often seen men whose circumstances, or whose character, or whose deliberate choice has led them to abstain from taking a degree, and who, nevertheless, are most successful investigators, well able to increase the knowledge of their subject, and who have proved most inspiring teachers; and, on the other hand, I have perhaps more frequently come in contact with graduates whose only claim to recognition was a parrot-like ability to repeat what had been told them, and a knack in gauging the idiosyncrasies of an examiner. The older I get, the less I believe in university degrees as a test of capacity. Perhaps the reason is the manner in which degrees are awarded in England; the degree follows on one, or at most two examinations,

often by men who know the candidate only as a number, and whose idea of examination often is to set questions to trip the candidate, and not to draw out what he can do. Indeed, it raises the question which I have mentioned earlier in this address: the examination is so contrived as to elicit what a man knows, rather than what he can do.

Now here, again, there are certain obvious truths which have often been stated, but too often ignored. The student, working under the eye of the professor and of his assistants, undergoes a daily examination. He may not earn marks; but, none the less, he impresses his teachers with some conception of his character; and the impression is made, rather by what he can do, than by what he knows. The qualities tested by such examinations as have been customary for the past forty years in England are the last which one would wish to have in a student of science—readiness of memory to the exclusion of deliberate judgment; the faculty of spreading knowledge thin, and making a veneer of scientific facts instead of the power to correlate them and increase their value; and the skill to gauge the capacity of and hoodwink the examiner, instead of the power to incite enthusiasm in others. A sound judgment, though it may be a slow one; persistence in struggling against obstacles; the knowledge where to get information when required, and to use it when found; and the inventive faculty—these are the qualities required, and they can be gauged only after long-continued observation. Moreover, the pernicious system of competitive scholarships and fellowships, instead of elementary support given to the necessitous and deserving youth, has also contributed much to the debasement of the scientific spirit; for it has early implanted in the young mind the idea that to outrun his fellows, and to work solely for a money reward, are the ends to be aimed at, instead of the joy of the exercise of a divine gift, and the using that gift for the benefit of man. It is true that to earn money is a necessity; it is in no way a wrong aim; but it is not the chief aim; and money should be earned as a reward for useful labor, not for success in scholastic competitions. Under present circumstances, as scholarships exist, and must be awarded by examination, it requires considerable ingenuity to devise a method of examination which shall pick out men who will make a good use of them. I recently gave as a question for my own students, "Describe shortly the researches which have been going on in this laboratory during the past six months;" and I found the result very satisfactory. The

question put a premium on the interest which a student should take in his friend's work, on the intelligence in following it, on his powers of description, and on his suggestiveness where invention had to stand for want of accurate knowledge. The after-effect of such a question, too, will be considerable. The students will endeavour in future to follow the researches of their neighbours with more understanding than they have done.

A question sometimes debated is whether the professor should lecture to junior or to senior students. Should he introduce the young student to the study of chemistry, or should he lecture to the most advanced students on recent developments of the subject? My reply would be, that students are much over-lectured. The object of lectures is more to open out a subject, and to direct a student what to read, than to give definite information. And for that reason I think the senior teacher is the best for junior students. Experience has generally taught the older man how to make his subject interesting to beginners; he has learned the art of repetition without showing that he repeats; he does not travel too fast on roads untravelled before by the young student; and he is more lenient to their often absurd efforts to form correct conceptions. On the other hand, the senior student is less exacting than the junior; to him the matter is more important than the manner of delivery; if the lectures prove useful to him he is ready to excuse any want of judgment on the part of the young teacher. But we have found it advisable to ask individual advanced students to deliver short courses of lectures on special subjects of which they have made a study; no fee is charged for admission to these lectures; and they are much appreciated both by the deliverers of the lectures, as a field for practice, and by the students, as an easy way of becoming acquainted with special branches.

It consequently appears to me futile to extend courses of lectures to more purely technical subjects. The ideal plan of education for technical chemists would be some system analogous to the apprenticeship of engineers, after they have been educated in the science; that is, after the correct habit of mind has been largely formed. But it is difficult to see how this can be brought about. The obstacles in the way appear to me to be insurmountable. The chemical manufacturer is not willing to throw open his work to students, nor would he do so even if very considerable premiums were paid. Indeed in England, it is not uncommon for the "chemist," so called, to be refused admission to the works, and to be confined

to the laboratory. In the larger German works, where many chemists are employed, it is possible for a young man to gain the requisite experience.

I have wondered if it might not be possible to establish a training school for technical chemists somewhat on the following lines: To start an association having for its object the encouragement of invention, each member of which would subscribe a certain sum for the erection of buildings and plant. There would need to be a number of isolated buildings, and a considerable collection of stock plant of a small scale—still, tanks, evaporating pans, filter presses, vacuum filters, centrifugal machines, crystallizing vats, and so on. The work should be furnished with steam and electric current. Such a Syndicate might let it be known that they were willing to make arrangements with inventors, or with Syndicates which had secured the patents of an invention, or secured an option on such patents. The superintendent or professor should be provided with a staff of assistants, who would be each in charge of one building—that is, of one operation. Students would be admitted for an appropriate premium, as in engineering works. Supposing an idea to be brought to the notice of the directors, they would consult as to whether it should be accepted or not. If accepted, then the share of profits would be arranged with the patentee, should it prove successful. It would be committed to the charge of one of the staff, who would first work it out in the laboratory with the aid of a staff of students. If it then seemed feasible, it would be tried on a comparatively small scale, dealing with hundred-weights, in one of the special buildings, those students who had investigated the process in the laboratory sharing in the larger-scale operations. The surmounting of difficulties in the transition, the perfecting of the process, the making working drawings of the requisite plant, would afford the best of all training to students; and in case the process proved a commercial success, these students who had helped to elaborate the process would be naturally the first to obtain employment in works, should they be erected. At the same time, manufacturers would naturally be anxious to obtain the services of men trained in so good a school, so that many students would be drafted off to works. Indeed, the scheme may be paralleled from the medical side; after receiving a medical education, for example, in preliminary scientific subjects, such as chemistry, physics, and biology, the medical student devotes himself to professional studies for three years. Then his technical education begins when he becomes house physician or house surgeon. After

such experience, he is available for junior positions, for becoming "locum tenens," and so on.

The students in such an experimental works would, of course, have to do laborers' work; employes always respect a man who can "take his coat off." In this way he gets to know their difficulties, and to judge them fairly; to know what they can do, and what reasonably to expect.

I am by no means sanguine that such a scheme of technical education can be started. I acknowledge that it is an imperfect imitation of the magnificent schools of technical chemistry which form part of every large German chemical works. But such schools are unlikely to find a footing, so far as I can judge, in England. I cannot judge of America. Our system is, when trade is good, to let well alone; the manufacturer thinks, "I have done very well without a chemist so far; why have one now?" or, "The class of man who has served us as analyst has sufficed for our needs, he costs only £2 a week; why burden ourselves with a more expensive, even if a more skilled man?" And when trade declines, he naturally shrinks from spending money. It is the policy of "penny-wise and pound-foolish."

MR. MORLEY ON DEMOCRACY AND LIBRARIES.

Mr. John Morley, M. P., performed the opening ceremony at the new public library erected by the Woolwich Borough Council in Plumstead High Street. The building has cost about £14,000, and of this amount £9,000 has been given by Mr. Andrew Carnegie. The lending library opens with a stock of 10,289 volumes.

Mr. Morley said that was the first occasion on which he had addressed a portion of the English democracy after his visit to a still larger democracy on the other side of the Atlantic. There was nothing more certain than that democracy was the great political and social fact of our time. Both political parties would agree with that, although they might take different views of the possible or probable results of that fact. What was democracy? Whatever else it was, however else they might define it, it was government by public opinion; but they did not always get public opinion taken so rapidly as they might desire. He was not talking politics. Democracy, whatever else it was, was government by public opinion. He thought it was Sir Robert Peel who described public opinion as a great compound of

folly, weakness, prejudice, wrong feeling, right feeling, obstinacy, and newspaper paragraphs. He should be sorry if he thought that was the whole story of public opinion, but they would all agree that public opinion was in constant need, in all classes, of stimulation and improvement, was in constant need of more and more vigorous resort to those various and multiplied agencies to which they gave the summary name of education. He was not so foolish as to say that books were the only education. Work was an education. Politics were an education and the divinest of all arts, music, was an element and an agency in education. But after all, without free access to books and without some knowledge of how to handle and use books, education must be a narrow and mutilated and imperfect process."

NEWSPAPERS.

They had in that library a very fine newspaper room. Sir Robert Peel, if it was he, did not place newspaper paragraphs very high among the ingredients forming public opinion. Poor newspapers, like everything else in the world, including his hearers and himself, might be better. None of them would approve in any country of all the devices of newspaper enterprise, but he did say that, having to live under the broad skies of public and private activity, the meaning of that activity and its tendencies in their own and other countries could not be fully understood without newspapers. He, for his part, thought the reading of abundant newspapers was entirely a wholesome process, provided that it was not mere idle reading. Some years ago he made a suggestion which, he thought, had borne good fruit. It was that in settlements a newspaper class should be formed in which somebody should take the events recorded all over the face of the world in that day's newspaper, and explain where this or that place was, what this or that controversy was about. In a library they could not do that—probably they were not allowed by Act of Parliament—but he would suggest that the librarian might take from the shelves once or twice a week a group of books bearing upon what chanced to be the great topic of the day, so that when reading a newspaper a man or woman might find books describing the politics, the geography, and the bearings generally of the important questions of the day. He never had in all his life—though he had been a bookman, and whether the span of his days was long or short he always should be a bookman—thought or dreamed that interest in books was the main thing in anybody's life except the life of the scholar and student.

BOOKS IN HOUSES.

Libraries had different objects for different men, and must be constructed on different principles for different men. The scholar wanted one set of books; their master, the man in the street, wanted another set of books—very often, he thought, the man in the street would be all the better if he did want a different set of books. They went to libraries for all sorts of purposes—for rest, for knowledge, for stimulation, for inspiration—and he did not know what better means there were, outside the great guiding forces of human life and character, for rest, for stimulation, for inspiration, than access to a well-chosen set of books. The student wanted one thing, the worker another, and in filling the shelves of the Plumstead Library he should first of all think of the books most likely to attract and interest the workers in Woolwich Arsenal. Of course, the possession of books was a luxury for all of them, but the possession of some books was really a necessity. He would suggest to their representative in Parliament that some day or another, if that day ever came, when he had nothing left to do, he might take a census of three or four typical streets in Woolwich, and make an estimate of the kind of books found in the houses. Mr. Crooks could do it without impertinence, and it would be enormously interesting. In his time he had had to perambulate in England amongst what were called the middle-class—he hated this distinction of classes—and he was constantly appalled at the shocking trumpery that he found on the shelves of those who were kind enough to entertain him on those occasions. Everyone talked of Shakespeare, Milton, Bacon, and so forth, but he wondered how many copies of Shakespeare, of Milton, or of Bacon's Essays they would find in people's houses. Then he asked himself, by the way, how many in that room, if they were told they could not leave till they had pointed out what, in their view, were the great passages in Shakespeare, or the great lines in Milton, or the great words of wisdom from Bacon, would ever get out of that room. He was not at all confident that there would be many. In that he was not saying anything local; he would throw down the same challenge in some audiences of larger pretensions. Everybody who was able to possess anything beyond bread and cheese and clothing ought to possess three or four or five books, and they would be surprised, he thought, how very slim the volumes would be which contained the gems and the pure gold of literature. It was a great mistake to think that they could not enter into the treasures of litera-

ture unless they possessed a large library. Very few books would do the business if rightly chosen.

FICTION AND POETRY.

They would never, he reminded them, know the right mode of dealing with the difficulties of the present unless they had some notion of the general run of things in the past. In the Woolwich Library he found the proportion of books issued was something of this kind: Fiction, .65 per cent.; history and biography 15 per cent.; poetry, 7 per cent.; books of travel and topography, 7½ per cent.; natural science, 5 per cent.; and useful arts—well, the rest. In the new library fiction filled nearly twice as large a space as history and biography, but he did not care so long as it promoted sympathy and good humour. There was something to be said for fiction. Their prosaic lives needed all the stir and imagination that could be given them by Walter Scott, Dumas, Dickens, Thackeray, George Eliot, Jane Austen, Mrs. Gaskell, and all the other admirable story-tellers. Some of the characters of Scott and of the great poets were as real to us as any of the great actors in history. Of course, comparisons between men of action and men of letters were idle. They were not always very fair, and were rather meaningless. He was reading the other day that the world of books was a world of shadows. In a sense it was true. We were all shadows. But great ideas launched into the world were not shadows—they were the substance. Would any man say that Napoleon Bonaparte was a substance and Goethe and Byron but transient shadows? That Pitt and Fox and Canning and Castlereagh were the substance and Scott and Shelley and Wordsworth mere phantoms? It would be very wrong if any man said any such thing. He who was not stimulated and refreshed by poetry led but a mutilated existence. Shakespeare was the poet of poets, but in looking out for poets let the rule be for preference, not exclusions.

BYRON'S PLACE.

And here he would like to say something which might bring a storm of criticism upon him. If he were librarian at Plumstead or Woolwich and were asked what poet he would recommend he thought he would say Byron. Byron was not the greatest of poets, but he had got daring and energy and historic sense and a loathing—which he hoped they all felt—for cant in all its aspects. There were two cants—the cant of the upper ten thousand and the cant of the million, and Byron loathed them both. Byron was at the begin-

ning of the last century the great central inspiring force of democracy on the Continent of Europe, and he thought that when the democracy extended its reading and applied itself for inspiration to poetry apart from the inspiration of facts and the needs and demands of the time Byron would once more have his day. He knew there were those who had misgivings as to the multiplication of libraries (he heard this on the other side of the Atlantic), misgivings lest the multiplication of libraries and the habit of access to books might have the effect of slackening the native energies of mind, dulling the edge of the will, and of numbing the mother-wit. We had not yet experience enough to say how this might be; but he did not see how this result could come from a free and judicious use of that knowledge and that stimulation which books, and books alone, could supply. How did they know that that new library would not quicken the intelligence and stimulate the best faculties of many a young man and woman?

THE "FEEL" OF A LIBRARY.

It was the general knowledge of life and conduct that really mattered. Every good library was in itself a book. If he might preach on a Saturday instead of waiting until the morrow he would say: Pray get it into your heads that a library is a book representing the feelings and impulses of man in all times and ages. All the leading facts of life were there. All the differences between man and man were there; all the differences between the ages and ages of the world were there. The tears and laughter of mankind and the labours of mankind were all in the library. The useless sacrifices—of which there were so many in history—the idle dreams, with all their mischiefs, were there. The strongest and most steadfast efforts of men and women for good, with all their blessings and all their glories, they were there too. The whole overwhelming drama of humanity was there. To be sensible of this was what somebody or another had called the "feel" of a library. He entirely went with a friend of his who told him that when at night he turned down the lamp of his library and turned the key and left all the procession of saints and sages, warriors and martyrs, and champions of freedom and justice, those who had been trampled down and had fallen and those who had succeeded, those who had been the torch-bearers of truth—as he left them in sublime solitude and darkness, it was then that he felt, more than in the working day, the true pathos of mankind and the real mystery of time.

LACK OF REVERENCE.

This left him one more remark. If democracy had any faults—of course it had faults; it was only aristocracies and oligarchies that had no faults—it was that it did not always feel or show reverence. He thought that was true of all democracies that he had been brought into contact with. It was a tremendous defect. The notion that because one man was as good as another—which in itself required some explanation—therefore one man had just as much right as another to have an opinion upon every subject, and that all opinions were of equal value, was erroneous. His advice was: Do not allow the spirit of reverence to fall so low as to lead you, at all events, to any such fatal and unworthy delusion. There was a great difference between the value of men's opinions. In conclusion, Mr. Morley expressed the hope that that library would prove a source of joy and life to thousands in that closely thronged locality.

THE MUHAMMADAN CONFERENCE.

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS.

Mr. Theodore Morison, President of the Muhammadan Educational Conference held at Lucknow delivered the following address:

GENTLEMEN,—I offer you my sincere thanks for the honour you have done me in making me your President. By selecting me for this honour I understand you to express a wish that I should, before leaving India, give you my views upon educational questions which affect Muhammadans; you have not, I am sure, elevated me to this chair in order that I should say the smooth and pleasant things which elicit a moment's applause. I should ill requite the honour you have done me if I shrank from telling you the plain unvarnished truth: and if I should have to say things which give you pain, you will, I trust, believe that they have been prompted by my sympathy for Muhammadan progress.

Gentlemen, I conceive that the primary object with which this Conference meets is to devise means for the amelioration of the Muhammadan community; we are not an Educational Conference in the sense that our principal duty is the consideration of text-books or courses of study; but we are an Educational Conference because we believe education to be the surest means to our ultimate end, viz., the improvement of the Muhammadan community of India.

The evils for which we wish to devise remedies are of two kinds, first of all material poverty, and secondly, the moral and intellectual backwardness of your people. Sir Syed Ahmed, who used to address you with a bareh sincerity which would be unbecoming in me, commonly spoke of the degradation of the Muhammadans of the present day, and if you will permit me without offence to use a somewhat similar form of expression I shall speak of your present condition as one of intellectual poverty, and thus the two great evils from which the Muhammadans are suffering may be described as material and intellectual poverty.

Of these two evils material poverty must have the first claim upon our attention, because it is the most urgent and most generally felt. For many years this Conference has recommended education to the Muhammadan public on the ground that it will remove this poverty, but quite recently views have been put forth in India so diametrically opposed to this conception of education that I must pause a minute to examine them. The view to which I refer is that education should be acquired only for the sake of learning, that the sole object for which young men ought to go to College is the cultivation of their minds, regardless of any material advantages to follow. This is a noble conception of learning, and there are some minds so finely tempered as to esteem the austere pleasures of scholarship more highly than the solid comforts of wealth; but this can never be the view of the majority of mankind, and for this reason it seems to me impossible to base a general policy upon it. I am not going to recommend education to the great mass of the Muhammadan community upon such grounds as these, and we cannot, I think, honestly say that this is the view commonly taken of education in Europe. In the great majority of cases, the middle-class, which is also the well-educated class, give their sons the best education they can because they believe that it will enable them to earn a living with credit to themselves. In Germany, where there is probably more true love of learning than in any country of Europe, a University education is a necessary condition of almost all middle-class occupations, except trade, and consequently the majority of students attend the Universities to qualify for a profession and not with the sole object of improving their minds. This, with one important exception, of which I shall speak later, is the opinion which I hold with regard to the education of all middle-classes of India and the ground upon which I commend education to the Muhammadan community. In the great majority of cases I look upon education as a practical means to a practical end, and that

and is the improvement of material well-being. I trust, therefore, that you will agree with me that this Conference will not forfeit its claim to the title "educational" by discussing how the poverty of the middle-classes of the Mussulman community may be alleviated.

When I speak of the poverty of the Muhammadan middle-classes as an evil, I do not wish you to understand me to deplore the absence of accumulated and inherited wealth which will support a man in a life-time of idleness; but I do deplore the fact that the majority of the Muhammadan middle class are not pursuing honourable and lucrative professions with success. Need I hardly tell you why? Beneath the influence of European ideas their ancient callings have been transformed; the conditions of success in Government service, medicine and forensic pleading have all been revolutionised, but the Mussulmans have not adapted themselves to the change; they are now-a-days, for the most part, unskilled and inefficient workmen, and therefore they make very small earnings. This is the poverty which I deplore and which is much more injurious to the community than the absence of big estates and inherited fortunes.

Let us consider how this poverty may be alleviated. For the middle-classes of almost all countries there are two avenues which lead to fortune; the first of these is the professional callings, such as those of the doctor, the lawyer, the engineer and the Government servant, and the second is commerce and industry. Now with regard to the first group of occupations I have very little to say, because all professional men in India, even Muhammadans, recognise the importance and value of English education. All that I should like to insist upon is that this education ought invariably to be conducted up to the present B. A. standard, because there is no stage below this at which European ideas are assimilated and at which the student acquires sufficient familiarity with English to continue his reading by himself. To my mind this is merely the standard of a fair general education which has unduly been given a University title; in reality what we call the B. A. Examination is but the termination of a good secondary education; the title, however, is a matter of small importance; the essential point to note is that the general education of a professional man ought not to stop short of this terminal examination.

As to the means for providing Muhammadans with this general education there are different opinions. You know that, up to the present, a very considerable proportion of the Muhamma-

dan graduates of India have been educated at Aligarh, and some of my friends seem to think it unpatriotic of any Muhammadan to take his degree elsewhere. These gentlemen would like to see all B. A. education for Mussulmans centralised at Aligarh, and they question the wisdom of attempting to provide B. A. teaching for them elsewhere. I remember that there was a time when it was thought that there should be no Muhammadan High School outside of Aligarh. But that view has been abandoned with regard to High Schools, and I do not believe that it will long be held with regard to B. A. Colleges either. For the material welfare of the community we wish to increase as much as possible the number of Mussulmans qualified to prepare for the liberal professions, and our fondness for the Central Institution should not lead us to do anything which might check the inflow of young Mussulmans into these walks of life. Let existing Muhammadan Colleges by all means make ample provision for B. A. teaching; let local Committees provide scholarships for Muhammadan students to read in Government and Mission Colleges. The importance of Aligarh in the scheme of Muhammadan education will not be diminished thereby, and it will still make the same appeal as now to the united efforts and public spirit of the Muhammadans in every corner of India, for will it not still be the centre of the learning and high thinking of the community? But for professions, a merely general education, of which I take the B. A. Examination to be a reasonable standard, is all that is needed, and the more generally accessible such education is, the better for the material well-being of the community.

But the professional callings are only one of the two principal avenues to fortune, and the other of commerce and industry is capable of affording a livelihood to a much larger number of persons and leads to much greater wealth; it is unfortunately a walk of life in which few Muhammadans of Northern India are to be found. Most Mussulmans seem to think that commerce and industry are identical with shop-keeping, but this is a great mistake; buying goods and selling them again at a higher price is no doubt, if prudently conducted, a very profitable calling; but it does not in England take a very high place in the grades of industry. Englishmen honour more highly those who manage and direct the production of commodities. I am convinced that there are in India opportunities for a large number of these industries, and that they might be directed by Mussulmans with enormous advantage to themselves if their attention were

directed to those occupations and they were shown the way to initiate them.

To treat this question adequately would need a much larger digression than I have time to make, as it involves the whole question of the industrial evolution of this country, but I shall try to indicate what I mean. There are a certain number of industries in this country worked by hand-power which are conducted with very rude appliances and which are mostly languishing under the stress of European competition. It is probable that many of these industries might be revived and enabled to compete with the products of steam power if the rude appliances, which have been in use unchanged for 2,000 years, were replaced by the more skilfully designed implements used in Europe. I do not think that this change could be introduced by the craftsmen themselves. But new methods of production might be originated by a young man who was ready to learn from Europe and who employed Indian craftsmen upon wages to work under his direction. The implements of production would be worked by hand, and they would, therefore, not be absolutely strange to the workmen, but they would be fitted with mechanical improvements which have been designed in Europe and which greatly increase the quantity or quality of the output; the sugar-cane-roller mills are a familiar example of the mechanical improvements which may be imported from Europe and worked by the people.

Implements of production worked by hand-power are also comparatively inexpensive, and therefore, it would be possible for a young man to start an industrial enterprise without a large outlay of capital. The conditions of success are, I believe, these:—

First, a young man with a good English education which has taught him to think for himself and who is sufficiently familiar with English to be able to read freely and easily anything bearing upon his industry. The second requisite is a readiness on the part of progressive and public-spirited Muhammadans to embark small sums of money in such industrial enterprises. The capital required to start such an enterprise as I am contemplating would probably not exceed Rs. 5,000 or Rs. 10,000: with a part of this capital the young manager would buy a few of the improved implements from Europe after having carefully studied and mastered the European process of manufacture; he would then engage some local craftsmen upon fixed wages and would sell the finished product in the local market, i.e., to shopkeepers in the bazaar. I am not speaking altogether at random as some of you are probably

aware. One such industrial enterprise has already been started in the Punjab by Mr. Muhammad Shafi and there is a good augury of his success.

This is how Mr. Havell has told the story of his undertaking:—"After a course of instruction at the Technical College of Tokio he has set up a hand-loom factory which has now been working for six months. He brought from Japan an excellent model of a good loom worked by treadle and a warping mill and creel of the improved European pattern. He employed the local *mistris* to copy the loom, six of which are now worked by local weavers; the latter became expert in a few weeks and turn out at least three times as much cloth in a day of 8 hours as a whole family can do on the ordinary native loom in 10 or 12 hours. The conditions of work are so satisfactory that each weaver is content with four annas a day, which is about the earnings of a whole family with the old native loom; their women folk and children are now free to do their work or to attend entirely to domestic concerns. From the proprietor's point of view the enterprise is not less satisfactory; at present he makes a profit of eight annas a day on each loom, and as the number of looms increases the working expenses of the factory will be correspondingly diminished." Such is Mr. Havell's account and you can see from this how very remunerative the direction of our industrial enterprise may be; Mr. Muhammad Shafi has been at work for six months and his initial outlay was obviously small, but he is making an income of about Rs. 75 a month. I presume he will extend his business, and I hope he may soon have 60 looms at work in place of 6, in which case his earnings will be Rs. 750 a month. But what I want specially to call your attention to is that the idea of an improved hand-loom was put forward many years ago by Mr. Havell before even Mr. Muhammad Shafi went to Japan, and that in the same publication he indicated that there were several other industries which could be similarly conducted by improved European process. It is not necessary that young Muhammadans should undertake long journeys to foreign countries in order to acquire familiarity with this really simple conception that by the adoption of the best mechanical contrivances hand-power can still compete against steam-power where labour is cheap, and that this is the surest and readiest way to introduce manufacturing industries into the country. Mr. Havell's letter in the *Pioneer* immediately arrested my attention because of the enormous industrial change which is implied in the successful revival of hand-weaving and other

industries worked by manual labour. I think, too, that I was especially drawn to the question because it is one in which Muhammadans have a particular interest. A very large proportion of the hand-weavers of India are Muhammadans and their industry has been for years in a depressed condition; if there are means by which hand-weaving can again be made to pay, the Muhammadans should be the first to consider them. But no Muhammadan appears to have paid attention to this new idea, and Mr. Havell was for years a voice crying in the wilderness.

I have dwelt upon this particular example because I believe it may serve as an illustration of the way by which we may coax the Muhammadan middle-class into industrial occupations. We have to deal with a people who are unfamiliar with business methods and therefore we must begin with small undertakings which require neither very large capital nor great organising capacity: as the young Muhammadan manager learns how to direct a small factory and to satisfy his market, he will gradually extend his business out of savings; the craftsmen or labourers are for the most part unskilled and uneducated and they must therefore be engaged upon industries and in methods of production which are not very remote from their previous experience. These conditions are all satisfied by small factories for hand-weaving; and as the Indian market for textile fabrics is enormous, this is the industry with which we should begin. We have also a fair number of young Muhammadans with an education sufficient to enable them to conduct such enterprises with success. I have no doubt that particular individuals of unusual enterprise and originality like Mr. Muhammad Shafi will, from time to time, come forward to pioneer the way towards new industrial developments; but if we have to wait until enterprising young men show us the way, we shall probably have to wait a long time. I have had 15 years' experience to convince me how difficult is the choice of a career for our students. They have naturally no knowledge of the world which would enable them to judge of the chances offered in different professions; their parents in the present generation usually know no English and have but a hazy perception of the conditions of modern life; under such circumstances can we expect any considerable number of them to try experiments in unfamiliar professions of which they have no concrete and permanent example before their eyes?

To overcome this, which I believe to be the greatest obstacle, and to supply some of the initial capital required, I should like to see a

small Joint Stock Company formed among Muhammadans for the purpose of starting small industrial concerns. The capital need not be large; I should think that Rs. 50,000 would be enough to begin with; the share-holders would divide amongst themselves the profits made in successful concerns after paying the manager a reasonable salary; when the young business was thoroughly established, the manager would be given the opportunity of buying it at a price equal to the capital invested by the Company, i.e., at cost price, and in my opinion he ought to be given facilities for buying out the Company by instalments. When the Company had got back its capital out of one concern it would seek other openings and other young men to start in business. I want you to remember that it would be a philanthropic Company of which the primary object would be the introduction of Muhammadans into industrial pursuits, but I think that the investors should, and probably would, get a fair return upon their money. The great object which I want to secure is that some of these industrial concerns should be actually started, that the young Muhammadan should have before his eyes a definite concrete example of what an industrial occupation is; I want him to know the style of work and the probable amount of income which an industrial career offers him; above all I want him to get into touch or, rather, to become personally acquainted with those already engaged in commerce and industry.

I myself do not believe that business can be taught theoretically; a great part of it depends upon personal acquaintance, and I don't think that technical schools or business classes can teach anything like as much as the example of several commercial houses actually at work. In Bombay and Rangoon it is not necessary to organise a philanthropic company to pioneer the way, because there the Mussulmans have the example of European firms before their eyes and they have not been slow to copy them. But in Northern India commerce and industry are unfamiliar to the great bulk of the Muhammadan middle-class, and enlightened members of the community should attempt deliberately to create industrial openings for them.

If, however, we are to succeed in creating new industries in this part of India, we shall need a considerably greater supply of educated Muhammadans than we possess at present; new processes of production cannot be learnt from Europe without a good knowledge of English and a trained and versatile mind to understand what can be copied and what must be rejected. My own

belief is that nothing short of B. A. standard will suffice, and therefore I come back to what I said before in connection with the liberal professions. We want much ampler provision for B. A. teaching than we at present possess, and we must welcome all efforts at enlarging the opportunities for collegiate education for Muhammadans up to this point.

As a member of the University I must parenthetically say that this large increase of students reading for the B. A. degree from purely business motives raises a very difficult question of University reform. The presence of all these young men, who have no intention of becoming scholars, must inevitably prevent the Senate from raising the intellectual standard of the B. A. degree. One of two courses will have to be adopted; either the B. A. must be frankly recognised as the termination of a merely secondary education and all true scholarship must come afterwards in the form of a three years' M. A. course, or the University must organise a new course, which might be perhaps a three years' course after the Entrance, designed especially for those who wanted to enter the professions, or commerce, or Government service; and the degree classes would be left to those who were ambitious of becoming scholars. These are reforms which the remodelled Universities will have to deal with and upon which I, who am about to quit the scene, should not offer an opinion. I only warn you that for the sake of the material progress of the people you must have an abundance of colleges in which an education approximately equivalent to that of the present B. A. classes can be given; you may call this education by what name you like, but instruction up to this standard and in abundance is necessary for the material and moral development of the people.

Such, gentlemen, are the suggestions I have to offer for the relief of material poverty. To every individual the relief of his physical wants necessarily appears the most urgent of his claims, and therefore I have given it the first place in my remarks. But when discussing intellectual poverty I wish no longer to consider the question from the point of view of the individual but to treat of the Mussalman community as a whole and to offer my suggestion for the cure of that intellectual backwardness, that poverty of ideas, by which, as a community, they are unhappily distinguished to-day. From this point of view I consider intellectual poverty to be a far worse evil than material poverty. In itself it is a greater and more deep-seated evil, and in your community particularly the want of ideas is

at present more acute than the want of wealth. There are still some Muhammadans in India who possess large estates and great fortunes, but the number of scholars and thinkers in your community is miserably small.

I fear that I may give you pain by speaking my mind plainly, but, as I said before, I should be very unworthy of the honour you have done me in making me your President if I shrink from a salutary candour. I am compelled to say that the present level of thought in the Muhammadan community is very low; Muhammadan social life is very barren of ideas and the condition of society is reflected in the poverty of literature; your children do not often hear intellectual subjects discussed at home, and they consequently grow up unfamiliar with the ideas and conceptions which the rest of the civilised world is eagerly discussing. An intellectual lethargy seems to have fallen upon your people and the things of the mind no longer interest them. If I were asked to give proof of these unpleasant assertions, I should quote in support of what I say, the indifference of Muhammadans to European culture. There was a time when the eager and alert mind of the Arabs drank up with avidity the learning of all other nations, but at the present day the lethargic slumber of the Muslim community has hardly been ruffled by the impact of Western ideas. No people that took any interest in the things of the mind could have failed to be deeply moved and interested by the revelation of European thought. Now if your people had inquired into and rejected English education, I should have respected although I deplored their conduct. I have always respected the bigoted Moulvi who stands stubbornly upon the ancient ways and who refuses to abandon, for the sake of this world's good, the old civilisation in which Islam was cradled. This man at least has ideas and an intellectual conception to guide his conduct although, to my mind, a sadly mistaken one. But the great bulk of Muhammadans do not reject Western culture at all; they simply take no interest in it; they are not bigoted but apathetic. And you all know that they are as indifferent to the old learning as the new, for do they not suffer Arabic and Persian scholarship to languish into decay? This is what I mean by the intellectual poverty of your community, and it is to the relief of this that I wish you to turn your attention.

Before making any suggestions of my own I should like to refer to an opinion I have heard expressed by some Muhammadans who do recognise and deplore the intellectual backwardness of their community. These gentlemen believe that, if

once we can overcome the material poverty of the Mussalmans, culture and scholarship will inevitably follow in the train of material prosperity.

"Let us," they say, "first get rich and then we will quickly remove the prejudice and ignorance which at present depress our people." Nothing in my opinion can be further from the truth. I do not need to go outside your own community in order to show how baseless such anticipations are. Look at the Mussalmans of Bombay and Rangoon. In the prosperous city of Bombay there is no community, neither the Parsi nor the English, which is as rich as the Muhammadans; in Rangoon, too, there are, I hear, merchant princes in comparison with whom even the Barons of Oudh are poor and who take rank with some of the great millionaires of the world. But what, in comparison with their resources, have the Mussalmans of either of those cities done to elevate the intellectual credit of the Muslim community? There are, of course, a few honourable exceptions among them, but as a general rule it is true of them to say that they buy, they sell, and they grow rich, they give costly gifts to the shrines of saints and lavish money upon gaudy ceremonies which are strangely remote from the austere simplicity of Islam. But which of them has achieved anything in the realms of thought? Which of them has guided his people towards wiser and nobler ideals of life? Which of them has done for his community half as much as a poor scholar like Moulvi Hali? Believe me, it is not the experience of your community alone but the common experience of mankind that busy professional men do not generally contribute much to the world's stock of ideas, and therefore you need not be surprised or disappointed that the wealthy merchants and prosperous pleaders of your community have done but little to enrich Muhammadan thought. This is why I am convinced that an accession of material prosperity will not do much to rouse your people from their intellectual stagnation.

But there is, I believe, a cure for this evil, and I shall not spend many words in introducing it to you, for you have already heard about it. It is the creation of a Muhammadan University. Let me explain briefly how this remedy, which I prescribe, would operate. In every community there are certain ideas which are a general possession; there is a certain level of knowledge which is common to the whole community; and, by the knowledge and ideas which are prevalent in it, the community is judged; these form the standard of its culture. The intellectual life of a nation is enriched by the presence in it of great scholars and thinkers, whose ideas, first published in the form

of books, or speeches, or lectures, gradually filter down among the people and become at length a part of every man's mental requirements. If you will think a little it will be obvious to you that the people of almost every country derive their ideas mainly from books. Of course a highly cultured people will surround itself with museums and picture galleries, it will have literary and scientific clubs and societies for the investigation of particular branches of thought, but the great source of ideas even in such a society is books. Even if we admit that certain leaders of thought prefer to convey their ideas by means of lectures and pamphlets or even through the columns of a newspaper, they yet, as much as the authors of books, belong to the literary class whose occupation is science, scholarship or literature. It is the profession as well as the distinction of such men to be learned as well as masters of style. Now by a University I mean a place which would create such men and provide a home and an occupation for them. Please rid your minds of all Indian associations; I do not mean a University of the type of Calcutta or Allahabad, which are only Examining Boards with a Charter from Government to confer degrees and which do not, as far as I am aware, foster or encourage learning at all. I am thinking of a University which shall be in reality an abode of learning, which shall bring together in one place the best available masters of various branches of learning to teach and to study their respective subjects, which shall provide them with laboratories and libraries and museums and the journals of learned and scientific societies all over the world. These men living together in an atmosphere of thought and learning, will stimulate each other's mental activity, and they will originate ideas which they will diffuse among the world outside in the form of books. I want you to notice a distinction, which will differentiate them from such writers as exist at the present day in your community; they will all be well-informed men, conversant with the best thoughts of Europe, and they will write with the knowledge that there is at their doors a learned and critical public to judge their work. Surely these men are more likely than any others to contribute something of value to Muhammadan thought and to enrich your society with new ideas. I do not, of course, expect that every Professor or Fellow in a University should be an original thinker, but I do contend that these men would, by continual converse with each other, give birth to a body of ideas which would become the accepted opinion of the University and would be ultimately diffused throughout the community. I may perhaps be told that the principal thinkers

of England do not reside at the Universities; my reply to that is that in England libraries and a learned society are to be found in many other places than the University towns, but that the essential conditions of a learned life do not exist at present anywhere in India, and that the function of your University is to create them.

Let me now enter into particulars and consider how this idea of a Muhammadan University may be practically realised.

I want this University to be situated in Aligarh where we have already a good Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College which has succeeded in developing a very fair residential system.

Upon this foundation I would build the first step towards the raising of the Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College into a University that will consist in making provision for advanced study in one subject. By this I do not mean merely the appointment of a single professor, however highly paid. I mean (1) the appointment of three or four persons for the study and teaching of that subject exclusively; (2) the provision of a library as complete as it can be made of books bearing upon this subject and (3) the creation of a few fellowships, or stipends to be given to young scholars who have passed examinations in that subject, and who wish to push their researches further.

This provision for advanced study is sometimes known as the school or faculty of a particular branch of knowledge, and the procedure which I recommend is that one by one different faculties or schools of advanced study should be added to the Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College.

The first addition which we propose is the creation of a Faculty of Arabic.

We want first of all a thoroughly good Library of Arabic books. We need to have good lexicons and books of reference for the use of scholars; editions of all the Arabic classic publications of the Oriental and Egyptian presses and texts that have been published and edited by European scholars. The Library will need an endowment so as to be able to buy all the works upon Arabic scholarship that are published from time to time, and to take in the journals of Oriental Societies in foreign countries.

There must be a European Professor of Arabic who is familiar with the European methods of scholarship, and, working with him, an Indian scholar trained in Europe and Egypt.

As time advanced, I think that we should certainly find that we needed to have one scholar from Persia working under these teachers and collaborating with them.

I should like to see two or three Indian Muhammadans drawing fellowships of Rs. 50 or Rs. 100 a month, with the help of which they would continue to study after having taken their M.A. degree.

Last of all would be the students who were reading the course for the M. A. degree in Arabic, which the new Senate of the University will, I hope, thoroughly overhaul and extend to three years. This is a provision you should make in one branch of study, as his Honour the Lieutenant-Governor is hoping to get for us the Government grant for this special purpose.

I am confident that the work is well begun and that it will soon come to a happy conclusion.

Your next duty after providing for Arabic is to create and endow upon an equal scale a Faculty of Science. This will be a much larger undertaking than equipping the Arabic Faculty, because there are many branches of Science and for each branch the expenses for a laboratory are required, but great as is the expenses of a Science Faculty I want to urge on you to begin the foundation of it.

I want you to send young Muhammadans who have already shown promise in Indian Universities to be trained in Europe.

They must be men of considerable proficiency who are able in Europe to begin at once upon the advanced course of study. Let them begin with an English University and continue their studies in France and Germany. They must stay a considerable time, at least five or six years, in Europe to work well and under the great leaders of scientific thought. Then, and then only, will they be competent to initiate the schools of advanced studies in India.

When you have thus provided for their training and surrounded them with Laboratories and Museums and a good Library which receives the great scientific journals of the world you must allow them reasonable leisure for original work and higher studies.

The creation of a Faculty first of Arabic, and then of Science are the two steps which I can foresee in the enlargement of the Aligarh College. Other faculties would follow later on, each with no less ample provision for teaching and reading.

A Faculty of History should be the next addition because it would naturally drive much support and assistance from the Arabic Faculty.

When by the addition of one Faculty to another you have made provision for the higher study of the principal branches of knowledge, the time will have come to approach the Government with a petition for a Charter to confer Degrees upon the ground that the Aligarh College has become in fact a residential and teaching University.

I believe this Charter would be given you, but I do not consider it very important whether you ever get the official title or not. It is not the "name, but the thing" which your community needs, and a University will be a fact whether it has a name or no, when three or four faculties are fully equipped and when the ideals from the Aligarh College are beginning to permeate the community.

Gentlemen, I hope the day will come when the scholars of Europe will watch with interest all the publications which issue from the University Press of Aligarh; but if the Muhammadans are ever to see that day dawn it will only be by deciding to centralize all higher scholarships at Aligarh. Even from the meagre outline I have sketched, you can understand how large is the task you have to undertake. It is folly to dream of attempting to create two such centres in India. If such a University as I am thinking of ever becomes an accomplished fact, I doubt whether another will be wanted for a couple of centuries in the whole of the Islamic world. You may build second grade colleges and call them by big names, and you may petition your Government to give them charters, but not one of them will ever become a focus of learning for all the high sounding titles you may coin for them. For so large a scheme as the establishment of an intellectual centre, for the creation of soul to the Islamic community, you must all unite without thought of petty local interest. Such, gentlemen, are the remedies which I have to suggest for the material and for the intellectual poverty of which I spoke in the beginning. For the relief of the first, i.e., material poverty, you should found high schools and second grade colleges, and by all means in your power increase the facilities for general education throughout the Moslem community, and through the agency of a joint stock open up industrial careers for young Muhammadans who have received fair general education. In order to remedy the second evil and to cure the intellectual poverty of your people you should create in Aligarh a seat

of learning, where some scholars and men of science of your community may become acquainted with the widest compass of human thought and enrich your language and your social life with learning and wisdom. Which of these large tasks, you may ask me, is to be undertaken first? I should prefer to answer that you must work at them both side by side; both are equally necessary and that one will derive help from the other, but if you are faint-hearted and will only undertake one of them, I say unhesitatingly, begin with the University, cure your intellectual poverty first, for that is your greater need. From your University ideas will filter downwards and permeate the mass of people; your scholars and men of science will be your apostles of the gospel of education. They will assist that spread of general education of which your professional classes are in need, and by their presence in your midst you will have constantly before you the standard of learning, and your eyes will be opened to the ignorance of your community. I cannot commend to you a better or more inspiring example to imitate than the history of the German people. Little less than a century ago they were disunited, wasted by war and miserably poor. Farsighted men, who then controlled the Government, based their schemes of reorganisation upon education. They insisted upon a very high standard of education as a qualification for all the higher walks of life and they assisted Universities liberally. They fostered learning and scholarship as good in themselves even though they resulted in no material gains, and in less than a century the knowledge has been justified of her children in Germany even when measured by the grossest standards.

If there were some who could not appreciate Germany's proud position at the head of European scholarship and others who could not value the immense advances made by her people in morality, civilization and all the amenities of life, at least even the most vulgar judges can understand the benefits of her present commercial and industrial prosperity, which has come in the end as a direct consequence of the education and intellectual development of her people.

I beg you to take the same high view of your duty towards your community. Put aside the squabbles and jealousies which too often disfigure your councils, and unite to realise a great and worthy ideal of national life.

THE RHODES BEQUEST AND UNIVERSITY FEDERATION.

Mr. J. Churton Collins writing on the above subject (December, 04, *The Nineteenth Century and After*) says that in the Rhodes bequest to the University of Oxford, and in the institution of an Imperial Council of Universities, we have the foundation, broad and solid of an alliance and relationship between England and the colonies unparalleled alike both in their significance and potentialities. The significance lies in a keen witted man of affairs recognising the necessity of young men in the colonies coming under the discipline and traditions of the English University system; it lies in the fact that the colonies hitherto absorbed in the development of their material resources and the practical work of politics show their sense of the importance of higher education and culture. The educational tie will add to the strength of the ties already existing between the United Kingdom and the colonies.

What is aimed at is the establishment of a federative union between colonial institutions 'of University rank' and the Universities of Great Britain—in other words—of a central Imperial Academic Council, with equality of privileges, the interchange of students and teachers, and mutual assistance in the furtherance of post graduate studies and original research. Mr. Bryce expressed the object of the new movement as follows: "That which a great University does as the organ of the intellectual life of the nation in each community may, to some extent, be done by a combination of Universities for the united national life of the whole British world. The Universities may thus be led to feel themselves part of one great whole, and may all the more effectively bend their united energies to the advancement of knowledge and to the discovery of truth."

The educational advantage will be to vitalise and broaden education in English Universities bringing it still more intimately into contact with civil life and with the needs of civil life by catholicising its ideals and submitting its methods to practical tests. It would secure efficiency in teachers as well as efficiency in instruction and curricula. For colonials know what they want, and not finding it in one place, would very soon discover where it was to be found. It would enable those who are engaged in the various departments of education—to interchange experiences and ideas. Without reducing all Univer-

sities to a common type, it would promote solidarity in all that pertains to the humanities. It would fix or tend to fix the highest standards of aim and attainment as general standards. There would be educational activity all along the line. It would not be too much of science and too little of the humanities in some Universities and *vice versa* elsewhere as now. The interchange of students and teachers would act beneficially on both. The academic system would not get into grooves and ruts, becoming mechanical and stereotyped. The really competent teachers would have a career thrown open to them. Young men, competent men occupying subordinate positions will come to the front. And the gain to education would be great by such an arrangement.

The benefits to the students will be equally great. There is the higher standard of the humanities teaching in the English Universities to stimulate them to put forth their best efforts, there are the facilities for literary and historic research, for post graduate studies in general. In the matter of science the advantage is not all on the side of the older Universities. Some of the colonial Universities may be expected to offer special facilities for the pursuit of studies in particular branches of science. British youths may resort to such places for specialising in these subjects.

The council now being formed must undertake to do the following if the objects of the movement are to be realised:—

1. Providing a central institute for information where all that is at work in the various allied Universities should be reported and all the facilities for mutual reciprocity of advantages co-ordinated.
2. Arranging conferences to keep the Universities in touch with each other and to communicate and discuss suggestions and proposals likely to be of mutual benefit.
3. Facilitating interchanges of students, of teachers when desirable and keeping a register of graduates for progressive staff appointments.
4. Encouraging Universities to specialise in those branches of studies where they have special facilities.
5. Securing uniformity with regard to entrance and pass-degrees so that there may be no delay in pursuit of post graduate studies.
6. Organising research scholarships and fellowships in Science and in the humanities.

7. Offering prizes for original contributions to any branch of study—especially on questions of imperial interest.

8. Providing adequate financial support and utilising all the energies and enthusiasm now available.

HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIA

is the title of a contribution to the January number of the *Nineteenth Century and After* by the Lord Bishop of Madras. He finds that the results, whether intellectual or moral, of the system of education introduced from the West, are not wholly satisfactory. (1) The first and most obvious defect of higher education in this country is the divorce of education from religion. In India of old religion supplied the whole motive of the education of the Brahman and dominated the system. The teacher taught because it was a religious duty and the pupil learnt for the same reason. The new system is severely secular. It is an improvement on the old one. It gives the student the key to the intellectual treasures of both East and West. The new student not only possesses a more extensive knowledge than the student of the earlier days but he looks at the world and his fellow men in a truer light. But it is not all gain. An 'utilitarian spirit' has been cultivated. The love of learning is almost non-existent in our Universities. The utilitarian spirit checks the development of University Education. Students will go to the colleges that cram best for the examinations, not to those that will give the best intellectual training. Education divorced from religion has little effect on character, says the Bishop. No doubt the discipline of school and college has a moral value. But we want something more,—a powerful moral force to elevate and purify character. Patriotism has been an effective and powerful stimulus in Japan. In India there is no such thing as patriotism among the masses. But religion has been influential. The one hope of a great moral change in the peoples of India lies in the sphere of religion. "The future of India depends not so much upon the statesman or educationist as upon the missionary."

(2) Another defect is that the medium of instruction is English. This adds to the difficulty of boys understanding lectures and thinking

and expressing themselves in a foreign language. Memory is too exclusively cultivated. The power of independent thought is crushed under the oppressive weight of a foreign language. Knowledge is not thoroughly assimilated. Here again the case of Japan is instructive. The medium of instruction in Japan is the vernacular. The Japanese have been able to grasp and understand the new ideas of Western literature and science far more readily than the people of India.

(3) The difficulty arises from the rapid growth of Indian Universities. The five Universities produce about 7000 odd matriculates. Of these only 4000 proceed to the University course. It is not large for India. But it is too large for efficiency. The Bishop thinks that at least half, if not two thirds, of the students at the various colleges ought not to be studying at a University at all. Neither their abilities nor their previous teaching fit them for a University education. The teaching and lecturing have to be adapted to the majority and the standard of examination has to be lowered.

The first step towards any real improvement in University education is either to reduce the number of students or to separate the best students from the ruck. The establishment of a separate Honours course in each group of subjects would effect the reform. The Universities Commission lost a good opportunity of effecting such a reform. As it is, "the Universities must continue the attempt to combine two wholly distinct functions, the provision of a commercial education for men who are destined to become office clerks and the due cultivation of the really fine intellect which India possesses, and which, with proper training, might bring a valuable contribution to the philosophic thought and speculation of the world."

OUR ENGLISH LETTER.

CAMBRIDGE, December, 1904.

Among the interesting books recently published, few are more interesting, to all who are beyond the stage of sensation-novels, than Mr. F. D. How's 'Six Great School-masters'. In a series of Plutarch-like essays, Mr. How treats of the life and work of Kennedy of Shrewsbury, Moberly of Winchester, Vaughan of Harrow, Hawtrey of Eton, Temple of Rugby, and Bradley of Marlborough. He confines himself to a period of thirty years, from 1835 to 1865, and omits those of whom a comprehensive

biography has been produced; thus there is no appreciation of Arnold and Thring, two school-masters certainly greater than any of his six. A more important omission still is that of Head-masters like Wiggery, who did not belong to great schools, but whose influence was as original and far-reaching, in its own sphere, as that of Arnold himself; and another omission is that of assistant-masters like Bowen, Bonamy Price, or Prince Lee, all of whom were men of immense power and great talent, which they ungrudgingly exercised in subordinate positions. Nevertheless, those who wish to see what an English public-school was like, and the extent and limitations of its Head's authority, can hardly do better than read this book. To these six men, in more or less measure, belongs some of the credit for the vast transformation which the character of our public-schools has undergone in the last sixty years. Kennedy, the last successful of the six (apart from his wonderful power of infusing enthusiasm into classical scholars) was the first to give each boy at Shrewsbury a separate bed and some chance of performing daily ablutions! Hawtrey put down the custom of drinking in public-houses. Bradley suppressed poaching. The school-boy of 1835 was emphatically not a gentleman. In 1904, with all his faults, a gentleman he is; and the improvement is largely due to these six men.

But there still remains much to be done. All these masters were clerics—it is now rapidly becoming plain that this narrowing of the field of selection for Head-masters has had the effect of excluding some of the best teachers, scholars, and even preachers, from posts for which they are admirably fitted. Again, the improvement in manners has not been accompanied by an enlargement of knowledge. The public-school boy is still 'deplorably ignorant—more ignorant, perhaps, than his predecessor of 1830: his range of interests now includes the athletic field but hardly the literary or the scientific world. Tradition still dominates the schools and the Head-masters as much as the boys. There is still also that exclusiveness, that exaggerated pride in Alma Mater, which leads the public-school boy to despise those who come from other places of learning; and which to a large extent explains the *hauteur* that makes Englishmen so detested abroad. The problem is still to retain the good while eliminating the bad; and, as usual, the bad is found to be very tenacious in its grip.

How tenacious tradition is, is shown by the recent discussions on the retention of Greek in the 'Little Go' as a compulsory subject. Debates

have been held on this question both at Oxford and at Cambridge during the last term; but as yet only Oxford has gone to the vote. The motion that certain exceptions should be made to the rule that all candidates for 'Responsions' (the official name for the first examination at Oxford) was rejected by 202 votes to 166. Some such result was anticipated after the exceedingly narrow majority (two only) by which the preliminary stage was carried. It cannot be said that the discussions were illuminating.

It is much to be feared that there will be a similar result at Cambridge, although the discussion is being spread over a longer time, and although the recommendation to substitute a modern language for Greek comes with the *imprimatur* of a special commission appointed to consider the question. The commission took a moderate and plausible line. To placate the thick and thin supporters of the Greek or Orthodox Greek *semper*, Greek *ubique*, and Greek *ab omnibus* the Report began by saying that a sound knowledge of Greek gives an education that can hardly be given in any other way. But, true or not as this opinion may be, it has failed to appease the opponents of change, who suspect the cloven foot everywhere.

The fact is, that the question whether Greek is a necessary factor of a liberal education or not is not here in point. The 'Little Go' does not ask for Greek; it asks a few questions in grammar and a literal translation, got out of a 'crib', of a few hundred lines of a Greek author; and it passes a man who gets thirty per cent. This is no more asking for Greek than asking for Tamil or Telugu. Yet it was on the general ground of the value of Greek as an educative means that most of the speeches, both at Oxford and at Cambridge, against the abolition of compulsory Greek were based. Even Sir William Anson, Professor Barnes, and Sir Richard Jebb, in speeches otherwise admirable and forceful, argued rather in favour of retaining the study of Greek as a special pursuit than for the motion they nominally defended. No one is likely to deny that Greek, properly learnt, is a thing well worth knowing: what is denied is that the modicum demanded for the 'Little Go' is of any use to anybody. Small as is that modicum, it is usually utterly forgotten in a few weeks.

It is interesting to compare, not the names of those who know little about schools as distinct from universities, but the names of practical teachers on either side of this important question. For retaining compulsory Greek we find Dr. Warre of Eton, Dr. James of Rugby, and

Dr. Gow of Westminster, who declare that the suppression of Greek would spoil the classical side of a school without improving the modern. On the other side is a list which, without offence, we may call far more imposing. It includes men, who are in every way more abreast with modern life than the three we have mentioned, while in no sense inferior to them in general or even classical culture. Mr. Paton, of Manchester, knows the needs of the day if any one does; and he is for abolition. Mr. Glazebrook, of Clifton, regards compulsory Greek as an unmitigated evil. Mr. Sanderson, Head-master of that rapidly-rising school, Oundle, thinks 'Pass Greek' of very doubtful value. Dr. Wood, of Harrow, may be set off against Dr. Warre of Eton. One thing is certain: that unless the older universities move with the times the newer ones will pass them in the race.

I ought not to omit to mention the deaths of two of the best-known Oxford men of the senior generation, Thomas Fowler and Albert Watson. Dr. Fowler had been for more than twenty years President of Corpus. He had been Professor of Logic, and his works on the Deductive and Inductive branches of the Science were once well-known; but perhaps his best book was his edition of Bacon's *Novum Organum*. He was not, perhaps, a great scholar; but his devotion both to his college and to his University made him almost invaluable, while his geniality made him deservedly popular. His lectures, with their occasional humour and quaint simplicity, will be long remembered by his old pupils.

Mr. Watson was of a different type from Dr. Fowler, though the two were close friends, and though it is not unlikely that the death of the one hastened that of the other. He was a first-class scholar; and his *Select Letters of Cicero* will long remain as a text-book. He was elected Principal of Brasenose in 1885; but he did not care for official life, and resigned the post in 1889. The rest of his years were spent in the learned leisure he loved. It is a pity he wrote so little, for his knowledge was great. No one indeed, in the whole University, had so large a stock of curious out-of-the-way information on all sorts of subjects. He was one of the last of the old kind of dons; and his like will not be seen for many years.

Dr. Gray, Warden of Bradfield College, has given (as I learn from the *London Journal of Education*) a very remarkable statement of the views to which his experience, a long and honourable one, has led him. They are in every way noteworthy, as coming from a man so close-

ly connected with a public school of the most orthodox British type, and they deserve therefore all the more consideration from those Panglosses who imagine that we in England are living in the best of all possible educational worlds. First, Dr. Gray is by no means convinced that boarding-schools are the best training-ground for boys; they seem to him rather a relic of medieval monasticism than a natural off-shoot of modern life. Secondly, he is by no means a blind advocate of compulsory athletics—that simple method by which masters shuffle off the responsibility of the moral training of boys on to the boys themselves. Thirdly, he is more than half in favour of the co-education of boys and girls. Those who are acquainted with the total loss of delicacy of manners that seems to be inseparable from the life of public schools, however much it may be disguised by a certain external refinement, will be inclined, if not entirely, to agree with Dr. Gray, to say that there is something in what he says.

Reviews and Notices.

THE *PRÆDO* OF PLATO, EDITED WITH INTRODUCTION AND NOTES, BY HAROLD WILLIAMSON, B.A., LONDON, (MACMILLAN & CO., 1904.) pp. xxxix, 251. 4s. 6d.

Spencer in his recently published Autobiography assured us that he could not appreciate Plato even in an English garb and seems almost to have come to Bentham's conclusion that the great preacher who was in reality the Father of Science, and in Macaulay's words, the first great martyr of intellectual liberty, can be dismissed from notice as a prattler and a bore. Mill admits that Bentham's estimate of Socrates, as with many of his judgments on the work of other men, was based upon no real insight into his life and teaching. Bentham, he tells us, resolutely denies all that he does not see, all truths but those which he recognises. No one who posed as a philosopher ever set out with a more limited conception of human life. In spite of Mill's warning, Spencer betrays similar limitations, with this difference, that he is more conscious of them, and is good enough to admit that he is of opinion, from stray quotations he has met with in his reading, that there may be more in Plato than he has been at the pains to find.

How different the witness of a modern Cambridge Platonist who is in earnest with Evolution, and in the light of whose clear teaching

the paralysing night-mare called 'Unknowable' vanishes with the day, as the advancing tide of the Human Sciences and the Science of Human Personality bursts in full flood upon the frail and shallow-founded fencing built by the faint-hearted and feeble-minded to mark the confines of man's knowledge of his fate!

'The study of *The Phædo* at sixteen,' says Frederic Myers, 'effected upon me a kind of conversion.'

We are led to make the above reflections on reading through Mr. Williamson's excellent little work on *The Phædo*, a work which, it does not need the author's own confession to convince his readers, has been indeed a labour of love. The book is intended primarily for students of the Greek original. But Philosophers as well as scholars may find much here to interest them. In the clearly written account of the Socratic teaching and the personality of the master, we note one omission. Nothing is said of those remarkable experiences of a communion with the invisible world which distinguish him from all other Greek seekers after wisdom and connect him rather with the Jews who required a sign. It is true that on p. 109 our author does explain the expression *aneu theias moiras* as referring to the Socratic guardian angel, but considering the controversy which from the earliest period has raged about this question, and that Socrates has been seriously counted amongst the victims of insanity by the school which James has christened 'medical materialism,' and that much new light has been thrown upon the subject by recent advances in experimental Psychology, its importance for forming any true estimate of the great Hellenic prophet deserved some more notice than four lines in small print at the end of the book.

Is all genius madness, at the bottom as the followers of Lombroso seek to show? Or does not the charge recoil upon its authors and bear witness to their own imbecility and want of insight which whether we call it madness or no, is certainly not possessed of that method and practical utility which is the characteristic of true genius all the world over. True genius is living, expanding, constructive, discovering and creative, not dead or belittling or contracting as the very root of the word in all the Aryan languages shows. The great psychologist who was inspired at such an early age by the Master's great discourse upon "death" has shown how naturally the case of Socrates falls into its proper place in his classification of the forms the working of the subliminal life may take. The

genius is really the norm, the type of the complete man in the conscious exercise of those undreamed of faculties, whether on the practical or intellectual sides of human nature, which if he only knew are each man's rightful heritage but into the conscious possession of which he has not yet come. This is what Myers means by the Man below the Threshold, those submerged portions of our personality which we may roughly liken to those isles of Greece which Socrates loved so well rising in single majesty or picturesque grouping above the wine-dark sea but underneath forming one continuous chain with the axes of the mountain ranges that were the glory of his native land.

On p. 120 there is an interesting note, distinguishing the possible interpretations of *en phroua tini*. Our author, we think, takes the only view consistent with other similar passages in *The Phædo*, and particularly with the dramatic touch where Socrates is represented as opening the conversation while rubbing his leg after the removal of the chain, and again with the closing scene of all. Mr. Williamson here aptly quotes the well-known passage in the Sixth *Æneid* of Virgil, quoted again to illustrate Chapter XXX, and once more as a somewhat close translation of the expression *dia heirmou* in Chapter XXXIII. It is difficult to believe that Virgil had not *The Phædo* right before him when he wrote those lines which we have ventured to clothe in an English dress:—

A vital spark divine their seeds contain,
Its brightness dimmed by the dull body's stain,
And clogged by limbs of earth's corrupting mould and vain.
Hence all the passions of the human state,
Hope, fear, joy, sorrow, love, despair and hate.
Still can they not discern the heavenly day
Shut in a murky prison-house of clay.

Cicero's suggestion is ingenious but impossible in the context. Still the thought has been beautifully expressed in those last lines of George Romanes which considering his splendid achievements in Biology and his deep religious insight into the ultimate meaning of life we cannot resist transcribing:—

As Thou hast found me ready to Thy call,
Which stationed me to watch the outer wall,
And, quitting joys and hopes that once were mine,
To pace with patient steps this narrow line,
Oh! may it be that coming soon or late,
Thou still shalt find Thy soldier at the gate,
Who then may follow Thee till sight needs not to prove,
And Faith will be dissolved in Knowledge of Thy love.

We have already referred to the light modern Psychology has thrown upon the nature of the

Divine Sign. On p. 125, Mr. Williamson might perhaps have pointed out the relativity of those much abused expressions, 'reality' and 'hallucination' and how in passing from a lower to a higher point of view, there is necessarily a continuity between the two planes or 'worlds.' A modern poet, Mr. Stephen Phillips, has strangely corroborated the poets Plato speaks of:—

Our senses muffle us from that real world
Which lies about us. We are duped by brightness.
The ear, the eye, doth make us deaf and blind,
Else should we be aware of all our dead,
That pass above us, through us, and beneath us.

Mr. Williamson might also have quoted Tennyson in a passage conveying the same lesson:—

Oh God! I would not live,
Save that I thought this gross, hard-seeming world
Was the mis-shaping vision of the powers
Behind the world, that make our griefs our gains.

A modern comment this, on Anaxagoras' problem discussed in the XLVIth and XLVIIth Chapters, and Socrates' own distinction between the lifeless and passive objects, and the active, living, Persons who were really carrying them whose shadows even the prisoners had never seen, but only the reflections of things that were not moving of their own accord.

On p. 169, the prophetic yearning after 'Some Word of God' Mr. Williamson holds, rightly as we think, to have a first and conscious reference to the revelation of the Orphic mysteries. It is of course absurd to suppose that Plato here anticipated the advent of the next great Teacher who was to do for the moral and spiritual Jew what Socrates did for the intellectual Greek. But 'there's a Divinity that shapes our ends.' And if we believe in evolution at all, and trace a divine Plan gradually unfolding from the dawn of History, what more likely than that in the lower and earlier stages we should find hints and adumbrations of the ultimate purpose beyond? Coming events cast their shadows before, through the hearts and souls of 'mighty poets' in a way that those who have never been without the fleshly prison-house could never dream, much as movements possible in the space we know, to a being confined to two-dimensional existence, are impossible to conceive. And this is not the only reference in Plato that points onwards and upwards to a Divine Idea of manhood of which Socrates was the forerunner and type. The treatment of such a Perfectly Righteous person and how he would be mocked and crucified, Plato himself anticipates in an early Book of 'The Republic,' written certainly after the martyrdom of his beloved master, but four hundred years before

the death of Him who was not only the Saviour of Alcibiades the sinner, but of others too who are conscious that they are neither gods, nor angels, but men. To those, again, who have eyes to see, is there not a still deeper meaning in the passage discussing the problem of causation, already mentioned, where the cry goes up for "an Atlas stronger and more Divine" than the old Greek hero? Such indeed was He who "went out bearing the cross unto the place called Golgotha," "who His own self bare our sins in His own body, on the tree," and who yet "upholdeth all things by the word of His power."

On p. 199 in a note on *prelaphontes* Mr. Williamson might well have referred to the well-known Socratic parable. And again on p. 226 where the same idea reappears reference might have been made to the Sanskrit fable, that will occur to all Indian readers, as the exact parallel of the Greek expression *hospes peri telma batrachos*. Lastly, in regard to this old problem of the relativity of knowledge, it is interesting to those connected with Madras University to note that the authority of that sound Greek scholar, Mr. W. J. Goodrich, late Professor of English at Pachaiyappa's College, is quoted in support of Mr. Williamson's conclusion that Socrates is only joking when he complains that he was dazzled by the 'Reality' presented to him by the 'Naturalism and Agnosticism' of his contemporaries and so made shift with what he humbly or playfully calls his "second best" method, that method of definition, which has been the foundation of the world's progress in Science since his day. The Greek certainly as much as the sense seems to demand this interpretation.

Cicero tells us he could never close the *Phædo* with dry eyes. And dead must he be of body and dead of soul who priding himself on a cowardly surrender of the Truth of God and Immortality, to bear witness to which Socrates lived and wrought and died, can read unmoved that noble story of how the Prisoner was his glad release.

We have to thank Mr. Williamson for an edition of *The Phædo* worthy of our Alma Mater, Oxford, and worthy of the great College of Balliol, and the scholarship for which it is so justly famed.

EXAMPLES IN ALGEBRA, BY W. M. BAKER, M.A.,
AND A. A. BOURNE, M.A. (GEORGE BELL
AND SONS, 1904). Price 3s.

This book of examples selected from their own 'Elementary Algebra' has been published by the authors to meet the wish of many teachers who prefer that beginners in Algebra should have no text-book or set of worked-out examples in their hands. The collection is copious and comprehensive, and ought to prove very useful to students.

A NEW TRIGONOMETRY FOR SCHOOLS, PART II, BY
W. G. BORCHARDT, M.A., B.Sc. AND THE
REV. A. D. PERRITT, M.A. (GEORGE BELL
AND SONS, 1904). Price 2s.

This part treats of sub-multiple angles, the properties of triangles and quadrilaterals, and inverse trigonometrical functions, and contains in addition a few propositions in higher Trigonometry and an Appendix on the slide rule. The two parts of the book might have been more appropriately published in one volume.

ELEMENTS OF ARITHMETIC FOR THE STANDARDS, BY
T. S. PICHU IYENGAR, B.A., L.T., MATHE-
MATICS ASSISTANT, MUTHIALPET HIGH SCHOOL,
MADRAS. Price 8 annas.

The author seems to aim at a complete text-book of Arithmetic for the primary school and the subjects chosen are essentially primary. The treatment is good and clear.

We doubt, however, if the tables at the beginning cannot well be put at the end of the book; next there is the chapter of definitions which is quite out of place in the preliminary pages of an elementary work of this kind. We do not agree with the author in introducing the vinculum on page 29, the term complement of a number on page 58, nor in asking pupils to commit to memory addition and subtraction tables. The book is priced somewhat high for a primary school and the get-up is far from being satisfactory.

ALGEBRAICAL PROBLEMS WITH SOLUTIONS, BY K. R.
NANJIANI, B.A., HEADMASTER, TELANG HIGH
SCHOOL, GODHRA. Price 9 annas.

This book is a manual of pretensions. It presumes to be useful to Matric. and School Final candidates as a passport for success. It contains about 150 examples and "a few formulæ which are not to be found in any book on Algebra extant." Mr. Nanjiani must have gone through all extant works on Algebra to make a statement like this. It must be highly useful to those for whom it is intended.

A SCHOOL GEOMETRY, PART VI, BY HALL AND
STEVENS. (MACMILLAN). Price 1s. 6d.

This part contains the substance of Euclid XI, 1-21 and a number of useful theorems relating to the surfaces and volumes of elementary solid figures as the Cylinder, the cone and the sphere. We are inclined to consider the book of immense value to our B.A. students.

A NEW GEOMETRY FOR SENIOR FORMS, BY BARNARD
AND CHILD. (MACMILLAN). Price 3s. 6d.

This book forms the sequel to the New Geometry for Junior Forms by the author. It contains a complete course of Solid Geometry with many necessary theorems of Plane Geometry. The work is both practical and theoretical, the treatment is clear and methodical, and the examples are varied and numerous. We are quite sure that students of Engineering and of Geometry generally will derive immense advantage by carefully studying this work.

COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE WORLD, BY DR.
CARL ZEHDEN, TRANSLATED BY FINDLAY
MUIRHEAD. (BLACKIE AND SON.)

This is one of the best and most practical treatises on commercial geography. The plan of the book is very systematic, the exposition clear and the information that it contains is interesting and exhaustive. The merchant cannot find a better guide than this book as it supplies him with all possible and necessary information about the countries he may trade with and the articles he may deal in. That the book is already being used in numerous counting houses and offices is itself a sufficient proof of the immense popularity that the book enjoys. I

also deserves to be in the hands of every genuine student or teacher of geography.

The first twenty-seven pages discuss briefly but clearly the fundamental principles of astronomical and mathematical geography. In the next forty pages are explained the essentials of physical and commercial geography. The rest of the book covering more than five hundred pages deals with the commercial and political geography of each country in the world.

Throughout the book the close connection between the economic conditions of each country and its geographical peculiarities is clearly explained. Its value is increased by the presence of a map at the end illustrating the chief trade-routes of the world. The appendices giving interesting indications of the distribution of trade and the direction of its main currents are of immense value to the student or the merchant as they enable him to form an intelligent idea of the means of communication at the disposal of international commerce. The book leaves nothing to be desired. We only wish the book were copiously illustrated with maps of the different countries of the world.

A PRACTICAL MANUAL OF ENGLISH, BY N. G. WELINKAR, M.A., LL.B. (SRINIVASA, VARADACHARI & CO., MADRAS). Price Rs. 1-12-0.

This volume, of about 400 pages and treating of Grammar, Idiom, and Diction, is the most recent addition to that large class of books on "General English" which, in the absence of prescribed text-books for the Entrance Examination in some Indian Universities, have become the main literary pabulum of our students. The existence of these books encourages to some extent the schoolboy notion that English may be learned without much acquaintance with literature, though of course their authors are not responsible for it. Mr. Welinkar expressly says that English idiom can be mastered only by a careful study of the most modern prose. He intends it therefore to be used along with, and not in place of, standard literature. Used in that way, his book would be a great aid to the pupils of our schools and colleges. We are struck as much by the thoroughness and accuracy of Mr. Welinkar's scholarship as by his discernment of the needs of Indian students. The book may be recommended to all students of English, but the treatment is in some parts so minute that only college students can fully understand it.

The above represents our general impression of Mr. Welinkar's Manual, but we must not let the occasion pass without picking a few bones with him. And this not so much for the purpose of criticising him as for the purpose of showing that, on many points that arise in the daily work even of a Matriculation class, there is room for serious difference of opinion. Under eight general heads, the author exhibits exhaustively the use of the definite article with common nouns. But he seems in two cases to fall a victim to the grammarian's temptation to bring every usage under a rule. "I see the better course but follow the worse" is a happy illustration of the use of the where, one of two possibilities is thought of. Will the same explanation cover this instance: "He had the advantage over his opponent"? We confess we do not follow our author when he says with regard to it "Here only two possibilities are thought of, victory or defeat, and the first is singled out." Again in "The speaker was cheered to the echo," is it correct to say that the article specifies 'echo' as opposed to all other sounds? The following parsing is extraordinary: "He lives at 4, Circular Road, Calcutta." 4—Numerical adjective used as common noun in apposition to "Road." Then "Road" must be in apposition to "Calcutta," which would be in apposition to "India," if that word were included in the address. On page 47, the construction of one another in the sentence "Little children, love one another," is discussed in a most unintelligible manner; the last suggestion seems to us the only admissible one. We knew that the cognate object is not always derived from the same root as the governing verb, but we were not prepared for seeing a cognate object in such expressions as, "The bells rang a merry peal," "to shout assent," "to run a risk," "to play a cunning game," "He turned an angry look." One may share Mr. Welinkar's dislike of "the failed Matriculate," but why should he object to "the England-returned native of India," while he approves of "the returned traveller"?

Our author makes a subtle distinction in meaning between "The patient is recovered" and "The patient has recovered." Other grammarians too have made a similar distinction, but it seems to us a mere matter of words. We think most people are not conscious of any difference. To be sure "will" is used to express persistence in an act, but was it necessary to illustrate it by an unfamiliar (or wrong?) version of Tennyson's lines?

For men will come and men will go,
But I go on for ever.

But this little auxiliary has another surprise in store for us. It can also express, it seems, the result of an inquiry, as "We will find that there is on the whole more generosity among the poor than among the rich." We rub our eyes and look again at the book; there are two more sentences of that sort. A few more pages brings us to a greater poser. "How good of you to help me!" Here 'how' modifies the sentence—"it was good of you to help me." "What a good sight you have!" "What" modifies "you have a good sight." If we ~~could~~ now "How ingenious!" what a construction we should be perpetrating! and if we cried "What ingenuity is here!" how puzzling it would be to the unlucky construer! The chapter on the analysis of sentences contains several points on which we should hesitate to accept Mr. Welinkar's teaching. But two ought to suffice. "What I have written I cannot change." In this sentence "what I have written" is an adjectival clause qualifying "that" or "the thing" which before the relative *what* is always omitted. It is misleading to call it a noun clause, for in that case *what* would have to be an interrogative pronoun which it surely is not. The same remark applies, but somewhat more forcibly, to the sentences "Whom the gods love die young", "Who steals my purse steals trash", in both of which our author appears to detect noun clauses. Even more questionable is the following: "The reason why he is silent is obvious," "why he is silent" is a noun clause in apposition to "reason." Then in the sentence "The place where he stood is no more," "where he stood" would be a noun clause in apposition to "place." What if we replaced "where" by "at which"? Would our author parse, "at which he stood" as a noun clause?

The printing and general appearance of the book are creditable to the publishers. The errata require an erratum: For 'Bolinbroke' read 'Bolingbroke.'

A HANDBOOK OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE BY K. SUBRAMANI IYER, B.A., L.T., REVISED BY MARK HUNTER, M.A. (OXON): (SRINIVASA, VARDACHARI & CO., MADRAS). Price Re. 1-4.

This is an old favourite of our schoolboys appearing in an improved form. We can see the hand of the reviser in many places, the notes that he has added being particularly valuable.

We observe, however, that he has retained the expression 'the completion of the Predicate' which is apt to be confounded with 'the complement of the Predicate' and which, so far as the present book is concerned, may well be replaced by 'the Object.' We wish also that the clumsy treatment of the Indirect Object had been improved, and the illogical division of adverbial clauses of Manner into those of Likeness or Analogy, Relation, Condition, and Concession, altogether dropped. In Analysis too we fail to see the chief improvements of Mason and Bain. In particular, subordinate clauses are not shown in the analysis of the main sentence where the parts of speech to which they are equivalent would be shown,—a practice which gives rise to much misconception on the part of schoolboys. Another objectionable practice which has been retained even in this revised issue is the inclusion of connectives like *and* and *that* in the 'subject' column. One cannot see what can be said in defence of it. Surely brackets do not constitute a defence. One change in analysis which the reviser has made (or is it the author himself?) is, we will not say wrong, but open to criticism. It is explained in a note on page 19. We are told there that the relative clause is often an adverbial clause. "You cruelly beat the dog who has done you no harm." Here, doubtless, the relative clause has the meaning of an adverbial clause of concession. The modern grammarian of English is often puzzled between the form of an expression and its function, and is guided in parsing by the one or by the other according to convenience and economy of thought. But this innovation carries the function theory too far. Just fancy where a logical development of this may land us. Take such a sentence as "This reason, though it was the most convincing of all, did not prevail." We are now advised that the adverbial clause is equivalent both in sense and in grammar to "which was the most convincing of all." But suppose we had: "This reason, the most convincing reason of all, did not prevail." Is the italicised phrase to be parsed as adverbial? Push the argument further. "This most convincing reason did not prevail." Is it not a dangerous position? And yet we are not conscious of having strained the analogy at any step.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

DEPARTMENTAL NOTIFICATIONS.

Mr. E. Thurston, Superintendent, Government Museum, has been permitted to return to duty within the period of his leave.

Colonel H. D. Love, R.E., Principal, College of Engineering, has been permitted to return to duty within the period of his leave.

Mr. K. R. Doraiswami Aiyar, B.A., First Assistant Lecturer, Kumbakonam College, is to act as Lecturer in the same college, in the ninth class of the Provincial Educational Service, vice Mr. P. P. D'Rozario, deceased. To have effect from the date of the latter's death.

The following promotions are made in the Provincial Educational Service:—

Mr. B. Hanumantha Rau, B.A., from the Class II to Class I.

Mr. P. E. Messinier, from Class III to Class II.

Mr. S. Mangesha Rau, B.A., from Class IV to Class III.

Mr. K. Ramunni Menon, B.A., from Class V to Class IV.

Mr. T. V. Subba Rau, B.A., from Class VI to Class V, *sub pro tem*.

Mr. A. S. Vaidyanatha Aiyar, B.A., from Class VIII to Class VII, *sub pro tem*.

Mr. K. P. Guruswami Aiyar, B.A., from Class IX to Class VIII.

Mr. T. J. Venkatachala Aiyar, B.A., from Class IX to Class VIII, *sub pro tem*.

Mr. T. Sankara Rau, B.A., from the subordinate service to Class IX.

NOTE.—The appointments of Nos. (1) to (5) will have effect from the date of Mr. E. H. Elliot's retirement, of Nos. (6), (7) and (8) from the date of the vacancy caused by the death of Mr. P. P. D'Rozario, and of No. (8) from the date of the vacancy caused by the death of Mr. A. Ramalinga Aiyar.

The following officers of the Provincial Educational Service are confirmed in the classes in which they were placed *sub pro tem* in Gazette Notification, No. 96, dated 1st November, 1904:—

Mr. A. C. Pranatartihara Aiyar, B.A., in Class V.

Mr. J. W. Coombes, B.A., L.T., in Class VII.

Mr. T. S. Ince, B.A., in Class VIII.

Mr. J. H. Stone, Inspector of European and Training Schools, has been granted combined privilege leave and furlough for one year, from or after the 15th March, 1905.

Mr. A. Chatterton, Professor of Mechanical Engineering, College of Engineering, Madras, has been permitted to return to duty within the period of his leave.

Sub-Conductor R. Cuthbert, is to act as Instructor in Engineering, College of Engineering, in the fourth class of the Provincial Educational Service, during the absence of Mr. B. O. Reynolds on leave or until further orders.

Miss H. W. Bernard, First Assistant Inspectress of Girls' Schools, Madras Girls' Range, is to act as

Inspectress of Girls' Schools, Central Circle, during the absence of Miss Emma Carr on leave or until further orders.

Capt. F. F. Elwes, M.B., M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P., I.M.S., is to do the duties of Professor of Hygiene and Bacteriology, Medical College, without prejudice to his own duties as Acting Deputy Sanitary Commissioner and Inspector of Vaccination, Madras.

The Director makes the following appointment:—

Muhammad 'Abdul Khalek Sahib, Supervisor of Muhammadan Schools, Madras, to act as Sub-Assistant Inspector of Muhammadan Schools, Central Circle, in the fourth class (on Rs. 100), during the employment of Khaja Khan Sahib, B.A., on other duty or until further orders.

Khaja Khan Sahib Bahadur, B.A., Sub-Assistant Inspector of Muhammadan Schools, Central Circle, is to act for the Assistant Inspectress of Girls' Schools, Madras Girls' Range, during the employment of Miss H. W. Bernard on other duty or until further orders.

The following order has been issued by Government:—In supersession of the previous orders regarding the grant of certain concessions to native teachers permitted to attend training institutions, the following concessions have now been sanctioned by the Government of India:—(1) Teachers sent for training to the Teachers' College and other training institutions under departmental management will be allowed, at the discretion of the Director of Public Instruction, the President of a Local Board or the Chairman of a Municipal Council, to draw so much pay in addition to their stipend as will raise their total emoluments to Rs. 10 per mensem, while the persons acting for them will also draw a minimum pay of Rs. 10 per mensem. If the pay of the appointment is sufficient and it is considered expedient to exceed these minima in the case either of the teacher under training or his *locum tenens*, then the teacher under training will be permitted to draw, in addition to his stipend, a portion of the pay of the appointment not exceeding one half, while his *locum tenens* will be permitted to draw a salary not exceeding the remaining portion of the pay of the appointment.

In no case, however, will the total emoluments of any teacher or his *locum tenens* exceed the permanent pay of the post.

(2) Teachers will be treated, while under training as detached from their regular appointments but still in the service.

(3) The period spent under training will qualify for earning increments of salary but not for earning further leave: it will not cancel the leave already earned.

(4) Travelling allowance will be granted under the Civil Service rules in respect of journeys to and from the training institution.

2. The Director of Public Instruction will be requested to submit, at a very early date, a draft of consequential alterations in the Educational rules now under revision.

MR. N. GOPALASWAMI AIYANGAR, B.A., B.L., Lecturer in History, Pachaiyappa's College, heads the list of successful candidates in the recent Provincial Civil Service examination. He is a distinguished graduate of the Madras University. He was awarded the Political Economy medal in 1901. He is a nephew of the late Dewan Bahadur Srinivasa Raghava Aiyangar.

The following Fellows have been elected members of the Provisional Syndicate:—Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck, Rev. Canon Sell, Rev. W. Skinner, Sir S. Subramaniya Aiyar, Mr. C. Sankaran Nayar, Mr. F. J. E. Spring, Lieutenant-Colonel J. Maitland and Mr. J. H. Stone.

At the 15th Anniversary meeting of the Teachers' Association, attached to the Teachers' College, Saidapet, held on the 20th December, in the Teachers' College, with Lt.-Col. W. G. King, I.M.S., Sanitary Commissioner in the chair, Major R. H. Elliot, I.M.S., delivered an interesting lecture on Education. He advised the students to read and learn politics, but not to talk them—for the present at least. The often-discussed subject of cram was next dealt with after which the lecturer drew a sharp contrast between the Western woman and her Indian sister. He deplored the lack of education in the latter and the consequent lack of intelligent influence on the young ones.

The Conversation organised by Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck on the evening of the 23rd December at the Presidency College, was a success in every way. Quite a large number of guests, mostly former students of the institution, had turned up in response to invitations issued to them. The guests were first conducted through the several laboratories, where many interesting things were on show. In one laboratory, there was Mr. K. Ramunni Menon, who explained the Biological exhibits, which had been got together. The six-legged frog was a curious specimen of its kind, while the gigantic earthworm, *Ocotopus*, and other animals were a regular surprise to those uninitiated in the science of Zoology. The physics laboratory had attractions of its own. The there were many errata require an erratum: For 'Bolinbroke' read 'Bolingbroke.'

... of its own, and many who thronged into it to see the working of the Röntgen rays. The properties of fused quartz also drew the attention of those present, and Prof. Jones explained how a tube of that substance, heated and plunged into cold water, did not break into pieces, its co-efficient of expansion being very great. The properties of radium are yet little known, and as such the working of the spintharoscope excited a good deal of curiosity too. The sparks impinged against a fluorescent screen, giving rise to beautiful scintillations, showing how the atoms of a body disintegrated into electrons. Passing on, the Chemical laboratory was next visited, and here Dr. Wilson showed some very interesting experiments with phosphorus, which were highly appreciated. After refreshments the guests assembled in the lower of the College when the Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Aiyar thanked Mr. Bilderbeck

and the Staff of the College for the excellent idea of getting the old Students of the College together and hoped that this would occur every year.

The new buildings of the National High School, Trichinopoly, are completed, and they make a noble pile. The opening ceremony was performed long ago, but the completion of the buildings deserves a celebration by itself. They have been raised at a cost of nearly Rs. 80,000, and they are an eloquent testimony to the self-sacrificing spirit of the founders of the school, Messrs. G. Sessa Aiyangar and P. G. Sunderasā Sastriar. The S. P. G. College will open this year a history section for B.A., and a European Professor will be in charge of it, assisted by Mr. Guru Rao, M.A., L.T. In connection with the S. P. G. Mission work, Rev. H. P. Walsh has organised a brotherhood of five who will work for nominal salaries. The idea is conceived in the true missionary spirit.—*The Madras Times*.

The fourteenth celebration of the Madras Christian College Day took place on the 28th December. At the public meeting Mr. T. Ramakrishna Pillai presided, in which he dwelt a little on the promotion of friendly social intercourse between Europeans and Indians for which, he said, the gradual formation of an Indo-European literature was one of the many ways. But he was extremely sorry that no original work had till now been done by the 6000 odd graduates of this University.

The Rev. W. Skinner, responding to the toast of the Madras Christian College, made an important announcement in connection with the Scottish Church Dispute and its bearing on the ownership of the very extensive property occupied by the College in Madras. He said that, according to the latest information received by the College authorities in Madras, the Royal Commission appointed to enquire into the whole matter had arrived at terms of settlement acceptable to both parties. What the terms of settlement were, he did not know; but he thought it might be said for ~~the purpose of~~ as ~~the~~ would include it was the most convenient that they did not prevail. We are ~~gratified~~ that they ~~adverbial~~ ~~the~~ ~~revelation~~ by the United Free Church of by far the greater portion of the property in the Mission field.

In connection with the Jubilee Celebrations of the American Arcot Mission which began on the 8th January, the Rev. W. I. Chamberlain, Ph.D., of Vellore gave an account of the educational work of the Mission. In 1876, the Station School at Tindivanam had been permitted to receive non-Christian lads. In 1878, so successful had this school become, that the Government School in that place was closed; its building was loaned to the Mission, and the latter made responsible for all the higher education of that town. In 1880 an Anglo-Vernacular School with 100 Hindu lads was opened in Vellore. Hindu Caste Girls' Schools had already been in operation in this institution since 1872. In 1882 a Normal Training School was opened in Arcot. In 1883 another Anglo-Vernacular School was opened at Voyalpad. In 1890 the Madanapalle Boarding School was advanced

to the standard of a High School. During 1894 arrangements were made for the amalgamation of the Arcot Academy with the Church of Scotland Mission at Vellore, and for the assumption of management of the combined institution by the Arcot Mission.

The Rev. W. I. Chamberlain then told the story of the different institutions that had contributed to the Mission's educational work for these 50 years. These he grouped into five agencies: (1) institutions for the training of a male agency, (2) those for the training of a female agency, (3) training schools, (4) Hindu girls' schools, (5) station and village schools; the progress of which he traced from step to step. He then presented a table which had been prepared through the 50 Reports of the Mission. Suffice it to say here that the decades of the greatest activity in this direction were the second and the third, 1881—81—90 and 1899—00 when on an average a school to a year was opened. Five stations had been opened at Vellore, all in the town; but only 3 now remain: 4 at the Arcot Station; 4 at Arni with 3 remaining; 4 at Madanapalle with 3 remaining; 2 in Chittore, 2 at Tindivanam, 1 at Palmaner and 1 at Coonoor. Of the 23 schools opened since 1872, 18 now remain in active operation. The growth of these village schools could be gathered into decades:—

1854	...	...	4
1864	...	...	13
1874	...	...	31
1884	...	...	78
1894	...	...	169
1904	...	...	140

The following gentlemen constituted the deputation in behalf of the Negapatam National High School, which was received by His Excellency the Governor at noon on January 11th at the Government House:—Mr. V. P. Pachiriswami Pillai, President of the Committee, Mr. B. S. Nataraja Sastri, Secretary; Mr. M. G. Ramaswami Pillai, Merchant; Mr. G. B. Panchapikesa, Merchant; Mr. M. Vappaleonda Marakayer, Merchant and Town Kazi. The decision of the Government is anxiously looked for by the public, but is for some unknown reason delayed.

An interesting function was performed by the Hon'ble Justice Sir S. Subramania Aiyar on Friday, the 13th January, namely, the opening of the P. Subramaniam High School at Mylapore. In the course of his excellent address he said that benevolent people in this country generally spent their money in the erection of temples and rest-houses—and though this was not to be deprecated, yet the promotion of education was a better form of charity. Owing to changes in the means of locomotion rest-houses were not wanted at the present day except at places where people largely congregated; and, as for the erection or renovation of temples the thing was being rather overdone. Education, a sound

practical education, was what was wanted for the elevation of this country, and funds should be collected to send out promising young men to foreign parts to learn the various sciences that were revolutionising the world at the present day. Japan would be a country very desirable to visit, as the Japanese were very sympathetic towards India and looked upon Hindus as connected with them by kinship. The complaint that was sometimes made that foreign travel did more harm than good was unfounded. On the other hand foreign travel accentuated the respect for the glorious past of India and did much to sweep away the accretions of unmeaning prejudices that in this country was making life a mechanical thing. Young men would not learn any foreign habits, by travelling abroad as already people in India were beginning to learn that many of their own habits were founded on excellent reasons. Though the funds left by the late Mr. Subramaniam had been used in starting the present school, yet the speaker hoped that in the near future the funds would improve, so as to allow a portion of the same being used for the purpose of sending out young men to foreign countries.

The following gentlemen constitute the Board of Trustees for the above school: The Hon'ble Justice Sir S. Subramania Aiyar, the Hon'ble Mr. V. C. Desikachariar; Rao Bahadur A. Krishnaswami Aiyar, Dewan Bahadur K. Krishnaswami Rao, Mr. B. Hanumanth Rao, Mr. M. R. Ramakrishna Aiyar, Mr. A. Sitarama Aiyar, Mr. P. S. Ganapathi Aiyar and Mr. V. Krishnaswami Aiyar.

His Excellency the Chancellor of the Madras University in consultation with the Syndicate has selected Friday, the 31st March, as the date for the annual Convocation. Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck will deliver the Convocation address.

BOMBAY.

The Additional Special Inspector of European Schools in the Bombay Presidency, whose appointment was sanctioned some time ago, is to be placed on the cadre of the Indian Education Service. His pay will rise, by yearly increments of fifty rupees, from five hundred rupees monthly to one thousand rupees. He will inspect some five thousand pupils belonging to between eighty and ninety European Schools; also some 5,700 pupils belonging to Indian Schools in which English is used.

The prize and medal distribution ceremony of the Sheth Hirachand Gumanji Jain Boarding School, was held on the 31st ultimo, in the hall of the Boarding House, Sheth Hirachand Ramachand, of Sholapur, presiding. The Secretary read a Report which showed that the results of the various University and religious examinations were very satisfactory and after the awards had been distributed, Mr. A. P. Chougale in the course of an address said the institution had become a powerful instrument

for the spread of Western education among the Jains and he believed it would be a turning point in the history of Jain progress. The institution has turned out about twenty graduates in the various faculties since it had been founded, namely 1900.—

The following resolution was passed unanimously at the recent Indian National Congress held at Bombay :—

That this Congress, while thanking the Government of India for the increased outlay on Primary Education, promised in their Resolution of March last, and for the Institution of Technical Scholarships for the study of technical arts and industries in foreign countries, repeats its protest of last year against the retrograde policy adopted by Government in regard to Higher Education, as calculated to officialize the governing Boards of the Universities and to restrict the scope of University Education generally; and the Congress places on record its emphatic opinion that in view of the large surpluses which the Government are now realizing year after year, it is their clear duty to make a much larger allotment than at present out of public funds for educational expenditure so as :

(a) to spread primary education more widely among the mass of the people; and to make a beginning in the direction of free and compulsory education;

(b) to make due provision for imparting instruction in manual training and in scientific agriculture;

(c) to provide for the better manning and equipment of Government Colleges and High Schools, so as to make them really model institutions;

(d) to establish at least one central fully equipped Polytechnic Institute in the country, with minor Technical Schools and Colleges in different Provinces.

We do not give the reports of the proceedings of the various meetings of the Faculties of the Bombay University in connection with the elections to the Provisional Syndicate, but reproduce the plaint in the suit preferred by Sir P. Mehta and ten others against the Provisional Syndicate and the University —

Plaintiffs.

1. Sir Pherozeshah Mehta;
2. Sir Bhalchandra Krishna;
3. Prof. Gajjar;
4. Hon. Mr. Dikshit;
5. Mr. Shamrao Vithal;
6. Mr. D. G. Padhye;
7. Mr. Choonilal Saraiya;
8. Mr. N. V. Gokhale;
9. Mr. M. B. Chaudhary;
10. Mr. N. M. Samarth;
11. Mr. L. A. Sah.

Defendants.

1. Dr. Mackichan;
2. Father Dreckmann;
3. Prof. M. Macmillan;
4. Prof. W. H. Sharp;
5. Prof. A. M. Masani;
6. Lt.-Col. Dr. H. P. Dimmock;
7. Temulji Bhikaji Nariman;
8. Hon. Mr. J. Chandavarkar;
9. Mr. G. S. Rao;
10. Kn. B. M. K. Mursban;
11. Major W. J. Scudamore;
12. Hon. Mr. E. Giles;
13. University of Bombay.

The Plaintiffs abovenamed state as follows :—

1. The Plaintiffs are Ordinary Fellows of the University of Bombay.

2. On or about the 8th day of December 1904, the Chancellor of the said University declared that the Body Corporate of the said University had been constituted in accordance with the provisions of the Indian Universities Act, 1904, and appended to such declaration was a list of the Senate. The Plaintiffs are included in the said List. The said declaration and the list were duly published by the Governor-in-Council in the Gazette of India.

3. On the publication of the said declaration, the Syndicate of the said University holding office at the commencement of the Indian Universities Act, 1904, became *functus officio*, and it became incumbent upon the said Senate to appoint a Provisional Syndicate under clause (p) of Section 12 of the said Act.

4. On or about the 6th or 7th instant, the Plaintiffs received from the Registrar of the said University a printed copy of certain rules over the signature of the said Registrar, purporting to have been issued by order of the Chancellor. Rule 1 directs that the Provisional Syndicate shall consist of the Vice Chancellor and Director of Public Instruction and ten elected Syndics, and then proceeds to distribute the said ten Syndics to represent Arts, Law, Medicine and Engineering in certain proportions. Rule 2 lays down that a certain proportion of the said Syndics shall be Principals or Professors of affiliated Colleges. Rule 4 directs that the four Syndics in Arts shall be elected by and from among the forty-five individual Fellows therein named, that the two Syndics in Law shall be elected by and from among other twenty-five individual Fellows similarly named, that the two Syndics in Engineering shall be elected by other nine individual Fellows named therein. Along with the copy of the said Rules, a printed notice was sent to each of the Plaintiffs notifying to him the day and hour, which the group of Fellows, in which he happened to be placed, was to meet to elect the Syndics allotted to that group. Copies of the said Rules and notice are hereto annexed and marked A and B respectively.

5. The Plaintiffs being advised that in as much as the said Rules directed the appointment of Provisional Syndicate by groups of Fellows instead of by the Senate, the whole Body Corporate, in whom

appointment was vested, as well as for other reasons, the said Rules were illegal and *ultra vires*, addressed a letter to the Registrar pointing out the illegality of the course proposed to be adopted. A copy of the said letter is hereto annexed and marked C.

6. In pursuance of the Notices as aforesaid, a meeting of the group of Fellows, which was directed to elect the four Arts Syndics, met on the 16th instant and elected Defendants 2, 3, 4 and 5 as such Syndics. At such meeting, before the election was held, the illegality of the proposed election was brought to the notice of the Chairman of that meeting by the sixth Plaintiff abovenamed, who moved an adjournment of the meeting in order to allow the question of the legality of the proposed election to be considered by the authorities concerned. On the said motion which was put by the Chairman to the meeting, being negatived, the said sixth Plaintiff withdrew from the meeting. On the same day, the group of Fellows, which was directed to elect the two Engineering Syndics met and elected Defendants 10 and 11 as such Syndics.

7. On the 17th instant, the group of Fellows directed under the said Rule to elect the two Medicine Syndics met for the purposes of such election. At that meeting the second and seventh Plaintiffs drew attention to the illegality of the course proposed to be followed, and moved an adjournment of the meeting, but the seventh Defendant, Chairman of the meeting, ruled such motion for an adjournment out of order and declined to put it to the meeting, and thereupon Plaintiffs 2nd and 7th withdrew from the meeting. The meeting subsequently elected Defendants 6th and 7th Syndics in Medicine.

8. On the same day, the group of Fellows directed to elect the two Law Syndics met for the purposes of such election. Before the said meeting proceeded to the election, one of the Fellows present raised a point of order that it was *ultra vires* of the said meeting to elect any part of the Provisional Syndicate. The Chairman having, however, ruled against the said point of order, the first Plaintiff moved an adjournment of the meeting for one month but the Chairman ruled such motion out of order and declined to put it to the meeting, whereupon Plaintiffs 1st, 14th, 8th, 9th, 10th and 11th who were present at the said meeting withdrew from the same. The meeting subsequently elected Defendants 8 and 9 as Law Syndics.

9. The Plaintiffs submit that the appointment and the election of the Defendants to form the Provisional Syndicate is illegal and *ultra vires* and that they are not legally entitled to conduct the executive business of the University. Unless they are restrained by an injunction and order of the Honorable Court the Defendants will immediately act as such Syndicate and conduct in Bombay the executive business of the University.

10. The cause of action has wholly arisen within the jurisdiction of this Honorable Court, and all the Defendants except 4th, 5th, 11th and 12th reside in Bombay.

XI

11. The Plaintiffs will rely on documents, a list whereof is hereto annexed.

The Plaintiffs accordingly pray :—

(a) That it may be declared that the only persons or body entitled to appoint the Provisional Syndicate to conduct the executive business of the University until the Syndicate has been constituted under the aforesaid Act is the Body Corporate mentioned and defined in Section 4 (1) of the said Act.

(b) That it may be declared that the appointment and election of the Defendants 1 to 12 is illegal and *ultra vires* and that they are not a validly appointed Provisional Syndicate and are not entitled as such to conduct the executive business of the University.

(c) That the Defendants one to twelve may be restrained by an order and injunction of this Honorable Court from conducting the executive business of the University.

(d) That pending the disposal of this suit, the Defendants 1 to 12 may be similarly restrained by an order and injunction of this Honorable Court.

(e) That the Defendants 1 to 12 may be ordered to pay the Plaintiffs cost of this suit.

(f) That such further and other relief may be given as the circumstances of the case may require.

BENGAL.

We are glad to be able to announce that Babu Joy Gobinda Law and his nephews have offered a scholarship of Rs. 50 a month to the Association for the Scientific and Industrial Education of Indians.

On the recommendation of the Bengal Government, the Government of India has sanctioned an honorarium of Rs. 2,000 for Rai Sarat Chandra Das Bahadur, C.I.E., for completing the work which gives the history of Tibet from early times to the year 1726, when the Imperial Residency at Lhasa was first established under the Emperor Kanghi's order.

The following gentlemen have been elected to the Provisional Syndicate of the Calcutta University :—

By the Faculty of Arts—The Rev. A. B. Wann; the Rev. E. M. Wheeler; Mr. Charles Russell.

By the Faculty of Science—Mr. G. W. Kuehler; Mr. W. H. Arden Wood.

By the Faculty of Law—Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukherji; Mr. Justice Saroda Churn Mitter.

By the Faculty of Medicine—Major F. J. Drury, I.M.S.; Lieut.-Colonel G. F. A. Harris, I.M.S.

By the Faculty of Engineering—Mr. A. Macdonell.

THE annual distribution of prizes to the boys and girls of the Calcutta Free School was held on the 21st under the presidency of the Lieut.-Governor, Lady Fraser distributing the prizes. In addition to the grant of Rs. 2,800 for repairs, Government have sanctioned a special grant of Rs. 10,000 on condition

that it be spent on developing the practical side of education in both schools. After consultation with the Education Department it has been decided to build a Kindergarten school.

THE Calcutta Students' Hostel and Mess Committee have decided to accept the recommendation of the Sub-Committee to the effect that, in the event of Government's renting houses to colleges, it should assign them at a rent-charge, per head, for each "seat" occupied, such rent to approximate to the average amount students now pay, or roughly Rs. 3-8 each, monthly. A Committee was appointed, with Sir. Guru Das Banerjee as President, and Messrs. A. M. Bose, L. Tipping, N. N. Ghose and O. C. Dutt, and Dr. Denison Ross as members, to report upon the existing hostels and as to the practicability of licensing them. It was also decided to recommend Government to appoint an officer of high standing to draw up regulations, select and assign houses, and generally to supervise the inauguration of the new system, and Mr. L. Tipping, who has throughout taken a prominent part in the movement for the better housing of Calcutta students, was nominated for this purpose.

It is notified in the "Calcutta Gazette" of December, 21, that three Post-Graduate Research Scholarships of the monthly value of Rs. 100 each, and tenable for a maximum period of three years, but in the first instance for one year only, will be awarded early in the year 1905. Two of the scholarships will be awarded to candidates who propose to carry on original research in Scientific Subjects, such as Natural and Physical Science, Chemistry, Mathematical Science, etc., and one will be awarded to a candidate who undertakes research in Literary Subjects, such as Language, Comparative Philology, Palaeography, Epigraphy, Philosophy, History, Archaeology, Anthropology, etc. Candidates must have passed the M.A., the M.D., the D.L., or the Master-in-Engineering Examination of the Calcutta University not previous to 1902. They must be, besides, possessed of high and special qualifications and likely to conduct original research with success. All applications must be forwarded on or before the 2nd January, 1905, and must be submitted through the head of the institution in which the candidate read last. Application forms may be had from the Head Assistant, Office of the Director of Public Instruction.

THE following subject has been selected for Babu Brajamohan Dutt's Prize Essay of Rs. 45 (forty-five) for the year 1903-1904:—"The shortcomings of the existing system of female education in this country." The conditions for the award of the prize are:—(1) That the competition be open to all educated women, being natives of Bengal, without regard to age. (2) That the prize be given for an essay to be written in either Bengali or Sanskrit. (3) That the essays be sent to the Central Text-book Committee for adjudication within six months of the date of adver-

tisement. (4) That each essay be accompanied by the written declaration of the husband, parent, or guardian of the competitor, that to the best of his belief she has received no assistance of any kind, direct or indirect, in writing the essay. Candidates are requested to send their essays, not later than the 31st July, 1905, to the Secretary to the Central Text-Book Committee, Office of the Inspector of Schools, Presidency Division, at 12, Dalhousie Square, Calcutta.

THE Annual Convocation of the University of Calcutta has been fixed for the 11th February.

At the Conference of Indian and Ceylon Chambers of Commerce held at Calcutta on the 3rd January, Mr. D. M. Hamilton, in a long speech moved the following resolution:—"Realising that the welfare of India and of its commerce and industries is inseparably bound up with the welfare of agriculture, this Conference records its hearty approval of the growing interest which Government is taking in the development of the agricultural resources of India as shown by the proposed establishment of a Board of Agriculture, the experiments for the improvement of cotton and jute, the establishment of the Pusa Farm, and the Bengal Provincial Agricultural Association."

Mr. Marshall Reid suggested the addition of the following paragraphs to the Resolution of the Bengal Chamber of Commerce:—"This Conference further desires to suggest for the serious consideration of Government the desirability of creating separate agricultural organisations in such Provinces as they may seem to be necessary, and of officering them with thoroughly efficient Agricultural, Botanical and Scientific experts."

The resolution and the addition were put and carried unanimously.

The Hon. Mr. Armstrong moved the following resolution:—"That this Conference of Indian and Ceylon Chambers of Commerce is of opinion that any Government examination for a first qualification in Commercial subjects should be confined to those subjects that are indispensable from the commencement of a clerk's career, that it should test thoroughly the proficiency of the candidates in these subjects, and that facilities should be afforded to successful candidates for subsequent qualification in secondary subjects." He drew attention to the lack of proper training of young men for a commercial life, the bad handwriting so frequently noticeable, and suggested that, if time allowed, shorthand should form a part of the curriculum of a commercial education.

Mr. R. Ashton seconded the resolution.

The President said the Government of Bengal appointed a Special Committee to consider this subject at which he was present. That Committee had sent in their report to Government, and he understood that Government would practically accept that report.

The resolution was carried unanimously.

MYSORE, TRAVANCORE AND HYDERABAD.

To encourage students to qualify for the State Forest Service, the Travancore Government have offered two Government Scholarships to enable the holders to undergo a course of training at the Imperial Forest School at Dehra Dun.

WE learn that Mr. V. Ramanujam Pillay, B.A., L.T., Headmaster, Govinda Naicker's School, attached to the Pachaiyappa's Institutions, has been appointed Principal of the Mahboob College, Secunderabad. He was formerly on the tutorial staff of the Madras Christian College and of the Noble College, Masulipatam.

THE Government of Mysore have awarded a scholarship of Rs. 30 per mensem to each of the following candidates, tenable for three years at the Madras College of Engineering:—C. Nanjappa, B.A., K. Sama Iyengar, B.A., and D. Rangasawmy, B.A.

THE SHIMOGA College Department has been abolished and the students have distributed themselves between the Central College, Bangalore and the Maharajah's College, Mysore. It is likely, says a contemporary, that these students will be paid a scholarship of Rs. 10 a month.

MR. H. J. BHABHA wanted the Missionaries to open their Schools from 11 A.M. to 5 P.M. At a meeting held by the Missionaries in Bangalore, it was resolved that the change of school hours would involve greater expenditure, and that in case the Government was prepared to incur the additional expenditure by increasing the grant they would make necessary arrangements for it and that the change was not desirable. We hear that Mr. Bhabha has intimated to them that he would be satisfied if they raised their school hours to 5.—*Mysore Herald*.

THE Trustees of Marimallappa's School met to consider the proposal of Mr. Bhabha to appoint an M. A. and L. T. as the Head Master of that institution in the place of Mr. Venkatakrishnayya. They, we hear, came unanimously to the conclusion that they had the most implicit confidence in the qualifications, capacity for work, and the managing powers of Mr. Venkatakrishnayya, who, as Head Master of High as well as Middle schools, they held, had given unqualified satisfaction to the Trustees and the public as a very capable and enthusiastic teacher.—*Mysore Herald*.

AN Oriental side was opened in the Maharani's College last year. There are 4 ladies reading in the class. They are paid a scholarship of Rs. 10 each. The course is one of 4 years. One can appear for the examination at the end of two years either for Sanskrit or Kanarese separately and pass the two examinations at one and the same time or the one after the other. It is contemplated to teach them Domestic Economy, and Needle-work.

THE PUNJAB.

THE HON'BLE MR. JUSTICE CHATTERJI has resigned the Vice-Chancellorship of the Punjab University. Sir Lewis Tupper has been reappointed to the post.

MR. J. G. GILBERTSON, M. A., is appointed to the post of the newly created Registrar of the Office of the Director of Public Instruction, Punjab, on Rs. 500 per mensem.

THE VICEROY has nominated Mr. W. Bell, M.A., C.I.E., Inspector of Chiefs' Colleges, to be a member of the Governor-General's Council of the Mayo College, Ajmere.

THE Director of Public Instruction, Punjab, notifies that the Course in Kindergarten for the Senior and Junior Vernacular Certificate Examinations for female Teachers, as detailed in his Circular No. 49-3921, dated the 5th September last, will be included in the test prescribed in School Management and the Practice of Teaching in both the Senior and Junior Certificate Examinations. This will have effect from the Examination of 1906.

The Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, and Fellows of the Punjab University met in Convocation for conferring degrees on the 16th December. The Chancellor conferred degrees upon two Bachelors in Oriental Learning, 18 Masters of Arts, 131 Bachelors of Arts, three Bachelors of Science, two of Medicine, 22 Bachelors of Laws, three Shastris (Sanskrit); four Maulvis fazil (Arabic), and eight Munshis fazil (Persian). Seventeen gold and silver medals for special attainments, eleven scholarships, and five special prizes were also presented. The Vice-Chancellor, Sir Lewis Tupper, then delivered an address on the Study of Literature.

THE prize distribution of the Punjab Medical College took place on the 23rd December. The Report stated that the working during the past twelve months was satisfactory. There were 614 students against 550 last year, the largest number yet reached. The number is, indeed, inconveniently large and Colonel Perry, the Principal, thinks it may be advisable to reduce this number somewhat. The most important alteration in the prospectus for 1905, is the substitution of the Entrance Examination in Arts as a preliminary educational test, for the Anglo-Vernacular Middle School Examination, which has been abolished by the Punjab University. Sir Charles Rivaz expressed his satisfaction and promised money for the Chemical and Pathological Laboratories and other rooms required. He congratulated the Professors on receiving their well-merited concession as regards pay, and then distributed the prizes.

THE ceremony of laying the foundation stone of the new University Hall by Sir Charles Rivaz took place on January, 4. The Registrar having read the history of the project and alluded to the assistance which would be given by the local and Supreme Governments, this Hall being only one of many buildings for University purposes, Sir Charles Rivaz said that the ceremony marked a very important step forward in the progress and development of the Punjab University Trust. After the Hall had been erected it would be found possible to complete the entire project in contemplation by adding to this central building wings for accommodating the Oriental College and the Law College.

THE Secretary of State has sanctioned the proposals of the Punjab Government for the reorganization of the Indian Educational Service in the Punjab. There will now be a sixth Inspector of Schools, whose head-quarters will probably be at Amritsar. The Principal of the Central Training College will be placed on the same footing as the Principal and Professors of the other Government Colleges. The status of the Headmaster of the Central Model School will be raised in order to attract a trained graduate; and a new appointment, that of Vice-Principal of the Central Training College, has been created; for this also the Secretary of State will select a trained graduate, from England. Three posts in the Aitchison College will belong to the Indian Educational Service, and the Principal, Lawrence Military Asylum, now appears in the same list.

THE Government of India have decided to allot to the Punjab two State Technical Scholarships to enable natives of India to pursue a course of study in Great Britain or other Western countries. The object is to qualify them to assist in promoting the improvement of existing native industries and the development of new industries, wherever this may be possible. The Government of India have accepted the opinion of His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor that the industries of the Punjab which are most readily susceptible of development are Tanning, Metal Work and Pottery. The value of each scholarship has been fixed at £150 a year in addition to fees and travelling expenses, but if in any particular case this sum is regarded as insufficient, the Government of India will consider proposals for increasing it. The scholarships are tenable in Great Britain, on the Continent of Europe, or in America.

THE following notification has been addressed by the Punjab Education Department to the Managers of all recognised European Schools in the Province:—"In accordance with the orders of the Government of India, the Primary Schools examination is no longer a public examination. No certificates will be issued in connection with it. Promotion to the Middle Department will rest with the

Managers of recognised schools, subject to the veto of the Inspector of European Schools. The examination is conducted solely with a view to the award of scholarships. In these circumstances the Primary School examination will in future be held only at those centres where candidates for scholarships intend to appear. Heads of schools must enter in the form of application only the names of such candidates as wish to compete for scholarships. It is useless to enter the names of pupils who cannot possibly win scholarships.

THE UNITED PROVINCES.

It has been decided to appoint a Committee of Indian gentlemen, under the presidency of Rai Bahadur G. N. Chakravarti Sahib, Inspector of Schools, to advise the Government of the United Provinces as to what methods of advancing female education are practicable in those Provinces.

A CORRESPONDENT writes:—A legacy has been made to the Central Hindu College, Benares, under most pathetic conditions. An Indian youth, Brigendranath Sharga, of Lucknow, who was studying law in England and was injured in an accident, is the donor. While lying on his death-bed in the hospital at Acton, the youth executed a brief will leaving his property to his brother and three sisters and Rs. 10,000 to the Hindu College.

THE last sitting of the Mahomedan Educational Conference, held at Lucknow, was a marked success. In addition to the subscription of Rs. 1,04,000 previously announced, Rs. 4,000 more were subscribed. Nawab Fayaz Ali Khan, c.s.i., has announced his donation of Rs. 20,000 towards the building of a new boarding house at the Aligarh College, to be called the La Touche Boarding House. Last year has proved specially successful for the Aligarh College. Subscriptions of all kinds amounting to Rs. 2,50,000 have been promised. Her Highness the Begum of Bhopal made a promised gift of Rs. 34,000 to the Aligarh College for the advancement of female education. Rajah Tasadding Rasal telegraphed that he proposed to establish an Arabic Library at Aligarh, himself subscribing Rs. 20,000 for the purpose, and other subscriptions totalled Rs. 4,000. Sahibzada Aftab Ahmad Khan proposed a scheme for the teaching of Science at Aligarh; and was supported eloquently by Nawab Mohsin-ul-Mulk, followed by a number of other speakers. Subscription for this purpose realised Rs. 11,000 and, amid great enthusiasm, an announcement was made of a munificent donation of Rs. 35,000 by the Rajah of Mahmudabad.

NAGPUR colleges and schools, we are informed, are to be shortly affiliated to the Allahabad Univer-

sity. It is rumoured that the Nagpur centre for B.A. and B.L. examinations will be taken away. A correspondent of the *Nagpur and Berar Times* calls attention to the inconvenience and difficulties which the students of Nagpur will have to undergo in a journey to and stay at Allahabad, and calls upon the Principals and Professors of Nagpur Colleges to make a united stand against the proposal.

Foreign Notes.

CORNELL University is expected to receive well over £100,000 under the will of the late Prof. D. W. Fiske.

MR. ANDREW CARNEGIE, LL.D., has been re-elected Lord Rector of the University of St. Andrews, without opposition, Mr. Andrew Lang and Sir Henry Craik having declined to stand.

FROM Boston the news comes that Benjamin Franklin's fund of a hundred years ago has realised a fabulous sum, and is to be doubled by Mr. Carnegie for educational purposes. Individual gifts of this sort are very acceptable, but it would be very much better if education were not obliged to go round cap in hand asking for alms:—*School*.

DUBLIN University's hospitality is being freely sought by certificated women students of Oxford and Cambridge. At the degree ceremony on the 20th December no less than twenty-one ladies took Dublin M.A. degrees and thirty-nine became B.A.'s on the strength of Oxford and Cambridge qualifications and the payment of fees to Dublin.

MESSRS. LONGMANS announce "The Wampum Library of American Literature," edited by Prof. Brander Matthews, Litt. D., of Columbia University, and "planned to include a series of uniform volumes, each of which shall deal with the development of a single literary species, tracing the evolution of this definite form in the United States and presenting in chronological sequence typical examples chosen from the writings of American authors."

Dr. ERNEST RUTHERFORD, professor of Physics at McGill University, and one of the greatest authorities on radioactivity, has been awarded the "Rutherford Medal" for 1904, by the Royal Society of Great Britain.

A HEAD-MASTER sends us a copy of a letter just received from a parent: "Dear Sir, I beg to tender the necessary month notice for my son John to expire

at the end of this term.—Yours faithfully,———. "If you knew the boy," the head master adds, "you would appreciate the wisdom of the parent." This reminds us of the Irish mother who wrote to Dr. Haigh Brown requesting him to inter her boy at Charterhouse, and Dr. Brown's answer that he would be pleased to undertake her son.—*Journal of Education*.

THE largest University in the world is, it appears not in America, but at Berlin, where the matriculated students at present attending lectures number 7,740. Nearly half of the students belong to the Faculty of Philosophy, next ranks Law with 2,784 students, Medicine with 1,111, and finally Divinity with only 335. Four hundred and thirteen Russians, 123 Americans, and 39 British students are included in the foreign element, which contains representatives of every European country, besides Asiatic Africans, and Australians.

BEFORE we can think imperially we must learn to think geographically. This is the *Times'* latest educational message, conveyed in an interesting article in the issue of the 19th ult., reviewing the provision recently made in the Universities for geographical teaching. In this connection we are reminded that the Council of the Royal Geographical Society has a resolution before its next meeting urging that in all examinations for entrance to the public services a paper may be set in geography, carrying marks of equal value with those awarded to history. Should the authorities fall in with this view there will be a great demand for—and shortage of—qualified teachers of the subject.—*The University Correspondent*.

Dr. E. RAY LANKESTER, who is an Hon. Fellow of Exeter College, has been appointed Romanes Lecturer for 1905. In the majority of cases the subject dealt with in these lectures has been literary. The list of lecturers is a remarkable one, and comprises Mr. Gladstone—'An Academic Sketch'; Professor Huxley—'Evolution and Ethics'; Dr. Weismann—'The Effect of External Influences upon Development'; Mr. Holman Hunt—'The Obligations of the Universities towards Art'; Dr. Creighton—'The English National Character'; Mr. John Morley—'Machiavelli'; Sir Archibald Geikie—'Types of Scenery and their Influence on Literature'; Sir R.C. Jebb—'Humanism in Education'; Dr. Murray—'The Evolution of English Lexicography'; Mr. James Bryce—'Relations of the Advanced and Backward Races of Mankind'; Sir Oliver Lodge—'Modern Views on Matter'; and Sir Courtenay Ilbert—'Montesquieu'.—*The Periodical*.

THE Cobden Prize for 1904 is awarded by the University of Cambridge to Manohar Lal, B.A., of St. John's College, and, to judge by his name, a native of Asia. The victory is all the more significant owing to the fact that it has been won against such a competitor as D. H. Macgregor of Trinity College, who a few years ago carried off the members' prize for a historical essay on Macaulay. This time the subject of the essay was "The Causes and Effects of Commercial and Industrial Trusts and the extent to which it is possible and desirable to introduce legislative restrictions on their operations." It is not by any means the first time that a native of Asia has beaten English candidates on essays in the mother tongue of the latter. The significance of the fact should not be lost upon those Europeans who persist in their arrogant complaint of the intellect of the East:—*The Friend of India and Statesman*.

MR. SHYMAJI KRISHNAVARMA wrote to Sir William Wedderburn on the eve of his departure for India announcing that it was his intention to found five travelling Fellowships, to be called the "Herbert Spencer Indian Fellowships," of the value of Rs. 2,000 each, for enabling Indian graduates to finish their education in England and to qualify themselves for an independent profession. He added that it was also his intention to endow another Fellowship in memory of Dayananda Sarasvati, founder of the Arya Samaj. The undertaking is that two each of these six Fellowships shall be awarded in 1905, 1906, and 1907, and that if at the end of the three years the scheme has proved successful the endowment shall be made perpetual. One of the conditions attached to the proposal is that no Indian graduate holding any one of these Fellowships shall accept any service or emoluments under the British Government after his return to India.

SHOULD WE GIVE ENGLISH EDUCATION TO OUR LADIES?

The following editorial note in the Indian Ladies' Magazine will be interesting reading in connection with Mr. Sreenivasa Moorthy's article which we publish this month.

This is the subject of a most interesting article by a Mahomedan gentleman in the leading Moslem journal in India, the *Observer* of Lahore. He belongs to the new school which is gaining day by day in influence and in numbers, which advocates a thorough liberal education for women. The writer's contention is that our women should receive, like men, an education both in the vernacular and in English. English education in particular he considers to be of very great value. Its advantages are:—

1. It will be useful in facilitating intercourse between English women and Indian women, and a greater advance will be achieved in respect of Anglo-Oriental sympathy.
2. It will open to our females a much wider, better, and healthier literature.
3. It will emancipate them from seclusion.
4. It will bring about a great social reform and do away with all the social evils.
5. It will serve the demands of time.
6. It will enable them to profit by the great boon conferred upon them by that noblest lady, Marchioness of Dufferin, in establishing a fund for them and giving them medical help.
7. It will enable them to know something about the prevention of diseases—a knowledge which is availed of by their sisters of the West.

The high liberal education which men have received has created a platform to meet on for Englishmen and Indians. Why should not English and Indian ladies meet on the same lines? But it is impossible until they have one common language. It is easier for an Indian lady to learn English than for an English lady to learn a Vernacular.

The Educational Review.

The *Madras Mail* has developed a zeal for truth and justice which threatens to violate both. Head Masters' Complicity in University Frauds. Commenting with glee on the decision of the Full Bench in the Guntur Forgery Case in which, be it noted, no Head Master or Fellow is involved, our contemporary cannot forbear to renew his attack on Head Masters amongst whom the sight of a fair sprinkling of Fellows only adds to his 'stern joy.' His war-cry still is 'School Admission Register,' a discredited document which augurs ill for the success of the misguided champion. The strange spell which this document exercises over our contemporary can be explained only on the supposition, not improbable by any means, that he has never examined the contents of an admission register with due care and attention. Marvels are hidden in its pages, pupils' ages increasing by several years in a few months, remaining stationary for several years, and even receding as the years advance. No evidence that is gathered from such a record can be relied on even for the hanging of a dog, and yet the *Madras Mail* has not hesitated to base, nay, has persisted in basing on it grave accusations against the character of Head Masters and Fellows. These gentlemen—we hope our contemporary will allow us to call them such—are accused of having given certificates of age which they knew to be false. The falsity of the certificates is held to be indubitably proved by the fact that the ages recorded in them are at variance with those recorded in school admission registers or in the previous applications of the candidates. Knowledge of that falsity is ascribed to Head

Masters because the admission registers are maintained in their offices and the applications of school-candidates are countersigned by them. Each of these steps in the reasoning seems to us to betray no small incapacity to appreciate evidence, while their combination argues a degree of recklessness which we should have thought impossible in a barrister or an editor. If the argument founded on the admission register is worthless, the inference drawn from the countersignature is not less so. We cannot determine the precise meaning in law of a countersignature. But it cannot be the same as that of a certificate; and very few Head Masters understand it as anything more than an expression in writing of their assent to the candidate's application as a school-pupil. Besides, in the Madras University a school-candidate may be of any age whatsoever, so that the age entry in such a candidate's application has never till now received much scrutiny; and though, in the light of the significance now attached to the countersignature, a Head Master may in future hold himself responsible for all the statements made by the candidate in his application, it is not in accordance with fact or with justice to consider a Head Master bound by the statements made by a candidate in an application countersigned by him in the past. At all events, before attributing serious crimes to respectable persons, a generous critic should not have been ready to rely on the constructive knowledge of the candidate's age derived from the mere fact of countersignature, but should have satisfied himself that the Head Master whom he held up to public censure had actual knowledge of the candidate's age. Our contention then is, that from the evidence cited by the *Mail*, admission registers, candidates' applications countersigned by Head Masters, rustica-

tion lists, and the published reports of the Syndicate, it is not at all clear either that the certificates were false or that those that gave them knew them to be false. And yet upon such evidence Head Masters have been denounced as 'unscrupulous.' They have been charged with 'encouragement' and 'instigation' of, and 'complicity' in, candidates' frauds. They are declared to have 'prostituted their noble calling by corrupting the minds of schoolboys by encouraging them to believe that it is no offence to lie to the University in order to get admission to its examinations.' And as they have done all this to please their boys and to show a high percentage of passes, both of which are 'unworthy ends,' no condemnation and no punishment can be too great for them! Was ever criticism more reckless?

Who would not laugh if such a scribe there be?

Who would not weep if *Madras Mail* were he?

To us it is a matter of surprise that the Syndicate, having lighted upon a large mass of irregularities and discrepancies, rejected the one explanation which was alike probable and charitable and did not pause before adopting a theory which attributed to numbers of educated gentlemen in different parts of the Presidency and not apparently in league with one another, a set purpose and determination not only to do wrong themselves, but to teach, encourage, and incite young men to do wrong. But they were early committed to the 'fraud' theory, and we know the fatal hold that fixed ideas acquire over the minds of those who exercise large powers in secret chambers and are never called to account for their doings. If they were less ready to black other people's character and more anxious for reform, they

would have drawn the attention of school-authorities to the shabby condition in which admission registers were apparently kept, the reckless statements of age made by candidates in their applications and the need of Head Masters scrutinising these with care before they countersigned them. These are real and crying evils, and without doubt the persons responsible are everywhere applying the necessary remedies. It will be some time before they disappear, and the University authorities ought to be satisfied if they observe a steady decrease in the number of cases that they are called upon to deal with year by year. Meanwhile the 'blackguarding' has done nobody good and might well have been spared. It would have been spared in all probability if there were more men on the Syndicate intimately acquainted with the ways and habits of those over whom they sit in judgment and capable of judging them on critical occasions with real insight and sympathy. There can be no more impressive proof of the need of a better representation of the Indian element in the Executive of the University, and we sincerely trust the lesson will not be thrown away on the newly-appointed Indian Fellows. If a slander of their community cannot burn the lesson into them, nothing can.

We write under a sense of wrong, but must not be understood to sympathise with fraud or crime. We only ask that fraud and crime must first be clearly proved before people can be convicted of having committed them, or aided and abetted others in committing them. The *Madras Mail* wants the public to believe that many Head Masters and Fellows have deliberately and for their own ends instigated students to lie to the University and calls for condign punishment on them. The two Head Masters whose conduct has received special

condemnation and whose identity is revealed through a veil of artful transparency, will no doubt re-establish their honour in the eyes of the public, if they at all can; but in justice to the others who are defamed in the lump, we must demand the publication of all the evidence on which the *Mail* has based its charges, for we cannot believe that the evidence alluded to in its articles constitutes sufficient justification for them. Probably our contemporary commands much information that is yet confidential and may not be divulged except in a court of law. Possibly too it is our contemporary's object to challenge a public inquiry for the sake of the general good, it being the fashion now with a certain class of Englishmen to commiserate the educated Indian community as unsound at the core. For our own part we could wish nothing better, for we firmly believe that the result will put an end to this ignoble campaign of slander. It is high time that we saw the end of the ill-advised circulars and inquisitorial interrogatories that keep the Senate House establishment working at high pressure, and we wish that the Barrister-Registrar of our University was rescued betimes from the pestiferous atmosphere of falsehood and malpractice to which he seems to have been consigned for some time past.

We wish the new school at Mylapore every success. An estate worth Rs. 4,000 a year might, as the principal speaker suggested at the opening ceremony, have been devoted to other forms of educational charity which do not ordinarily command popular support; but it is doubtful whether the executors of the late Mr. P. Subramania Aiyar could have chosen a charity with a greater guarantee of success and usefulness. The

XI

suburb of Mylapore can never maintain a monster school such as can be seen in other parts of Madras; but when one remembers that it had a decent high school fifteen years ago and that it has since grown vastly in wealth, public spirit, and importance, one cannot but wonder that an indigenous high school had not been founded sooner. We hope the worthy citizens of Mylapore will take pride in the new school, and make it one of the best institutions in the city. The Managing Committee is a strong and influential body, though we wish that it included some more persons directly connected with educational work. We trust that the members of this Committee will ever keep high ideals in view, and not be easily satisfied and become supine. The good opinion of the Department is easily enough earned, and the average measure of success at the public examinations is, in these days alas! not difficult to reach. We should feel keenly disappointed if the Mylapore school kept to the beaten track and developed no special features of its own.

The percentage of passes at the Matriculation Examination of last December is not nearly so low as it was on the previous occasion, being about 28 as against 18. Still it is not satisfactory. We think high-school education will not cease to cause serious anxiety to thoughtful educationists until at least 50 p. c. of those who receive training in the sixth forms of our schools are found fit to enter upon the University course. The paucity of first classes in proportion to the total percentage is a striking phenomenon and will bear discussion from different points of view. Examiners alone can consider the matter with full knowledge, and, as it were, from the inside. Will they enlighten us?

Dark rumours are once more afloat as to the work done by the **The Matriculation Science Board.** examining Board for the Matriculation Science. Public confidence is rudely shaken when stories are told of serious difference of opinion among examiners as to the style of answers and the standard of valuation. We venture to ask the Syndicate to take note of the fact that the Science examiners have not printed the instructions to assistant examiners, as they had been desired to do. This omission on their part cannot but create the suspicion that there was something about these instructions which they did not like the Syndicate to know. We think also that the poor Matriculation candidates may be allowed the benefit of a change in the personnel of the Examiners in Science. They sorely need it.

Besides the Madras Teachers' Guild Conference, proceedings of which were published in the December Supplement, there were other gatherings where education formed either an incidental or a main topic of discussion. The most important were the Indian National Congress which held its sittings in Bombay, the Muhammadan Educational Conference of Lucknow, and the National Social Conference held in Bombay.

Whatever the views of its critics may be with regard to the other items of the Congress's programme, there can be little to find fault with in regard to its recommendation that more money should be spent on primary education, that provision should be made for imparting instruction in manual training and in scientific agriculture in schools; that Government colleges and High schools should be better manned and equipped so as to make

them really model institutions; that a central Polytechnic school should be established with minor technical schools and colleges in different provinces. Except the last part relating to the establishment of a central technical institute, the other parts of the recommendation are mostly in the direction in which Government is already moving or inclined to move. With regard to the last, the Tata Research Institute, when started, might be supposed to meet the wishes of the Congress. Is it a hint to the Government that it should 'hasten less slowly' in the matter?

As for free and compulsory education which was also recommended it seems high time that an attempt should be made in this direction in the Presidency towns at least. If the experiment should be successful, it may be carried further. Self-help may be a good thing, but compulsory education is not likely to be detrimental morally. There is the poorest class incapable of self-help in the matter of education. In their case compulsory education would come as a boon. In the next higher class, there would be ample scope for self-help in carrying the children on to higher stages of education. With the threatened discountenancing of secondary education by the Department, there would be plenty of scope for self-help from those that can afford to exert themselves in the matter.

The organizers of the Muhammadan Conference may be congratulated on the successful Conference they held at Lucknow. No small share of the success was due to the choice of the President for the occasion. Mr. Theodore Morison has been ably carrying on the work that Mr. Theodore Beck handed over to him—of guiding the destinies of the Aligarh College. He is inti-

mately acquainted with the educational work of the Universities in the Western countries and in India. He has shown himself to be no pleaser of men in the discussions of the Imperial Legislative Council and may be expected to 'speak out.' A president of an educational Conference could have no better qualifications. His speech is instructive in many ways and it is reprinted in full in the *Review*. There are certain parts of the speech to which we invite the special attention of our readers.

Mr. Theodore Morison spoke out on the utilitarian aspect of education. It has been made a reproach against the Indian that he cares for education only as a means for enabling him to get on in life and that there is here very little of the pursuit of learning for learning's sake. Is it not becoming a sort of cant—this advocacy of learning for learning's sake? Do people really understand what the words mean and do they realise what the results would be if the pursuit of learning were possible for its own sake? For all mankind education must be a preparation for doing their life-work. There may be some who in the present arrangement of society have no onerous task to perform, and in the case of these few, learning for learning's sake would be possible. Even in their case, learning tends to the delectation and refinement of the spirit. They settle satisfactorily for themselves or for others the business of *Hoti* or the basis of *Oun*. But with regard to the majority, even in Europe, education is pursued on strictly practical lines. That education is given which will best help the future career of the youth. "In Germany," says Mr. Morison, "where there is probably more true love of learning than in any country of Europe, a University educa-

tion is a necessary condition of almost all middle class occupations except trade, and consequently the majority of students attend the Universities to qualify for a profession and not with the sole object of improving their minds." The Lord Bishop of Madras who regrets the loss of the old type of scholar in India may be told that the scholar was preparing himself in a matter-of-fact way for his life here and for his life hereafter. The scholar's notion of the future may be to those of other faiths a futility. But he believed in it and he was as thoroughly utilitarian as Mr. J. A. Froude in his St. Andrews' Address of 1869. As in Germany, so also at Oxford. Every Sunday before the University Sermon is preached, there is the prayer that there may never be wanting a due supply of persons qualified to serve God in Church and State. No country in the world can afford to have a class of learned people whose only purpose would be to go on learning for learning's sake. They must contribute to the enlightenment of their fellow men. They must by their learning extend man's conquest over the forces of nature. They must fit themselves for doing the life work properly. Otherwise unless floated by artificial corks of wealth and position, they would be made to feel the force of the saying: If a man does not work, neither shall he eat. If learning means all this, for the better class of people, it has to be sternly utilitarian with regard to the poorer class of people. And in India the majority of the people are poor. And there could be no throwing that bait of learning for learning's sake before the Indians and especially by people whose own ideals are of the earth and earthy. Let us clear our minds of cant and let us not,

as some ungracious pastors do,
Show others the steep and thorny way to heaven.

We feel thankful to Mr. Morison for his having said plainly that education is a practical means to a practical end, and that end is the improvement of material well-being.

Another point of the address is the right position Mr. Morison assigns to the B.A. course of the University curriculum. It is but the termination of a good secondary education. Mr. Morison is of opinion that the general education of a professional man ought not to stop short of this terminal examination. No stage below that would do as only then is there in the majority of cases sufficient familiarity with English to allow of the reading of English books. This seems to be a rather over-drawn picture of the deficiency of our college youths. We believe that in this presidency at least a majority of undergraduates are able to understand and appreciate English books. But we dare say Mr. Morison's statement may be true when all India should be taken together. So the B.A. examination is to be taken as a reasonable standard of general education, and speaking of the educational facilities of the Mussulman community, Mr. Morison said that "the more generally accessible such education is the better for the material well-being of the community." What he says with reference to the Muhammadans may be applied to all Indians: "For the sake of the material progress of the people you must have an abundance of colleges in which an education approximately equivalent to that of the present B.A. classes can be given; you may call this education by what name you like, but instruction upto this standard and in abundance is necessary for the moral and material development of the people."

The Rev. Bishop Whitehead, taking a

different view—that the University education should be what it really professes to be—wishes to lessen the number of those entering the collegiate course and takes the position of Sir Thomas Raleigh who wanted to make the University learning deeper if less widespread. In this connection the Madras critic laments that the Universities Commission omitted the opportunity of providing for the Honours course. The easiest way of meeting the present deficiency would be to recognise the M.A. course as the much-missed Honours course. This is what practically obtains in this Presidency and this would serve all the ends of the Honours course without any dislocation of the present system. And the most practical work the newly modelled Universities can do will be the formation of University Libraries and, if funds permit, of laboratories, and of the organizing of courses of lectures by the Professors that the Universities may appoint for the purpose.

The question of the Muhammadan University came up—as was inevitable—for advocacy. As the cherished dream of Sir Syed Ahmed, the present authorities feel bound to effect its realisation. The formation of such a University will be detrimental to the larger interests of the community. Mr. A. Hydari's contention that the isolation of the Moslem youth would be emphasised, seems to be unanswerable. The tendency to sectarianism will grow instead of weakening. This view of the matter was presented by Mr. Budrudin Tyabji in his Presidential speech of 1903 and by one of the best friends of the Mussulman community, the Rev. Canon Sell. Perhaps the scheme in the modified form that Mr. Morison presented is not so very objectionable. He is

against centralising at Aligarh for the whole community the education up to the graduate standard. It is the post-graduate education that he would centralise at M. A. O. College. The higher study of Arabic may be pursued most hopefully according to Mr. Morison's plan. Even with regard to the study of the language, it would not be desirable to shut out men of other communities if they should feel drawn to the study of the language; as we would object to Mussulmans being shut out of the opportunities of higher studies in Sanskrit if such studies be made a specialty at Benares. With separate hostels for men of different communities the thing may be done. As regards science or other faculties there is nothing distinctively Mussalmanic about it. The new modelled Universities must make arrangements for the higher studies of science. Mr. Hydari's suggestion of founding scholarships on the plan of the Tata Scholarships, of attaching Moslem hostels under Moslem supervision to the existing colleges and the foundation of chairs and fellowships of research for the languages and literatures of Islamic peoples in the existing colleges appears to be best calculated to serve the interests of the community with none of the evils of separatism inevitable in the plan of an exclusive Mussalman University.

Those of us who were lucky enough to witness the proceedings of the last Social Conference held in Bombay must have been impressed by the real hold education appears to have taken on the women of the Western Presidency. Not only were a large number of ladies present, but they were able to take part in the proceedings of the Conference. Some of the most effective speeches were made by them. Even the visitor

to the Congress must have noticed how the ladies followed intelligently the proceedings of the day and were not inappreciative of the 'humours' of the scene. A visit to Bombay must have brought home to many—as nothing else might—how guilty those of us are who neglect the cultivation of our women's minds, how wilfully and wantonly we deprive ourselves of powers that would make for progress of the right kind and allow them to run to waste or to be used against the interests of the community.

"Men are being induced with ever-increasing difficulty to enter upon a scholastic career." So writes a contributor to the January number of 'School.' It is the same thing here in India. In earlier years we had the best men of our University entering life as schoolmasters. The switching off to some other employment was always contemplated, and this made the young men 'rough it' at the profession for a few years. The 'rose-pink' of the future reconciled them to the 'dirty drab' of the present. Now that the waiters on Providence are discountenanced, the majority are those who choose the profession for life. With them the 'drab' is getting dirtier and dirtier. Cannot something be done to hearten up the teachers—especially those in that most hopeless slough of despond—the private educational service? If the Department would only keep its eyes and ears open, it would not be difficult to select those that best distinguish themselves as teachers in native schools and colleges and appoint them as teachers or lecturers in Government schools and colleges. Such men are not likely to be young men who would be willing enough to accept any appointment that may be offered them. From all we hear,

the Department does not seem to be overfull of able men in the native part of the staffs in colleges. The late Mr. Grigg introduced at least one able teacher from a Municipal School and his wisdom is appreciated now. About the best English professor in Government service now was serving in a private college. So we should like to have the principle adopted that all educational work whether in private or municipal service adds not only to the teacher's educational experience, but also to his value as a wage-earner. A uniform offer of the minimum salary open to the teacher in the Government service will not bring in the best men. A fair recognition now and then of the work done by teachers outside the department will act magically on these pariahs of the educational world. It would inspire them with the hope that if they should only exert themselves they must have their reward some day. The majority might have to live only on hope. But few are capable of bringing out the best that is in them if they have to work without hope.

The purely legal aspect of this question it would be foreign to our purpose to discuss here. So far as we have been able to make out, the judges were agreed as to the wrongfulness of what was done. The dissentient judges were not satisfied that there were all the elements of fraud. Mr. Justice Davies was disposed to look upon Venkatarayudu's action as a school-boy's trick and thought that the punishment he had already undergone was enough. Mr. Justice Subramani Aiyar was against elevating an offence which could be punished by University rustication and school discipline into a crime the punishment for which would entail permanent moral degradation. But the other judges—

and they were the majority—were of opinion that the crime was fully made out. The case of R. v. Abbas Ali which was relied on gave them no option in the matter.

We do not wish to minimise the gravity of the offence of Venkatarayudu. But we think the more lenient view would have best served the interests of justice and humanity. It would be a safe rule to follow that the punishment should be so chosen as to make the moral redemption of the man possible. A Javert-like frame of mind would manufacture more criminals than Monsieur Bien-Venu could redeem. Evidently there was the idea of administering a moral tonic to the educated community by meting out punishment to Venkatarayudu. It would be about as fair to infer the criminality of the educated classes here from the thoughtless doings of schoolboys as to infer the brutal nature of the 'services' from the schoolboy exploits of Stalky and Co.

We learn that a movement is afoot to have 'an adequate Shakespeare Commemoration Movement.' Milton was certain that there was no need of 'piled stones' for keeping Shakespeare's memory green. But the London County Council has decided otherwise. We learn that there is to be a monument in London similar to the Scott Memorial or the Albert Memorial. The surplus funds are to be utilised for promoting the study and appreciation of Shakespeare. And a Shakespeare Commemoration is to be held all over the world during the 'Shakespeare Week' 1905 (April 23rd to May 1st). India may appropriately join in the last part of the programme. In the colleges and schools in all India students may seriously begin to study some particular plays so as to enable them to

act the plays successfully. The study of the plays for such a purpose will make the amateur actors understand them as nothing else will, and time thus spent cannot be reckoned ill spent. And in spite of Henry Ryecroft's claim to the Englishman's exclusive privilege of understanding Shakespeare, there is so much in the dramatist that all can value that we expect a movement of the sort to become very popular. May we call on all the heads of schools and colleges to take early steps to commemorate Shakespeare in the only way a dramatic writer must be commemorated—by arranging for a study of the plays with a view to their being brought on the stage during the Shakespeare week?

In spite of all errors and defects we are proud of the past that indigenous effort takes in the great work of education.

A moderate degree of pride is necessary for continued progress, and there is good reason to believe that it will not be misplaced in the present instance. To re-assure those who are disposed to take a gloomy view of the prospects of indigenous education, we propose to publish, from time to time, accounts of institutions which are the outcome of indigenous effort. We firmly believe that such accounts if full and accurate, will afford much room for hope, if not for satisfaction. To those also who are interested in some of these institutions the life history of similar institutions must be very instructive and helpful. Again, a broad survey of the general conditions of progress in these various institutions is certain to yield invaluable lessons for the future guidance of native agencies. Native schools are in certain places languishing for want of support, in others they have ceased to progress after a certain stage, remaining contentedly just on

the safe side of the efficiency line fixed by the Department of Education; in none is there a Superannuation or Provident Fund for teachers.

To make these mutually helpful and capable of accomplishing by united effort what is beyond the capacity of each by itself, a federation of indigenous institutions has been suggested. But who can say whether such a federation is feasible? We need to know first all about these institutions, the features that are common to them as well as those that are distinctive of each. Whether a federation be possible or not, what can better conduce to mutual sympathy and brotherliness than the knowledge of one another's successes and failures? We would therefore request managers and heads of indigenous colleges and schools to favour us with a full history and detailed description of their institutions. We trust this appeal will be recognised as proceeding from a sincere desire to advance the cause of native education and that it will meet with a cordial response at the hands of all friends of education.

The following heads of information are given as an indication of the general lines on which the accounts may be written. They are of course neither binding nor exhaustive, and we would beg our correspondents to omit nothing which is important from their point of view or likely to be of interest to others.

The School: when founded, why;

Its relation to the Educational Department, and to rival Schools.

Management—whether proprietary or not. Has the management a constitution? Is it registered?

Original strength—Present strength. Original classes.

Present classes—History of growth—Has it been one of advance? Any set-backs?

Buildings: plan of the present one—its suitability or otherwise.

The School staff: how appointed. What voice the Headmaster has in their selection. The qualifications, pay, &c., of the present teachers. Succession list of Headmasters. Any pension scheme? Are changes of staff frequent?

Finance—(1) Any endowments or other property?

(2) Fees—Rates—Any special fees? concessions—how given. Has the staff any voice in regulating them?

(3) Grants.

(4) Net cost or profit to management.

Equipment: Furniture, Library, Laboratory, Gymnasium and Recreation Grounds, Hostels, Museums.

Terms and holidays—a list of the latter.

Internal Working of the School. Discipline: corporal punishment and the truth about it.

Promotions: how regulated? Are the class examinations conducted by outside examiners? Any interference from managers.

Hours of work—Time-table, Distribution of subjects. Any leisure time for pupils. Masters' leisure.

Marks giving or place-taking?

Courses of study: any special features—as music, manual work, &c.

Extra aids to teaching: Societies, Excursions, Magic Lantern Exhibitions.

'Extra' reading: how encouraged.

Religious or moral instruction if any:

Devices to secure parents' co-operation.

A Practical Manual of English, (containing Grammar, Etymology, Idiom and Composition)

FOR THE USE OF STUDENTS OF ENTRANCE OR MATRICULATION

EXAMINATION OF THE INDIAN UNIVERSITIES,

BY

N. G. WELINKAR, M.A., LL.B.,

Head Superintendent of Municipal Schools, Bombay.

PRICE RS. 1-12-0.

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No. 2.

THE PRACTICE OF EDUCATION.

A course of 12 lectures was given on the above subject by Dr. Fletcher, Vice-Principal of the Day Training College, Cambridge. As the problem of education is attracting much attention in the present age, I thought perhaps the substance of these lectures might prove suggestive. I propose to give it in four parts: I. *Introduction*, which treats of the following: first, a few general remarks on the study of education, then, Is education a science or an art, and thirdly, the aim and definition of education and the relation it bears to other sciences: II. *The Practice of Education*—here used in a restricted sense. How is education to be given—through the instrumentality of the teacher: His influence is of two kinds, direct and indirect. These according to Dr. Fletcher are the chief factors in Training and Teaching, respectively. In this part we shall deal with *Training*, under which is included Government and guidance: under the heading of *Teaching*, we shall consider the two questions of method and curriculum, III—*Method*, and IV—*Curriculum*:

PART I. Introduction.

Dr. Fletcher recommends the following books:—Findlay's *Principles of Class-teaching*; Laurie's *Institutes of Education*, specially 'Moral Education'; Sadler's *Special Reports*. For *Method* specially, he recommends Fitch's

Lectures on Teaching, Barnett's *Teaching and Organisation*; and Barnett's *Common Sense and Education*.

The education problem concerns not only the individuals and teachers of a country, but the whole nation. The future welfare of a nation is closely bound up with its educational institutions: Let us take England for an example—are its educational institutions standing still? Far from it, they are progressing rapidly as is seen by the founding of libraries, the growth of Universities, the founding, the rapid extension of Secondary and Primary schools, &c. The aim is to train the character of the individual and thus better the nation. If we turn back to the pages of English History, we find that whenever the nation felt the character of the individual declining, there was recourse to great educational activity. After the wars of the Roses, there was the re-discovery and founding of many schools. Again, at the end of the 18th century, the nation which previously was mainly agricultural, became manufacturing. This greater demand for labour showed that the people were ignorant and had sunk to a lower level than before. Then rose the great preachers of education, Carlyle, Ruskin, Morris and others, who bravely upheld the ideals of education before the people, and who strove to rouse them from their lethargy.

Hence, the study of education is very important; but it must be remembered that this study should be systematic and not desultory. The various topics must be presented in an orderly manner: a certain scheme should be adopted: division and classification made; and the fundamental principles studied. Most of the books on education are, according to Dr. Fletcher, at fault here, as there is no system or logical sequence in them. Some have classified it as follows: the Theory, the Practice and the History of Education. In this classification it must be remembered that one should not be separated from the other: the theory and practice should both unite, and supplement and correct one another. The History of Education is a necessary part. Education deals with the facts of experience and these are rooted in History. Further, the lives and works of the great educators are always interesting and inspiring. But even here, as said above, the history of education should not be considered apart from the theory and practice. All three deal with the facts of education, but each from a different point of view.

Dr. Fletcher proposes the following classification:—

1. The aim or end of education.
2. The practice or conduct of education.
3. The administration of education.

Before considering the aim or end of education, let us discuss the much-debated question: Is education a science or an art?

Education is an art. All admit it. Education is dependent upon climate, nationality, the historical development of the race and the special characteristics of the individual. Education has its limitation. It is concerned with the welfare of the child, with the pupil. Hence, the educator takes his ideal from the

"open book of human intercourse." He can not construct a speculative Philosophy and be silent. But he must bow to the reality, to the "man in the street," with his changing moods. But efforts have been made to rest the art of education on a scientific basis. Education is following the foot-steps of other sciences, *viz.*, A science begins with mere experience. Later on, efforts are made to justify the method and the experience, and then a scientific basis is found for the system. Similarly, the education in ancient times was first the business of the mother—the child was taught by the mother from her experience. Then it was given to professionals and slaves. It became a collection of mere rules and proverbs. The philosophers then took it up, thought about it and reduced it to a system. It began to rank as a science. Herbart was one of the very few who made it their study. Thus, the art of education has been made to rest on a scientific basis. It derives its precepts from psychology, ethics, logic, and sociology, &c., and regulates its practice according to them.

Now, let us consider the aim or end of education. What is its meaning and what purpose does it accomplish? Perhaps, a short discussion of some of the current definitions of education will help us. The usual definition accepted by many is that education is the communication of knowledge. But there comes the question, how much knowledge and what knowledge? Herbert Spencer in his *Tractate on Education* begins with the question "what knowledge is of most worth?" But this suggests a new problem instead of solving the former one.

Pestalozzi says education is the harmonious development of all our faculties. But again comes the difficulty, what faculties? Bain

treats education as a psychological problem. How shall the memory, the intellect, the will, &c., be trained? But education is more a social and ethical problem than a psychological one; therefore the aim of education is something more than merely training the mental faculties. What does experience tell us about education? It shows us that education has reference to men, specially to childhood, that it means the exercising of a deliberate mode of influence, and that it aims at achieving a definite result, and to produce a lasting effect. To secure the latter, education must not be spasmodic. History verifies all these and further shows us its purpose. In the earliest times, the state concerned itself with the education of its children, and its aim was to make them perfect citizens. Compare the example of Sparta; also the ideal set forth by Plato in his *Republic*. Later on the Church also undertook to educate her children and her aim was to make them perfect citizens of the kingdom of Heaven. From this we see that the aim was to train the individual to be as perfect as possible, and this could only be accomplished by training the character of the individual. Hence, the chief aim and end of education is to train the character; to train men and women, to develop the moral personality of the children, to make them be true to themselves and to prepare for life. This is accomplished by specific influences, to which is given the name of Education (Refer to Findlay).

Relation of Education to other Sciences:— Education is dependent for its material on other branches of study. Some such as science, literature, mathematics, history form part of the curriculum, while others such as ethics, logic, psychology, physiology and sociology aid education. *Ethics* is the key-

stone of education; because it is the science of the motive of human conduct. The welfare of the rising generation depends upon the development of the character of the individuals, and education concerns itself with character-training. It aims at ideal perfection, and therefore it has to take its ideal from ethics, which sets forth the ideal in human conduct.

Psychology is the science which investigates the mind and its growth. The teacher's business is to direct and develop the growth of the child's mind; hence he must be acquainted with psychology so that he may be able to gauge the workings of the children's minds.

Logic is necessary to the teacher. As it deals with language division, classification, deduction, induction, &c., it helps the teacher to correct inaccurate thought in himself and in his pupils. Besides it teaches him to present the matter in an orderly and accurate manner; and thus makes it easier for the child to learn and comprehend the line of thought.

Sociology is the science which investigates the laws of human society in all its grades. Education is specially a social problem. By its means society tries to influence the younger generation. Therefore education must concern itself with such questions as what forms of education are best, private or collective, elementary, secondary or technical, private or public, co-education, &c., to answer which education seeks the help of sociology.

Physiology. The mind and body are related; one cannot be affected without the other being affected also. Therefore a knowledge of physiology is necessary to the teacher, in order to establish the best possible conditions of teaching. The learning of Hygiene is a necessary part in the training of a teacher. He must have a knowledge of the laws of health to

arrange his curriculum so as to avoid over-pressure and fatigue. He must understand something about the laws of ventilation, light, &c., to arrange his school-room, and its appliances. He must study the science of illness, so as to avoid it and to rightly order physical exercise and arrange games, &c. (Refer to Duke's 'Health and Physical Culture: 'Health and School.')

Before proceeding to the Second Part, let us clearly set before ourselves the aim of education; Dr. Westcott, the late Lord Bishop of Durham in an address, gives expression to it thus:—"In 'hours of insight' at least we perceive that we do not want living encyclopædias or perfect machines of human work—but men and women eager and fit to take part in social service. Our sincerest desire for our children is not that they should simply accumulate knowledge, but that they should acquire a character—a character inspired, if it may be, by the invigorating sense of the dignity of labour, of the responsibility of wealth and power and place, of the 'transfiguring virtue of hope.'"

H. R. K.

THE MATRICULATION EXAMINATION.

THE Matriculation examination has come and gone; the car of Juggernaut has moved on again crushing thousands of devoted victims beneath its huge wheels and their sighs and pangs have not yet subsided. Headmasters rave, students moan or grow mad, and parents stand dumb-struck or gnash their teeth while Inspectors of Schools, secure in their official chair, denounce Headmasters, students and parents and all but the true

cause of all the mischief—the institution of the examination itself that sows such havoc year after year, with all its paraphernalia of bye-laws, examiners, assistant examiners and tabulators. Every one of these latter is partly at least, if not wholly, responsible for the annual slaughter of the victims. The bye-laws have made a stupid grouping of subjects and exact unconscionable percentages for a pass; the examiners are in some cases faddists; the assistant examiners are mere drudging machines and the tabulators work in darkness and silence. The result is that out of a total of 8958 candidates that appeared for the examination in December last, barely 2488 are declared to have passed in January, giving 28.2 per cent. in all. Is such a result satisfactory? Be it noted that these 8958 are only a pick of the High School population of whom more than 15,000 were attending the several High Schools in the Presidency last September. At what cost of labour on the part of the teachers and the taught alike and at what expense to the parents, the Government and various local boards and missionary bodies was this magnificent work achieved? Alas! the concern seems to be in a hopeless muddle if only such a dividend is to be expected at the end of the year. There is really something wrong somewhere. It is easy enough to cry down the poor, ill-paid, hard-worked, but on the whole well-meaning and painstaking handicraftsman that goes by the name of the High School Master. But I ask: do professors in colleges show better work with the thrice filtered liquid pure that passes through their hands? There the blame shifts its plane of incidence; it falls on the devoted head of the innate depravity of the Hindu youth who will not learn but will only cram. But pray teach us how to learn and not to cram. Well, this is another matter. Learning or cramming, the

Matriculation candidate is year after year crushed beneath the wheels of this rushing Juggernaut car which springs forward with an indifference to the feelings, character and fortunes of its poor victims that is truly appalling. If we look into the cause of the failures, it is not so much such important subjects as English, classical language or mathematics that are responsible for the slaughter. It is chiefly these so-called general knowledge subjects—mere scraps of science and history and geography—mere stringing of facts without principles and laws—a matter where nothing but cram pure and simple plays the part. And the examiners in charge of these subjects misjudge their importance in High School education and being more often mere faddists, seem to imagine that the true hall-mark of intellectuality or qualification to enter on a University course is set on the candidate only if he passes through *their imprimatur*. They instruct the drudges who labour, under their direction to give cypher for an otherwise correct answer if the word *chlorine* is spelt wrong or if the direction of a *line* is somewhat uncertain. As for the history examiners, now that history and geography are mixed up together, they revel absolutely in vague conundrums. The teachers do not know what to teach. So vast is the field and so absurdly vague, general and slippery is the test that is applied, there is no knowing what to do and what not to do with the poor fellows. Isolated facts unconnected with each other have to be got up—a feat really past the powers of anything but cram pure and simple. And a most stringent valuation of the answers smites the unfortunate victims literally by thousands. Is it really so very necessary to be so stringent in valuation as regards these non-essential subjects at least as far as the Matriculation standard is concerned? Are

these not precisely the subjects that are more fully studied during the College course with due attention to the principles and laws that are involved? Will it not be enough to exact a mere smattering of knowledge in these, while a high standard may be fixed in the other subjects? As it is, it is quite possible for a candidate who passes under all the rigours of this examination to lack precisely those qualifications which will enable him to follow intelligently the work that is done in the College classes, while many a student better fitted for the higher work may be thrown behind to wear out his freshness and vigour in dinning these scraps again and again into his head. Take for instance such a case as this—a case not at all an imaginary one. Say, a boy scores more than 60 % of the marks in English and 50 % in a classical language and mathematics, but fails because he does not score his 35 % in the so-called general knowledge subject; is he on that account less fitted to enter on a University course? Is he not many times better than another who scores his bare 40 % in English and 35 % in the other subjects? But the sapient bye-laws have decided otherwise; the inferior goes up and the superior boy remains behind and grows duller year after year by worry and struggle. Alas! how long will this insanity last? It is not even possible to know the marks scored in one examination and the rules of valuation followed, so that at least for the next year the student may prepare himself for the sort of test he will have to undergo. But Mr. Stone will not have even this; the student and teacher must work with a higher ideal. Stuff and nonsense all this! Does a student who scores more than 60 % in English and 50 % in other subjects pursue a lower ideal and do it? No the exaction is too severe; and the strain of learning the general knowledge subjects to

secure the 25 % in it is too much for the young boys of sixteen and seventeen who form the bulk of the Matriculation population. No wonder the average age of the candidates for F.A. is so high as 20! This implies that very rarely the student passes the Matriculation the first year he appears. I propose therefore this reform in the bye-law. Why not demand only 25 % in the general knowledge with a minimum of 40 % in all the subjects put together? I may even put it this way: a minimum of 40 % in English and some other subject, say mathematics or classical language, with 25 % for each of the other papers, with a total of 40 % in all the subjects put together. Such an arrangement will raise the number of passes by at least a thousand, while a few of the undesirables who scrape through under the present system with bare 35 % in all subjects and a 40 % only in English will be eliminated to the no little satisfaction of the college professors. This is a reform easily accomplished, and it will go a very long way to remedy the evils. The University itself recognises the principle involved in this reform in its bye-laws relating to the minima in the F.A. examination.

I have also another suggestion to make: the practice of getting the valuation of the answers done at the hands of an army of assistant examiners causes a great deal of diversity in the valuation; the personal factor of the valuer is bound to enter largely into the case. The chief examiner may apply his rough and ready method of raising or lowering the average for a whole centre; but this is surely only a rough and ready method which may do well where only mere figures are concerned. While the general centre may benefit by it, individuals, whose fates are in fact the most important matter for considera-

tion, are bound to suffer. Surely such a method will not do. Why not resort to the old practice of dividing a *paper* into a number of parts—say three or four—and assign each to an examiner? The labour of valuation will be minimised and the personal factor will be all but done away with. This principle also is recognised elsewhere by the University. I only crave for the extension of the principle to the Matriculation examination.

One other small suggestion and I end. Why should the marks scored by a candidate be kept in darkness? I should like to have some provision—say on payment of a small fee—for knowing the marks scored in any subject by a candidate. I should like also to have a means open for the re-valuation of papers in particular subjects if the Headmaster is thoroughly satisfied that there is some miscarriage of justice in the failure of any specially good boy. If a boy can be shown to have done uniformly well in the class throughout the year and also to have done satisfactorily at the University examination in the opinion of competent local men, it is merely unjust not to give him a means of appeal from the decisions of human examiners with all the weaknesses and faults which human flesh is heir to.

I do not draw from my imagination all such cases. I know more than one instance where there has been a serious miscarriage of justice of this kind in the recent examination and I can see no way for remedying it. What has taken place this year may take place and has been taking place year after year. I am sure out of 9,000 candidates there may be more than 90 such every year who are doomed to disappointment and condemned in darkness. Fix a high penalty price for such revaluation by all means and the cost of revaluation may

be met very easily by a portion of the penalty deposit that may be exacted from the candidate. Some such provision is necessary as a safety valve; too much rigour savours of infallibility which none of us poor mortals can lay claim to.

G. KASTURI AIYANGAR.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

THAT a large majority of the secondary school pupils are utterly deficient in English, is a fact that cannot be too much deplored. Bad writing, wrong spelling, disregard of the rules of syntax, not to speak of inappropriate words and unidiomatic phrases, are the disheartening features of the written exercises of most of the pupils. Need it be said that these bad writers are worse speakers? Since English is the vehicle of modern thought, the *lingua franca* of the Empire, and the language of the commercial world, the importance of writing and speaking good English cannot be over-estimated. Far more essential is a sound knowledge of English to the school pupil, than to the man in the street. Besides the important position occupied by the language itself in the course of study and the examination syllabus, English is the language in which the text-books on 'non-language' subjects are written and in which the candidate has to answer the questions during the examination. Proficiency and success in these subjects depend, to no small extent, on proficiency in English. Instances are not uncommon where the progress of pupils in the 'non-language' subjects, is often checked by this 'original' evil of deficiency in English. The extent and intensity of this evil being very fearful and its results very disastrous to the school-going

world, we cannot think of a more imperative call on the attention, energy and resources of those who are responsible for the instruction of the young.

The teaching profession ought to bear the brunt in fighting this evil and strengthened by the co-operation of the pupils and the public, can achieve complete success. In the November number of the *Review* was published Mr. Hart's paper on 'The Teaching of English as a foreign language,' in which the method of teaching the language to the beginners was described and explained. The following are some thoughts which are offered for the consideration of the teachers employed in secondary schools.

A. *Text Books*: Too much care cannot be taken in the choice of text-books. It is a matter for regret that some schools take a pride in prescribing very difficult text-books (just as some people delight in setting question papers hard). Roughly speaking, about 80 per cent. of the pupils should find it possible to make out 80 per cent. of the sentences in the text-books. With regard to teaching, the old method of 'give and recover' (the method in which the teacher tells everything on the previous day and the pupils repeat all that on the succeeding day) should be completely abandoned, if it prevail anywhere now. Pupils should be asked to learn for themselves, at home, the meanings of words and phrases from dictionaries. Sentences should be made out and their meanings expressed in the class room by the pupils in their own words. The attention of the pupils should next be drawn to the principles and rules of grammar, the application of which is found in the lesson. Exercises in sentence-construction (recasting sentences) should come next, care being taken that the question does not demand an answer opposed to idiom or common sense. These

mishaps are likely to occur in framing questions on change of voice or change of degree. In the Lower Secondary forms, vernacular sentences should be given to be translated into an English sentence of a given model or requiring the use of a recently learned idiom. Last, but certainly not the least important, is questioning or conversing on the subject matter of the portion read. The beautiful and vivid illustrations, a pleasant and refreshing feature of the modern Readers, should be turned to account in the course of conversation. Pupils should be asked to express in their own words what they see in the picture and should be led to see and say how the written matter is illustrated in the picture. Fortunately, the race of pedagogues that condemned pictures with a sincere puritanism and classed picture-seeing as a crime punishable with the extreme penalty of the pedagogic law, is fast disappearing. Where the answer of a question is found in the book, an answer in the pupil's own language should be insisted on. Questions requiring a comparison of the matter of the lesson with facts already learnt, demanding an association of connected ideas or appealing to the practical experience and actual observation of the pupil, will, while enhancing his interest in the lesson, compel him to find expression for his thoughts in his own words.

B. *Grammar*: Grammar, it is to be feared, is overdone in some schools at least in the lower forms. Grammar should be subordinated to the reading lesson, to the immense advantage of both the lessons. The efficient teaching of grammar consists in making the pupils notice the actual application of the rules and principles, in the literature they read—Readers, books on History, even magazines and newspapers. Idioms should be taught in the higher forms to be brought in use, but the more difficult and the less com-

mon ones should be carefully avoided.

C. *Writing*: Bad writing is the rule among pupils, a fair hand being the exception. In Lower Secondary forms, in addition to home-copy, a copy lesson of thirty minutes a day, should be provided for in the time-table. For Upper Secondary forms, one copy-lesson per week will do, provided that careless writing in the performance of home exercises is severely checked and that the boys who cannot write a tolerably fair hand, be made to attend the Lower Secondary form copy-class every day. The copy-master should, having previously set the form on the board, go round to rectify, on the spot, the pupils' errors. Since bad writing is in most cases a result of impatience and carelessness, these vices should be discouraged.

D. *Spelling*: Instances of outrageous misspelling are too frequently met with in the written exercises. In the Lower Secondary forms, a dictation-lesson of 30' should be done everyday. Commonly misspelt words of frequent usage (e.g., Beggar, Wealth, Grammar, Country) should be particularly attended to.

E. *Translation*: Translation as a method of teaching English has been referred to in the paragraph treating about Text-books. Composition and Translation are very useful as testing exercises (which indirectly aid teaching.) Errors committed by pupils in the written exercises should be crossed by the teacher; and the pupils should be asked to write down in a note-book, three or four times the correct reading of the wrong sentences.

Besides the proper teaching of the above-mentioned lessons, there are other means, no less promising of success, that may be adopted by the teacher bent on combating the evil of deficiency in English. English should be made the official language of the school-room. Books for home-reading should be recommend-

ed and advice should be offered as to the ways of studying such books. Teachers should encourage the formation of students' societies and give them as often as possible the benefit of their knowledge and experience.

G. SRINIVASA AIYAR.

EDUCATION AND CHARACTER.

A VERY influentially signed appeal has been addressed to the local education authorities of England and Wales, urging the importance of the formation of moral character as the chief end of education.

Among the signatories are the two Archbishops, a number of Bishops and leading Nonconformists, "General" Booth, Lord Rosebery, Lord Kelvin, and other Peers, Lady Henry Somerset, Mrs. H. P. Hughes, and other ladies. Appended to the letter, are the following "practical suggestions which have been found useful":—

(1) The reading books should be of a kind which hold up high ideals of conduct; they should contain stories of heroism, self-denial, and integrity, and thus give the teacher the opportunity of teaching the value of character.

(2) Songs which stir the noblest emotions should be encouraged; songs tend to form the character of the young.

(3) Pictures which illustrate heroic deeds might be placed on the walls.

(4) Scholars should have their attention drawn to the laws of health and Christian conduct, from which the evils of intemperance and gambling and other vices which degrade national character could be pointed out.

(5) Teachers could, by superintending games in the play ground, promote manliness of character, self-control and fair play.

XI

(6) The formation of an old scholar's association cultivates loyalty to the school and a wholesome *esprit de corps*.

It is to be hoped that a committee may be formed to co-operate with the local authorities in furthering the objects of this appeal.

—From the London Times.

THE EDUCATED AMERICAN DRUDGE.

"Toy"! "Beautiful Tyrant"! "Queen—with man her willing slave!" It is by such names that the American women is known abroad, especially in England.

The American man, engrossed in business, turned into a mere money-grabber for the benefit of his womankind, while she shines in society, travels in Europe and pursues the cult of culture—this is the picture of American life most frequently presented to the English people. They judge by what they see abroad, by the average travelling specimens. They have no other means of judging, since comparatively few English people come to the United States. When compared with these few English who come to America, the number of American women travelling abroad seems very large indeed. Yet if these latter are compared with those American women who remain always in their own country, the number of the travellers is infinitesimally small.

While the American Toy, the American Tyrant and the American Queen sip ice-cream, sodas, through a straw in the Cecil courtyards, and make the welkins of the American Quick Lunch Restaurant in the Strand ring with their shrill orders for terrapin and soft-shell crabs, the American Drudge stays at home and keeps her house and she is far more typically American.

But the English people do not know her. As I have said, they judge by what they see abroad, not by a close study of American life in this American land, and they think the picture a realistic one, and so they talk and write of the American Type.

12

Having, during the past eleven years, resided in England, and having become, to a certain extent, English in my point of view of many matters, I have found myself, from time to time, thinking of my countrywomen as I have discovered them abroad, not as I left them at home in what seemed to me very long ago.

I am of the Middle West; and, to be sure, once in a while there seemed to come to me a faint recollection of the sound of the scrubbing-brush, the rattle of the dish-pan, the swishing of brooms and dusters. They seemed to be in connection not with "the very poor," nor yet with the Western "hired girl," but with my old friends of earlier associations. They were visions of tired, worn faces, bent backs. The visions grieved and pained me; yet, being but faint ones, they did not affect me deeply, nor abide with me long. Sometimes I thought of our country parson's wife, who did all her housework, including the ironing of the parson's white neck-ties; took care of her three children; led the young people's meeting; presided every Sunday at the church organ; taught a Sunday school-class; looked after the sewing circle; gave her children lessons in drawing and music; made her own and her children's clothes; and, from out of the Municipality of all her other duties as housekeeper, mother and parson's wife, snatched a few minute's time every day in which to keep up her German by reading a bit of Goethe or Schiller.

I was talking about her one day to an English clergyman, the editor of a prominent magazine, and he exclaimed: "How very extraordinary! And may I ask if she was what in England we should call a 'gentlewoman'?"

"Oh yes," I answered. "She was the daughter of a lawyer. She was a graduate of Oberlin, and a woman whose surroundings were always of the most refined and intellectual."

"Dear, dear!" he exclaimed. "What a character for a study-story! But in England nobody would believe it to be taken from life."

"We have poor clergymen here, very poor ones;

but they always manage to keep a servant and a nurse. It is very pathetic, very pathetic!" I, too, thought it very "pathetic," also "very extraordinary." I made myself believe that our parson's wife was different from all other parsons' wives. That the woman was average, or typical, I certainly should have denied.

And one day, a few months later, I received a letter from an old college mate, who, since I had seen her, had married, moved to a large Western town, and had three children. Apologizing for not having answered my letter long before, she said: "My dear, you must not expect me to write to you often, for I am a busy Martha, as you would understand if you were not a literary bachelor woman. Of course, I keep up with my Latin, and I am refreshing my mind with regard to Botany, for my little girl is interested in it. But my time is quite full what with the housework, the baking and mending, the making of all our clothes, and then I have my church and club and charity work. But I have a good washerwoman, so that I have only the ironing to do now."

An English friend was calling on me when I received the letter; and, feeling somewhat proud of what to me seemed the wonderful accomplishments of my old school-mate, I read this part of the letter aloud to him.

"A college woman, did you say?" he said looking bewildered.

"Yes," I answered, "one of the most brilliant minds I have ever seen."

"I suppose she made an unfortunate marriage; perhaps she did not marry a gentleman; or perhaps they have become very poor? In that case, it is very remarkable, yet very unfortunate, that she is thus able to help him on his feet again."

I explained that the girl had married a "gentleman," and that he belonged to what in England is known as the "professional class." Also, that they had not become "very poor"—quite the contrary. They were improving in their circumstances every year. Had she not said

that now she had a washerwoman, implying that she had not always had one?

"You mean that a college woman began that sort of thing as soon as she was married—that she married expecting to do it?" he exclaimed when I replied that I thought that was the case, his reply was:

"Of course, it is out of the ordinary, else it would do away with one's preconceived notions of the American man's treatment of his wife. But I assure you that it would be impossible to find in England a gentleman who would allow his wife to become a household drudge!"

I agreed with the Englishman that it was "out of the ordinary." I believed that I had an exceptional college friend, as well as having had an exceptional parson's wife; and then I returned to my native land, and, travelling in the Middle West and the Far West, I have had my mind disabused. The cases were not unique. I have found them very common, so common that I would almost call them typical of a large majority of educated American married women in certain sections of the United States. Asked how these women have impressed me on my return to my own country, after more than a decade of wandering, I should unhesitatingly say: "They are household drudges."

Were I a painter, and did I wish to depict on canvas the typical American Wife, I should put a calico dress upon her, tie a gingham apron round her waist, and paint her with an intellectual face, all eager, searching—searching for dust.

"Being so British, you will like to see those," said a college woman to me a month or two ago when I was calling upon her. She opened a parcel of a half-dozen Irish linen housemaids' aprons, with huge pockets and strapped bibs. "They are from Belfast. A friend brought them to me!"

"What are they for?" I asked.

"For afternoons," she answered. "In the

morning I wear the gingham ones, but there is always something to do."

Always something to do! It is well every woman that she should have always something to do, but the something should not always require an apron.

Throughout the West, I met the educated American Drudge in her hundreds. At times she seemed, in part, to realize what she was. At other times she seemed to live and work all unconscious of the depth of drudgery, to which she had descended, especially if her husband helped her to beat the carpets, and hung up the clothes-line one Monday morning before he went to business. For the Drudge's husband is "handy about the house." The Educated Drudge does not have a large family. Her limit is three children. The average is two; indeed, statistics will probably show it to be but one and a half.

It was at her, at least in part, that President Roosevelt levelled his accusation of contributing to Race Suicide, and thereby helping on the Survival of the Unfit.

It is true that the Educated Drudge has not done all that Nature, perhaps, intended and fitted her to do, in the way of increasing and multiplying after her kind and replenishing that part of the earth which she inhabits.

It is also true that in no country in the world, except the United States, will one find a woman in checked gingham apron presiding at the wash-tub and stopping, between rubs, to go into the parlor to help her only little daughter over a difficult part of Schubert or Wagner at the piano! In no one country will one find a wife washing dishes, cooking, sweeping, dusting, scrubbing, putting patch upon patch and darn upon darn for ten hours during the day, then spending her evenings helping her two children with their lessons in Geometry and Physics.

And in no other country, except among the peasantry will one find the mother of a three weeks' old in fact doing her own housework and taking care of her child besides!

Of real rest the woman has none. If she snatches an hour off the housework to dox the pretty gown she has made herself, and go to her club to listen to a paper on "The Duties of a Wife" or "Model Motherhood," the rush to get there and the rush to get back, "in time to have dinner on the table," adds to her weariness. If, instead of going out, she lies down in her bedroom for an afternoon nap, she hears piercing little cries of "Ma, where's my pants—the striped ones?" "Oh, mamma, help me to tie my dollie's hat!"

Drudge, in the kitchen, she is also slave to her children, and up to the time which would seem to an English person a very mature age indeed to occupy cots at night in the family bedroom, so that she may "keep the covers on them" and be sure that "nothing happens."

At first one is filled with pity, and then one is lost in admiration of the Educated American Drudge. In spite of the odds against her, she has so far held her own. That she has not degenerated is the wonder of the age. That part of the country which has produced women capable of taking their hands from the wash-board to guide their children's fingers over the piano keys or add to a finishing touch to a bit of charcoal drawing, will surely one day produce something very magnificent, or something very terrible, in the way of a woman.

A multiplicity of causes has contributed to the production of the present type, chief among which has been, during the past quarter of a century, the over education of the Western women, and the under-education of the men, which has brought about a large amount of mismatching. Praise as we may the American system of "giving the first chance to the girls" and letting the boys, if need be, saw wood, we must admit, if we are honest, that it has its disadvantages. It is no wonder, for want of a better term, we may call "two-thousand-dollar-women," who, if they marry at all, must content themselves with marrying "one-thousand-dollar-men," with the net result of household drudgery for

the women. Let the thousand-dollar-man be as "handy" as he may, and kind, as he usually is, he remains unobservant and obtuse. His obtuseness in the first place prevents his seeing the incongruity of the match he asks the woman to make; and, in the years that follow, he fails to observe the fact that she is a drudge; he fails to note that at thirty-five she looks forty-five, and at forty-five she is worn out and broken down. And there seems to be in the American woman herself a natural tendency, a willingness,—one might almost say anxiety—to be a drudge. Give her a servant, or two servants, and she remains Drudge-in-chief. There is about her a certain primitiveness, a harking back to Puritan ancestors, that makes it difficult for her to learn that even a married woman may, under certain circumstances, have some higher duties than the "seeing to" her husband's dinner and the suckling of her child. Take her out of college and put her into a home, and it is difficult to convince her that the concentration of all her energies upon the elimination of a speck of dust is a bit of foolishness.

Given the same circumstances, the same surroundings, and the same apparent necessity that had contributed to the making of the household drudge, as I have found her in the West and I believe there is but one part of the United States where the Drudge would not become the real American Type, and that is in the South.

Outside the Southern States, the typical American woman is too solicitous a housewife, too anxious a housekeeper, altogether too much of a Martha, too contented a drudge. How she shall be freed is a question. Perhaps with the solution of the Domestic Service Problem, if it ever comes, will come her deliverance from drudgery.

ELIZABETH BANKS,
(North American Review).

THE BOOK OF MEMORY.

The following extract is taken from E.G.O.'s "My Book of Memory" in the *Academy and Literature* of the 25th January, 1905:—

In another matter I take it I shall be told that I am heretical. I do not go to the theatre to listen to Shakespeare's plays as great poetry, but as masterpieces of stagecraft and wondrous expositions of human frailties, virtues and comicalities. Therefore let our players see to it that they take care first of the characters entrusted to them, acting them simply, vividly, broadly, allowing the verse to look after itself, remembering that verse upon the stage must be spoken with due emphasis, so as to bring out its meaning, for we know that with verse such as Shakespeare's if we bring out the meaning we bring out the beauty. Shakespeare was an actor, and would not have hampered his players by asking them to sacrifice character to the form of his words. His poetry satisfied Coleridge's definition, "the best words in the best order;" therefore if our actors will but study and show forth the meaning of their speeches they will find that at the same time and of necessity they are bringing forth the full beauties of the poetry. Also must our actors remember that Shakespeare, as an actor and practical play-wright, would never forget that a successful plot or a successful character must be simple and straightforward; the emotions must not be complex but simple; the audience must not be asked to consider and solve problems when their attention should be fixed firm upon the working of character upon character and upon the steady march of the dramatic story. It is because actors and critics do forget all this that there has been so much bother about poor, melancholy Hamlet. I hope I shall not be decried a villain if I boldly say that Hamlet is the complex psychological character that our critics will have him to be, then the tragedy would, for the practical purposes of the playhouse, be lost. But we know that is not bad but very good, and why is it so? Because we are all more or less ordinary human

beings and love to see a good fight between the powers of good and of evil between the hero and the villain, and Shakespeare knowing humanity, and humanity to-day being precisely the same as it was in his day, has given us in "Hamlet" just such a "set to" as we delight to see; Hamlet with his Second Horatio against Claudius and his Second Laertes. So it is with all his comedies and tragedies—the play's the thing, which is made a living thing, not by the art of poetry but by the art of a skilful plot and of skilful drawing of character. Shakespeare found in "Hamlet" an already popular piece; he re-fashioned it, he touched it up here and there, he gave life to the character; all this he did being a practical play-wright, and being a poet he expressed himself in gorgeous verse. But, as I have ever held, Shakespeare was a human being and therefore sometimes careless, and it is this carelessness of his, his being content to do just enough work to knock "Hamlet" into the shape of a more successful and more popular play than it was before—enough work and no more that has given us moderns so much trouble. Those who saw the play in his own day welcomed it as a fine stirring, melodrama—so we should call it—with plenty of good fighting and a splendid short, they overlooked the ragged ends such as the curious part played in the plot by Ophelia; we usually approaching Shakespeare in the wrong way, reading him first as a difficult 'classic' and later on, if at all, seeing him acted, have bothered our heads about points concerning which Shakespeare was careless and Elizabethan play-goers unconscious.

RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN BENGAL.

GOVERNMENT RESOLUTION.

THE following Resolution of the Bengal Government on the establishment of Rural Primary Schools in Bengal is published in the *Calcutta Gazette*—

The Lieutenant-Governor has lately had under

his consideration the suitability of the courses of instruction followed in Primary Schools in rural areas in Bengal and of the courses of training given to the teachers of such schools, with special reference to the views expressed on these objects in paragraphs 21 and 41, respectively, of the Resolution on Indian Educational Policy issued by the Governor-General in Council on the 11th March, 1904.

2. The suitability of the courses followed in Primary Schools in this Province was considered in the years 1899 to 1901, with particular regard to the needs of the agricultural population; and the courses as then existing were revised so as to make them considerably simpler than they had previously been. No attempt was made, however, at that time to differentiate the teaching in Primary Schools in purely rural areas from that given in similar schools in urban areas or in large villages where there are many educated people; nor was any special course of training for the teachers of such schools devised. The Lieutenant-Governor has had these questions investigated by a Committee consisting of the following officers; and the results of the deliberations of this committee are set forth in the following paragraphs.

Mr. A. Pedlar, F.R.S., C.I.E., Director of Public Instruction, *Chairman*.

The Hon. Mr. K. G. Gupta, Member of the Board of Revenue.

Mr. H. Lunson, Commissioner of the Chittagong Division.

Mr. S. L. Maddox, Director of Land Records and Agriculture.

The Hon. Mr. A. Earle, Secretary to the Government of Bengal, General Department, *Secretary*.

3. The Committee observe that it is desirable in the first place to take cognisance of the very great differences between the conditions, in respect of primary education, of Bengal and other provinces of India. This procedure will, they remark, make it easier to form a correct judgment as regards the question under discussion. In

Bengal there are over 44,000 Lower Primary Schools and about 5,000 Upper Primary Schools; whereas in the Central Provinces the total number of Primary Schools is only about 2,100. In Bengal 30 per cent. of boys of a school-going age are actually at Primary Schools, whereas in the Central Provinces the percentage is 15 only. In Bombay the expenditure incurred on schools of this class is three times as great as that incurred on similar schools in Bengal, although the number of schools maintained in the former Province is considerably less. In Bombay and the Central Provinces the teachers receive far higher pay than they do in Bengal. The dissimilarity of conditions in Bengal and the Central Provinces is seen in a striking light when it is stated that the total number of Primary Schools in the Central Provinces is less than half the number of such schools in the Midnapore district alone.

4. There is a marked contrast in many respects between the departmental Board Schools in Bombay, the United Provinces, the Punjab and the Central Provinces and the privately managed indigenous village *pathshalas* in Bengal. In those provinces Primary Schools have been created and developed by Government on the departmental system; whilst Bengal, Madras, and Assam have all along operated through the agency of grants-in-aid made to existing indigenous schools. The privately managed schools of Bengal represent nearly one-half of the total number of boys' Primary Schools in the whole of India (*vide* paragraph 452 of the last Quinquennial Review of Education in India). Their main feature is their extraordinary cheapness, the cost per pupil being Rs. 2-7 a year, which is the lowest figure returned by any Province; Rs. 6-4 being, for example, the cost per pupil in Bombay. There is a much greater demand for secondary education in Bengal than in the Central Provinces; and a larger proportion of boys reading in Primary Schools in this Province aim at carrying their education beyond the primary stage. The existing provision for primary education in Bengal, however, barely

touches the needs of the vast agricultural population, neither the courses nor the hours of instruction being suited to their requirements. It is hoped that, if the courses are simplified and shortened, there will be a large accession of scholars of this class.

5. The Committee quote the following passage which occurs in paragraph 21 of the Resolution on Indian Educational Policy of the 11th March, 1904:—"The aim of Rural Schools should be, not to impart definite agricultural teaching but to give to the children a preliminary training which will make them intelligent cultivators, will train them to be observers, thinkers, and experimenters in however humble a manner, and will protect them in their business transactions with the landlords to whom they pay rent and the grain-dealers to whom they dispose of their crops. The reading books prescribed should be written in simple language, not in unfamiliar literary style, and should deal with topics associated with rural life. The grammar taught should be elementary and only native systems of arithmetic should be used. The village map should be thoroughly understood; and a most useful course of instruction may be given in the accounts papers, enabling every boy before leaving school to master the intricacies of the village accounts and to understand the demands that may be made upon the cultivator. The Government of India regard it as a matter of the greatest importance to provide a simple, suitable, and useful style of school for the agriculturist, and to foster the demand for it among the population." With regard to these remarks, the Committee find that the principal points in respect of which the rural schools in Bengal are at present deficient are—(1) the courses of instruction are too long, too advanced, and too diversified; and (2) the prescribed text-books are not written in simple language commonly used by the people.

6. As regards the measures which can, in their opinion, be taken in this Province in order to simplify the courses of instruction in these

schools, the Committee observe that there would be very great difficulty in combining half-time with whole-time instruction in the same schools according to the system followed in the Central Provinces. A reference to the Appendix at page 163 of Mr. Sharp's Report on Rural Schools in the Central Provinces will show that there are in all four classes in the Primary Schools in those provinces; that the courses of instruction in those schools are the same for all boys up to the second class; and that it is only in the two highest classes that additional instruction is given to full-time scholars. Class III represents the end of the Lower Primary course, while Class IV represents the Upper Primary Standard. The arrangements in force in those provinces as regards half-time instruction, though feasible there because the number of half-time scholars is large and the number of full-time scholars inconsiderable, would be impracticable in many parts of Bengal, where a large proportion of the boys would have to be taught whole-time from the commencement of their studies. In the year 1901, the Government of India recommended the opening of separate schools for agriculturists as a comparatively cheap means of conducting a simple form of education; and in Bombay this system has been in force for some years, and now appears to be making progress (*vide* paragraph 509 of the last Quinquennial Review of Education in India). It appears from paragraph 21 of the Resolution on Indian Educational Policy of the 11th March, 1904, and paragraph 509 of the last Quinquennial Review of Education in India that the half-time "Zemindari" schools which were established in the Punjab have proved a failure. The schools were unpopular and failed to maintain a position by the side of the whole-time schools. The half-time rule was frequently infringed, native arithmetic was universally neglected, and the lessons in the agricultural readers were not practically illustrated by visits to the field. The Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab has, therefore, recently decided to establish a "uniform scheme of schools in rural tracts as distinguished

from urban schools, which will not be so ambitious as the present scheme for Primary Schools and will retain the useful features of the Zemindari scheme." A very similar system has recently been introduced in Assam by the Chief Commissioner. The Committee consider that for Bengal also this will be the only practicable arrangement.

7. It is proposed, therefore, that in purely agricultural tracts the existing Lower Primary Schools should be converted into schools primarily for the sons of agriculturists with short courses of instruction specially suited to the needs of that class. No change will be made in respect of the courses of instruction in the Lower Primary classes of Upper Primary, Middle, and other High Schools, or in Lower Primary Schools in towns or other places, where agriculturists do not predominate, or where there is a large or considerable number of educated people who are not likely to be satisfied with the proposed shorter courses for schools for the sons of agriculturists. While much will thus be done for the purely agricultural classes for whom the present courses of instruction and hours are too long and too diversified, it is proposed to provide considerable facilities for the conversion of existing Lower Primary Schools into Upper Primary Schools wherever the demand for a higher class of primary education appears to be established. It is hoped that while in this way the agricultural classes in purely rural areas will in future secure a system of education which is suited to them, and the number of scholars from such classes will be largely increased, further facilities for more advanced learning will be made available for the classes who wish that their sons should proceed beyond the Lower Primary stage. The scheme thus briefly outlined is discussed in detail in the ensuing paragraphs.

8. The fixing of the exact hours during which the classes in the proposed Rural Primary Schools should be held will be arranged according to the convenience of the villagers and the seasons of the year. The usual hours kept in Primary Schools in Bengal are from six to nine in the morning and again from two to five in the afternoon. The people are accustomed to afternoon hours, and it may still be found convenient to give part of the instruction at that time. The courses of instruction will be shortened, but the number of hours of instruction will be not less than those of instruction will be given all in the morning, partly in the morning and partly in the afternoon, according to the convenience of the villagers and the seasons of the year. Accord-

ing to present practice, schools will be closed at seasons when the children are required to assist their parents in cultivating or harvesting, or when the monsoon rains make attendance difficult or impossible, holidays being given whenever an important festival occurs.

9. The Committee are of opinion that there should be only one Infant Class in the proposed Rural Primary Schools. No minimum age should be prescribed; but a child who is over seven years of age, coming to school for the first time, should be placed in Class I, instead of in the Infant Class. Above the Infant Class there should be only three classes, through each of which it should ordinarily take a pupil one year to pass. [The proposed curricula for the Infant Class and the three classes above the Infant Class are then laid down.]

10. In paragraph 5 above it has been stated that the prescribed text-books at present in use in Lower Primary Schools in this Province are not written in simple language commonly used by the people. They are, for the most part, written in more or less Sanskritised language, with not a few scientific terms which are not understood by the villagers. The Committee recommend that a Special Committee of expert officers should be formed to prepare model text-books for the proposed schools for the sons of agriculturists; and that in preparing these text-books the Committee in question should examine carefully the primers used in Bombay, the Central Provinces, the Punjab, Assam, and elsewhere. The text-books will, in the first place, be prepared in English. When they have been approved by Government, suitable persons will be selected by the Director of Public Instruction, in consultation with Commissioners of Divisions and Inspectors of Schools, for the purpose of translating them into the local vernaculars. The translations made by them will be approved by the Director after reference to such experts as he may deem it necessary to consult.

11. The Committee consider it to be a matter of great importance that the translations from the model English text-books should be prepared in a sufficient number of local vernaculars. For instance, in Behar the translations should, they consider, be made in at least three dialects, viz., Tirhutiya, Bhojpuri, and Magadhi or Maithali; while in Bengal they should be translated into Northern, Eastern, and Central and Western Bengali at least.

12. In paragraph 7 above it has been stated that considerable facilities will be provided for the conversion of existing Lower Primary Schools

into Upper Primary Schools wherever the demand for a higher class of education appears to be established. When a Lower Primary School is converted into an Upper Primary one, an additional teacher has to be appointed; and this strengthening of the staff necessarily involves additional expense. The Committee propose that the option of converting a Lower Primary School into an Upper Primary one should be allowed whenever the local residents are willing to incur their share of the necessary additional expense. When a Lower Primary School is thus converted into an Upper Primary one, the newly formed Upper Primary School will be allowed an increased grant from public funds according to the existing rules for grants-in-aid. The cost of a Lower Primary teacher is about Rs. 6, whereas the cost of an Upper Primary teacher is about Rs. 15 a month. Of the Rs. 6 paid to a Lower Primary teacher, Government pays Rs. 2 and the residents Rs. 4; while of the Rs. 15 paid to an Upper Primary teacher, the residents pay Rs. 9 and the Government pays Rs. 6. The increased cost to Government will, therefore, be Rs. 4 a month, or Rs. 50 a year, roughly, for each school so converted. It is hoped that within five years the existing number of Upper Primary Schools (5,000) will be at least doubled. The additional expenditure which will, therefore, devolve upon Government at the end of that period will be Rs. 2,50,000 a year.

13. The next matter discussed by the Committee was whether the courses prescribed for Guru Training Schools require modification in view of the proposals which they have made in regard to Rural Primary Schools. On this subject they refer to the following passage which occurs in paragraph 41 of the Resolution on Indian Educational Policy of the 11th March, 1905:—"Steps are also being taken to supply courses of training specially suited for teachers of rural schools. These do not attempt the impossible task of reforming the agricultural practice of the peasantry by the agency of village school-masters imbued with a smattering of scientific theory. They serve the more limited and practical purpose of supplying the village schools with teachers whose stock-in-trade is not mere book learning, and whose interests have been aroused in the study of rural things, so that they may be able to connect their teaching with the objects which are familiar to the children in the country schools." Just as it is proposed to distinguish between the courses for Primary Schools for agriculturists and those required for urban areas and places in which agriculturists do not predominate or in which there are a large number

of educated people, so it is necessary, in the opinion of the Committee, to make a corresponding distinction in respect of the training of the persons destined to teach those who will adopt agriculture as their means of subsistence.

14. In the first place the Committee consider that the training of teachers for these elementary schools should not, for the present at any rate, occupy more than one year. The scheme of studies in Guru Training Schools as now sanctioned contemplates a training for a period of two years. The Committee consider that if the curricula set forth in paragraph 9 are adopted in respect of rural schools, a course of training for one year will, for some time to come, suffice for the teachers of these schools, provided that a thoroughly efficient teaching staff is appointed, as recommended in paragraph 17. A great advantage to be gained by this modification of existing orders will be that double the number of trained teachers will be secured within any given period. Hitherto, partly owing to want of funds, and partly to lack of head pundits trained in first-grade training schools to take charge of the Guru Training Schools, the number of teachers turned out for Lower Primary Schools has been a mere fraction of the number that is actually required. Hereafter, if the number of trained teachers is largely increased, it may, perhaps, be possible to revert to the present system of giving a course of studies for two years.

15. The scheme of studies which the Committee recommend for the training of teachers in rural schools is as follows:—

General Knowledge.

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|--|--|
| As in Standard III of a Vernacular school, or as much as possible of the Upper Primary course. | 1. Elementary Bengali, Hindi, Urdu or Uriya Literature. |
| | 2. Elementary Bengali, Hindi, Urdu, or Uriya Grammar and Composition. |
| | 3. Elementary Bengali, Hindi, Urdu or Uriya Historical and Geographical Readers. |
| As in Standard III of a Vernacular school, or as much as possible of the Upper Primary course. | 4. Arithmetic. |
| | 5. Writing. |
| | 6. Practical Object-lessons for Infant Classes. |
| | 7. Agricultural Reader. |
| | 8. Drawing (Free-hand and Geometrical). |
| | 9. Practical Geometry and Mensuration. |
| | 10. Manual Training. |
| | 11. School Drill. |
| | (12) District maps, and, where there has been a cadastral survey, village maps. |

(13) Where there has been a cadastral survey, khattas and khattas and the village note.

(14) Samples of Zemindari accounts, Zemindari receipts, and *pattahs* and *kabuliyats*.

(15) Letter-writing and Deeds

(16) School Gardening.

Art of Teaching.

(17) Junior Teachers' Manual (practical portion).

(18) Practical teaching of infant stages, with special reference to practical object-lessons.

16. This above scheme of studies generally follows that in force at the present time for the training of teachers in Lower Primary Schools; but certain modifications have been made with the object of simplifying the course. Only one new subject has been added, viz., the "Agricultural Reader." The preparation of this text-book will be entrusted to the Director of Public Instruction and the Director of Land Records and Agriculture. It will be in three parts, the first part being adapted for teachers in Rural Primary Schools, the second for the teachers in ordinary Lower Primary, Upper Primary and Middle Schools, and the third for first-grade Training Schools. This book will be translated into the principal vernaculars in their literary form.

17. The Committee consider it imperative that additional Training Schools for teachers in Rural Primary Schools should be established without delay, and that the teaching staff to be employed in the Training Schools should be thoroughly efficient. How great are the needs of Bengal in respect of trained teachers is clearly seen when it is stated that the percentage of such teachers in Primary Schools in this Province is 4.1 only, as against 23.4 in Madras, 34.1 in Bombay, 39.2 in the United Provinces, and 48.3 in the Punjab. It is proposed, therefore, to open Special Training Schools for the teachers of Rural Primary Schools; and it is considered necessary to open as soon as practicable 70 such schools, each capable for turning out 40 teachers a year. The headmaster in charge of each such school will be a person who has undergone a three years' course at an Agricultural college, and his salary will be Rs. 40 rising to Rs. 50. The second master will be a person who has been trained in a First-grade Training School, and his salary will be Rs. 20 rising to Rs. 25. The cost of each such school will be approximately Rs. 8,960 a year in respect of recurring expenditure and Rs. 1,450 in respect of initial expenditure. The total recurring expenditure will, therefore, be Rs. 2,77,200, and the total initial expenditure will be Rs. 1,01,600. Even at this rate it will take about sixteen years to provide

Bengal with trained teachers for all the Rural Primary Schools.

18. The Committee consider that the only change required in respect of the prescribed course of studies for First-grade Training Schools, as given at pages 203 to 206 of Rules and Orders of the Education Department, Bengal, is that the third part of the proposed Agricultural Reader (*vide* paragraph 16) should be prescribed in addition to the existing course. These schools will, as indicated in the last paragraph, supply junior masters for the Training Schools for teachers in Rural Primary Schools; and it is desirable, therefore, that a certain amount of agricultural knowledge should be imparted at them.

19. At the same time action indicated in the last six paragraphs is taken in respect of training schools for teachers in Rural Primary Schools, the existing Guru Training School which will continue to supply teachers for Primary Schools, in non-rural areas, will be reorganised. At present there are about 135 such schools, viz., one for each subdivision. It is proposed to reduce the number of these schools so as to secure greater efficiency as regards the staff and the teaching, but at the same time to arrange so that the same number of the teachers are trained as at present. Under the present system 135 schools turn out 675 teachers a year. In future the same number of teachers will be trained; but the schools will be fewer, each having more pupils; and the training given will be of a much higher character, the salary of the teaching staff being raised to the same scale as that suggested for Training Schools for teachers in Rural Primary Schools.

20. The Committee consider that gardens should be attached to all First-grade Training Schools, and, wherever practicable, to Guru Training Schools. They observe that the Director of Public Instruction and the Director of Land Records and Agriculture have already been addressed by Government as regards the question of attaching gardens to the first-named class of Training Schools.

21. The total cost of the scheme recommended by the Committee is approximately as follows:—

	Rs.
(1) For the conversion of Lower Primary into Upper Primary Schools (paragraph 12 of this Resolution)—Rs. 60,000 a year rising to Rs. 2,50,000, or say	2,50,000
(2) For the establishment of Guru Training Schools (paragraph 17 of the Resolution) Rs. 2,77,200 with an initial expenditure of	2,77,200 1,01,600
(3) For the preparation of text-books (paragraphs 10, 11 and 16) say	10,000

The recurring expenditure will, therefore be Rs. 3,27,200, rising in five years to Rs. 5,27,200, while the non-recurring charges will amount to Rs. 1,11,600.

22. The Lieutenant-Governor wishes to consult the public before taking action on the proposals of the Committee. He requests, therefore, that any person who may desire to do so will submit to Government on or before the 15th March, 1905, any criticisms which he may have to make in regard to the scheme. It is proposed that the scheme should be introduced with effect from the 1st January, 1906.

THE CALCUTTA CONVOCATION.

THE CHANCELLOR'S ADDRESS.

His Excellency the CHANCELLOR, who on rising was received with applause, then spoke as follows:—

I do not propose to address you to-day upon purely educational topics. I have often inflicted them upon previous Convocations. I would like to turn aside for half an hour from those dusty fields and to talk to you about something which is even more personal to the undergraduate body, namely, yourselves and the work that lies before you. The majority of you are about to do what I remember so well doing myself, though it is now rather a long time ago, namely, to gather up the advantages of such education as you have received and with this bundle on your back to start forth on the big road which we call life. What will it mean to you, and what are its lessons?

I do not pretend to know what lies in the mind of young India, or even of that small section of it which I am now addressing. Difference of race carries with it difference of ideas. The currents of the East and West may flow between the same banks, as I believe it is their destiny to do for long generations to come. But they never absolutely commingle; and I dare say when I try to put myself in your place and to see what is in your minds I altogether fail to succeed. I am confident sometimes that it is so when I have observed the obscure meanings attached by Indian commentators to what has seemed to me to be simple and true. Conversely I am quite sure that the Englishman often fails to understand what the Asiatic mind has been pondering over and is led perhaps by exaggeration of language into thinking that there was corresponding extravagance of thought, whereas there may have been none at all. These are the dangers common

to all of us who walk to and fro on the misty arch that spans the gulf between East and West. But there are certain ideals which are the common property of all humanity, irrespective of country or race. These are of universal application, and among this class there are some that are peculiarly applicable to the Indian situation and the Indian character. In the contemplation of these we are on common ground, and it is to them that wish to call your attention this afternoon.

THE IDEAL OF TRUTH.

I place in the front rank of these principles, truthfulness. The truth is not merely the opposite of a lie. A dumb man would find it difficult to tell a lie, but he might be guilty of untruth every day of his life. There are scores of people who pride themselves on never telling a falsehood, but who are yet habitually false—false to others, and, what is worse, false to themselves. Untruthfulness consists in saying or doing anything that gives an erroneous impression either of one's own character or of other people's conduct or of the facts and incidents of life. We all succumb to this. It is the most subtle of temptations. Men who make speeches, men who plead cases, men who write articles in the newspapers, men who are engaged in business, even the ordinary talker at a dinner table—each of us for the sake of some petty advantage or momentary triumph is tempted to transgress. The degree of non-truth is so slight that it does not seem to amount to untruth. We save our conscience by thinking that it was a pardonable exaggeration. But the habit grows. Deviation from truth slides by imperceptible degrees into falsehood; and the man who begins by crediting himself with a fertile imagination merges by imperceptible degrees into a finished liar. But an even commoner form of untruth is the unspoken untruth—the doing something which conscience condemns as not quite straight, but for which that reason is always finding something as an excuse. Those who encourage this tendency end by becoming two human beings in the same form, like the Doctor Jekyll and Mr. Hyde of Stevenson's story. Perhaps the guilty man prides himself on being complex. He is really corrupt; and one day he wakes up to find that he can no longer resume the good habit, but must remain the base or distorted deformity for ever.

I hope I am making no false or arrogant claim when I say that the highest ideal of truth is to a large extent a Western conception. I do not thereby mean to claim that Europeans are universally or even generally truthful, still less do

I mean that Asiatics deliberately or habitually deviate from the truth. The one proposition would be absurd, and the other insulting. But undoubtedly truth took a high place in the moral codes of the West before it had been similarly honoured in the East, where craftiness and diplomatic skill have always been held in much repute. We may prove it by the common innuendo that lurks in the words 'Oriental diplomacy,' by which is meant something rather tortuous and hyper-subtle. The same may be seen in Oriental literature. In your epics truth will often be extolled as a virtue; but quite as often it is attended with some qualification, and very often praise is given to successful deception practised with honest aim. I remember reading in an Indian newspaper the following paragraph:—"There is not a question but that lying is looked upon with much more disfavour by European than by Native society. The English opinions on this subject are strong, distinct, and uncompromising in the abstract. Hindu and Mahomedan opinions are fluctuating, vague, and to a great extent dependent upon times, places, and persons."

FORMS OF UNTRUTH.

Now the commonest forms which are taken by untruth in this country seem to me to be the following. The first is exaggeration, particularly in language, the tendency to speak or write things which the speaker or writer does not believe, or which are more than he believes, for the sake of colouring the picture or producing an effect. It is quite a common thing to see the most extravagant account of ordinary occurrences, or the most fanciful motives attributed to persons. Invention and imputation flourish in an unusual degree. There is a thing which we call in English a mare's-nest, by which we mean a pure figment of the imagination, something so preposterous as to be unthinkable. Yet I know no country where mare's-nests are more prolific than here. Some ridiculous concoction is publicly believed until it is officially denied. Very often a whole fabric of hypothesis is built out of nothing at all. Worthy people are extolled as heroes. Political opponents are branded as male factors. Immoderate adjectives are flung about as though they had no significance. The writer, no doubt, did not mean to lie. But the habit of exaggeration has laid such firm hold of him that he is like a man who has taken too much drink, and who sees two things where there is only one or something where there is nothing. As he writes in hyperbole, so he tends to think in hyperbole, and he ends by becoming blind to the truth.

There are two particularly insidious manifestations of this tendency against which you ought to be on your guard. The first is flattery, and the second is vituperation. Flattery is much more than compliment in an extravagant form. It is often a deliberate attempt to deceive, to get something out of some one else by playing upon the commonest foible of human nature. We all like to be praised and the majority like to be flattered. A common-place man enjoys being told that he is a great man, a fluent speaker that he is an orator, a petty agitator that he is a leader of men. The vice is actually encouraged by that which is one of the most attractive traits of Indian character, namely, its warmth of heart. A man has a natural inclination to please, and so he glides into flattery; and flattery is only a few steps removed from sycophancy, which is a dangerous form of untruth. Flattery may be either honest or dishonest. Whichever it be, you should avoid it. If it is the former, it is nevertheless false; if it is the latter, it is vile.

But I think that in India the danger of the opposite extreme is greater still. I speak of slander and vilification of those with whom you do not happen to agree. I do not wish to be tempted this afternoon into anything that might be thought to have a political bearing: for it would not be proper to this Convocation. I will only say, therefore, that to many true friends of India, among whom I count myself, the most distressing symptom of the day is the degree to which abuse is entering into public controversy in this country. It is a bad thing for any State if difference of opinion cannot exist without innuendo and persecution, and if the vocabulary of the nation is trained to invective. Authority will never be won by those who daily preach that authority exists only to be reviled. National happiness cannot spring from a root of bitterness, and national existence cannot grow in an atmosphere of strife. I would like to urge all you young men, when you go forth into the world, to avoid this most dangerous of all temptations. Respect your opponents and do not calumniate them. Believe in the good intentions of others rather than the bad, and remember that self-government, to which you aspire, means not only the privilege of assisting to govern the community to which you belong, but the preliminary capacity of governing yourselves. Therefore I come back to my original point. Do not exaggerate; do not flatter; do not slander; do not impute; but turn naturally to truth as the magnet flies to the pole. It is better to be believed by one human being for respect of the truth than to be applauded for successful false-

hood by a thousand. By truth you will mount upwards as individuals and as a nation. In proportion as you depart from it you will stagnate or recede.

INDEPENDENCE OF JUDGMENT.

Then my second word of advice is this: Try to form an independent judgment. The curse of our day is the dependence on others for thought and decision of every description and the multiplication of machines for relieving a man of the necessity of independent opinion. The lowest and commonest of these machines is what school-boys call a key; that is, a book in which they are saved the trouble of thinking for themselves by finding the work done for them by somebody else. The highest form is the article in the daily newspaper or the magazine which relieves you from thinking about the politics or events of the day by supplying you with the thoughts of another. Advance in civilisation multiplies these instruments of selfish convenience. For an anna or less a man can purchase his opinions just as he purchases his food or his clothing. Of course books and the Press do much more. They spread knowledge and stimulate intelligence, and without them we should sink back into brute beasts. I am only speaking of their questionable side. For the paradox is also a truth, that while they encourage intellectual activity they are also sometimes an indirect incentive to intellectual temper. Of course this is truer of newspapers, which represent an ephemeral form of literature, than it is of books, which are often immortal. We all of us get into the habit of reading our favourite journal, and cherish the belief that we are thinking while we are really only browsing on the thoughts of others. Sometimes our anonymous mentor is a very wise man and we do not go far astray; sometimes he is the reverse and we err in his company.

But the great danger of second-hand thought is not merely that it is not original, but that its tendency is to be one-sided and therefore unfair. The common instinct of mankind is to take a side. It is the survival of the old era of combat, when each man had to fight for himself and his family or clan. From youth upwards we find ourselves taking a side in the rivalries of school and college life, and in many ways these rivalries develop the keener instincts and the finer side of human nature. But the mind ought only to take a side as the result of a mental process. If you have examined the two sides of a case and are convinced that the one is right and the other wrong, or that one is more right than the other, by all means adopt and adhere to it; but to make

your decision and to shape your conduct simply because a writer in a book or a newspaper has said it, whether it be right or wrong, is not thought but very often an abnegation of thought. It is putting the authority of the mind in commission and setting up some other authority, of which you perhaps know nothing in the judgment seat. So I say to you young men that the first duty of a student, that is of a man who has studied, is mental independence. Strike out a line of thought for yourselves. Form your own judgment. Do not merely listen to the tinkling of the old bell-wether who leads the flock, but stand on your own feet, walk on your own legs, look with your own eyes.

This does not mean, of course, that you can afford to be self-opinionated, or conceited, or obstinate. Nothing is more offensive than arrogance or licence in youth. You remember the famous sarcasm of the Cambridge tutor at the expense of a youthful colleague, "we are none of us infallible, not even the youngest." But the excess of a virtue merges easily into a vice and nowhere more easily than in the case of freedom. Freedom involves not the absence of all restraint but liberty within the limits of a reasonable self-restraint. Otherwise, as history teaches us, freedom usually degenerates into licence, licence into disorder, and disorder into chaos. Goethe, the German post-philosopher, used to say that only in law can the spirit of man be free. So it is, and just as law is the condition of independence of spirit, so are moderation and respect for others the condition of independence of judgment. This combination of qualities should come naturally to the philosophic Hindu. He should cultivate independence of mind and thought and action. But his great introspective power should save him from degenerating into intellectual self-sufficiency or insolence.

THE TYRANNY OF WORDS.

There is another tyranny which I think that you ought to avoid, and that is the absurd and puerile tyranny of words. It is not the most fluent nations in the world who have done the most in history. Every nation and every time have their orators, and they are the secular teachers and apostles of their day. But when everybody talks, then as a rule few act, and when the talkers talk too much and too often then finally nobody pays any heed and the impression gets abroad that they are incapable of action. When I read the proceedings of the conferences and meetings that are always going on in all parts of India, I am far from deprecating the intellectual ferment to which this bears wit-

ness, and I am not sure that it is not a direct imitation of English practice. But I sometimes think that if fewer resolutions were passed and a little more resolution was shown—resolution to grapple with the facts of life, to toil and labour for your country instead of merely shouting for it—the progress of India would be more rapid. Eloquence on the platform is very like soda-water in a bottle. After the cork has been removed for a little time all the sparkle has gone. Moreover eloquence no more regenerates nations than soda-water gives fibre and strength to the constitution.

Now in India there are two sets of people, the reticent and the eloquent. I daresay you know to which class the people in this part of the country belong. I am sometimes lost in admiration at the facility with which they speak in a foreign language, and I envy the accomplishment. All I say to you is: Do not presume upon this talent. Do not believe that the man who can make a speech is necessarily a Statesman; do not let your fluency run away with your powers of thought. Above all, do not think that speech is ever a substitute for action. The man who in his village or his town devotes himself to the interest of his fellow countrymen, and by example and by effort improves their lot, is a greater benefactor than the hero of a hundred platforms.

There is a further piece of advice that I should like to give you. Strive to the best of your ability to create a healthy public opinion in your surroundings. Public opinion in India cannot for a long time be the opinion of the public, that is of the masses, because they are uneducated and have no opinion in political matters at all. In these circumstances public opinion tends to be the opinion of the educated minority. But if it is to have weight it must be co-ordinated with the necessities and interests and desires of the community, who are perhaps hardly capable of formulating an opinion of their own. Nothing can be more unfortunate than a divorce or gulf between the two. If what is called public opinion is merely the opinion of a class, however genuine, it can never have the weight of the opinion of the masses, because, like all class feelings, it is necessarily interested. Of course, in India it is very difficult to create or to give utterance to a public opinion that is really representative, because there are so many different classes whose interests do not always coincide; for instance, the English and the Indians, the Hindus and the Mahomedans, the officials and the non-officials, the agriculturalists and the industrialists. But I think that the great

work that lies before educated India in the near future is the creation of a public opinion that shall be as far as possible representative of all the interests that lie outside of Government. If we take the native element alone, it would be an immense advantage to Government to have a public opinion that was representative of native sentiment generally, not of one section or fraction of it. For public opinion is both a stimulus to Government and a check. It encourages energy and it prevents mistakes. But if it is to have this vivifying and steadying influence, then it must be public and not sectional, temperate and not violent, suggestive and not merely hostile. Surely this must be patent to all. We have all of us frequently seen a manufactured public opinion in India which was barren and ineffective because it merely represented the partisan views of a clique and was little more than noise and foam. In my view the real work that lies before Indian patriots is the suppression of the sectional and the elevation of the national in the life of the people. And I think that any educated young man can contribute to that end by the exercise of personal influence and balance of judgment. It is always a bad symptom when there is one public opinion that is vocal and noisy and another that is subdued and silent. For the former assumes a prerogative that it does not deserve, while the latter does not exert the influence to which it is entitled. The true criteria of a public opinion that is to have weight are that it should be representative of many interests, that it should see two or more sides instead of only one, and that it should treat Government as a power to be influenced, not as an enemy to be abused. Some day I hope that this will come; and there is not one amongst you who cannot contribute to that consummation.

THE DUTY OF YOUNG INDIA.

The last question that I put to myself and to you is this: What scope is there for you in the life of your country? In my opinion there is much. When I hear it said that India is a conquered nation and that Indians are condemned to be hewers of wood and drawers of water, I smile at the extravagance, but I am also pained at the imputation. When I see High Court Judges—some of them in this hall—Ministers of Native States wielding immense powers, high executive and judicial officers in our own service, leaders of thought and ornaments of the Bar, professors and men of science, poets and novelists, the nobility of birth and the nobility of learning, I do not say that every Indian corporal carries a

Field Marshal's baton in his knapsack, for the prizes come to few, but I say that none need complain that the doors are shut. To all of you who have the ambition to rise I would say: Use your student days to study the history and circumstances of your race. Study its literature and the literature of Europe, and particularly of the country whose fate is bound up with your own. Compare the two; see what are their lessons or their warnings. Then equip yourselves with a genuine and manly love for your own people. I do not mean the perfervid nationalism of the platform, but the self-sacrificing ardour of the true patriot. Make a careful diagnosis, not only of how you can get on yourselves, but how you can help your countrymen to prosper. Avoid the tyranny of faction and the poison of racial bitterness. Do not arm yourselves against phantasms, but fight against the real enemies to the welfare of your people, which are backwardness, and ignorance, and antiquated social prescriptions. Look for your ideal not in the air of heaven, but in the lives and duties of men. Learn that the true salvation of India will not come from without but must be created within. It will not be given you by enactments of the British Parliament or of any Parliament at all. It will not be won by political controversy, and most certainly it will not be won by rhetoric. It will be achieved by the increase of the moral and social advance of your people themselves, deserving that which they claim, and by their deserts making stronger the case for more. To you all therefore I say: Look up, not down; look forward, not backward, look to your own country first and foremost, and do not waste time in whistling for the moon. Be true Indians—that is the prompting of nationality. But while doing so strive also to be true citizens of the Empire; for circumstances have thrown you into a larger mould than that of race and have swept you into the tides that direct the world. As nationality is larger than race, so is Empire larger than nationality. Race weakens and gets overlaid in the passage of time and gives place to broader conceptions. For instance, in India I see the claim constantly made that a man is not merely a Bengali or an Uriya, or a Maratha, or a Sikh, but a member of the Indian Nation. I do not think it can yet be said that there is any Indian Nation, though in the distant future some approach to it may be evolved. However that may be, the Indian is most certainly a citizen of the British Empire. To that larger unit he already belongs. How to adjust race to nationality, and how to reconcile nationality with empire,—that is the work which will occupy the

British rulers of this country for many a long year to come. I am one of those who believe that it can be accomplished without detriment to race or nationality, and with safety to the Empire. I want the Indian people to play their part in this great achievement and to share the results. (Applause.)

MR. PEDLER'S CONVOCATION ADDRESS.

The following are extracts from the interesting address given by the Hon'ble Mr. Pedler, Director of Public Instruction in Bengal, at the recent Convocation of the Calcutta University:—

In our University at the present time we stand at the parting of the ways. One chapter of its history has recently closed, and a fresh age has been opened, and the future prosperity and advancement of the people of Bengal will depend in a large measure on the nature of the action which we now take. Before the Senate meets again in Convocation a year hence, the future policy of the University will have been defined by the Regulations, Bye-Laws and Rules which will have been framed. The future of Bengal in all matters of High Education is thus to be determined, and the responsibility which rests upon the Senate is one of the heaviest which it is possible to conceive.

It behoves us to enquire at the present juncture whether the form of education given is affecting the people in the most satisfactory way? Have we diffused the best thing? Has the form of higher education given been that which it is in the truest interests of these persons to receive? Has the education given raised the individuals receiving it to sufficiently high intellectual level, and has it made them better citizens, better men, more self-reliant, and men capable of advancing the interests of the Empire? The answer to this is, I am afraid, in the negative. It must not be thought that I say this in any way as a reproach either to those who are giving this education or to those who are receiving it. Both classes show the utmost zeal in their work. Also, it is impossible in this connection to forget the self-sacrificing zeal of the various missionary bodies, many of whom have been pioneers in this work. Indeed, if it had not been for the work of many of the earlier missionaries, education would not be as far advanced in Bengal as it now is. Another most important section of this educational work is also being carried on by various Indian gentlemen and by Indian agencies, and too much praise cannot be given on this account. In addition to the many Government colleges and schools many excellent educational institu-

tions exist belonging to these classes. Notwithstanding this, I repeat that our present arrangements do not give us all or anything like all that we require in the matter of High or University Education.

Our arrangements are wanting in concentration of effort, in thoroughness of method, and in the intelligent appreciation of means to ends. In the matter of concentration of effort it is equally true whether we look at the question from the point of view of the colleges themselves or if we look at the variety of subjects which are taught in these colleges, and also at the manner in which the subjects themselves are taught. In the case of thoroughness of method our University arrangements in some cases, have certainly not encouraged anything more than book-knowledge, and have sometimes made it possible for memory to be substituted for understanding. Again in the adoption of means to ends it seems to have been considered sufficient in certain cases to stereotype courses of study which have been handed down to us from long ago. Our students have preferred Literature and Philosophy to Science and Mathematics and book-knowledge to practical work. Our system of education has not been framed in any way with the view to turn out men who would be able to add to the material prosperity of India by the introduction of new industries, and the fostering of trade and commerce. What in the future is urgently wanted is that we shall educate Indian students of various grades, including our very highest graduates, in such a way that they will be capable of advancing knowledge by original research and by the discovery of new, luminous and fruitful facts. In this way they will help to develop the resources of their country.

After contrasting the systems of education in Japan and Bengal, Mr. Pedler proceeded:—

It is sufficiently plain from the facts I have given that there are great contrasts in the system of University Education as obtaining in Bengal and in Japan. It is also plain, I think, and this is a point which it is practically important for us to lay to heart, that behind these facts there lie certain great principles of work which Japan has studiously observed, and which, I fear, it must be confessed that we in Bengal have to some extent neglected. So far as a careful study of the subject has enabled me to judge, the secret of the brilliant success of University Education in Japan is to be found in the observance of the following cardinal principles:—

(1) Efficiency in obtaining results as exemplified in the length of the course of study which are

required of students before allowing them to take up University work.

(2) Thoroughness in work which is also involved in the long course of specialised study required before a student can enter University life, after completing his secondary education, and further shown by the large number of Professors in each college.

(3) Concentration of University work in a few really well-equipped and strongly staffed colleges, each institution being devoted to one special section of learning, which is taught thoroughly.

(4) Adaptation of the courses to the practical wants of life and of modern civilisation, as exemplified by the large proportion of graduates who elect the practical rather than what may be called theoretical and literary courses of study.

(5) Originality as shown by the large number of young men who continue in research work or in post-graduate study, and also shown by the large number of original contributions in Science and other subjects which have been made by the Japanese in recent years.

These cardinal principles of work ought, I think, to be clearly borne in mind, and in fact govern requirements in University education in India and in Bengal. The two, I allude to, are thoroughness and concentration. As a matter of fact, these two are more or less bound up with each other. It is only with more concentration of effort that greater thoroughness of work can be attained. With our numerous colleges in Bengal and their army of lecturers, there is ample scope for both concentration and thoroughness. Many, or I might almost say, most of our colleges attempt to do more than can be efficiently done with the means at their command and the staff they are able to employ. Is it possible that the considerable variety of subjects our whole aim and procedure in the arrangements which have to be made in connection with the new regulations of the University. All of them are most important, and it may even be said that they are indispensable, if any thing like successful work is to be turned out. In the future it will be necessary to adopt them all in Bengal and to adhere to them with more uncompromising tenacity, if University work is to be placed on a really satisfactory footing.

As a beginning I should like to plead at the present time most strongly in favour of two of these laid down in even in the simplest of our University courses can be efficiently taught in a college by seven or eight Professors. On

the other hand, if two or more colleges situated within a moderate distance of each other, were to join hands and unite in forming one substantial and well-equipped college or to arrange to concentrate certain parts of their joint work in each building, so that specialisation of work is possible, the principle of concentration would be fulfilled, and I am sure, thoroughness would follow as a necessary consequence. With a strong staff each professor could take a single subject or it might be only a part of a subject. Lectures given in this way by specialists on their own subjects would raise and elevate the standard of teaching and also of the knowledge so obtained by our students. Concentration of effort leading to a large numerical increase in the staff of individual colleges might also conduce to an extension of tutorial work which is now badly needed.

We have our students, and we know they are willing to work to their utmost, and that they are also sufficiently numerous, and of good and even high intellectual capacity. We have our organisation of colleges, some large and striving to be efficient, and some smaller and it is to be feared distinctly less efficient. We have our small army of professors and lecturers, most of whom are highly qualified, and capable of very superior work, and all of whom are, I am sure, willing to devote themselves and their lives to the furtherance of Indian University education and to the task of raising it to the highest attainable level. All that is wanted is that this vast amount of intellectual effort and this huge machinery of University Education shall be guided along right paths, and organised in such a way as to produce results commensurate with the endeavours which are being put forth. It can be done, but it will require united and patient effort, not only by all working at the subject but by all friends of education in Bengal. It will require all to sink personal considerations for the common good. It will require years of patient work and slowly perfected arrangements, which at first may not seem to bear any fruit. It will require the best intellects of the Indians in Bengal to come forward, and having first become experts in certain branches of learning, to render further help by themselves becoming professors in their subjects. It will require such men to devote their whole life and their utmost labour to the general uplifting and advancement of Indian University Education.

Is it too much to hope that the gentlemen interested in the management of the numerous Bengal colleges will come forward in a patriotic spirit to give the help and service that are required? I can think of no more inspiring cause

or higher field for Indian patriotism than the improvement and elevation of educational ideals. The sacrifice of life's intellectual labour and even of the wealth of which individuals may be possessed, would be a contribution worthily bestowed in raising the actual standard of higher education in India. Will not those who have the true interest of India at heart take this as the foremost object of their lives?

IMPERIAL LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

A meeting of the Council was held at the Council Chamber, Government House, on the 3rd February. Lord Curzon, Viceroy and Governor-General of India, presided.

INDIAN UNIVERSITIES ACT.

The Hon. Mr. Richards moved for leave to introduce a Bill to validate action taken under the Indian Universities Act, 1904. He said:—"The object of the Bill is to set at rest doubts which have been raised as to the validity of the constitution of the Bodies Corporate and Provisional Syndicate of the Universities of India, and the matter is one of urgency, for the reason that the work of the Universities is at the present moment at a standstill owing to the uncertainty as to the legal position of the bodies, and no progress can be made until the legal questions are determined. The purpose and scheme of the Universities Act will be within the recollection of this Council, and in order to explain the difficulties which make it necessary to resort to legislation, I need only call your attention to that part of the Universities Act which contains what are called the "transitory provisions," that is the provisions which set up the machinery for establishing the Universities in their permanent form. These provisions will be found in the numerous clauses of Section 12 of the Act. It will be seen that these clauses regulate the first elections of Fellows and the constitution of the first Bodies Corporate of the Universities, and that in clause (p) there is provision made for the appointment of a Provisional Syndicate to conduct the business of the University until permanent Syndicates have been constituted. It is in regard to the last clause and to the manner in which the Provisional Syndicates have been appointed that the present difficulties have mainly arisen, and with the permission of the Council I will state shortly what these difficulties are. Clause (p) enacts that each Provisional Syndicate is to be appointed by the Senate "in such manner as the Chancellor directs." It makes no other provision as to the election.

[FEB. 1905.]

It does not specify the number of members of the Syndicate: it does not say whether they are to be, as they have been in the past, representatives of the Faculties or not: it leaves everything at large, subject to the power of the Chancellors to give directions. The Chancellors have taken the view that the power given to them is sufficient to enable them to deal with these matters which are, indeed, in any other construction, left unprovided for, and they have issued directions as to the appointment of the Provisional Syndicates, including directions to cause the due representation of the Faculties. It does not seem possible that any objection can be taken to the substance of these directions, for they follow with some exactness the procedure in force at the time of the passing of the Act, and the procedure which appears to be contemplated in regard to the permanent Syndicate when that is set up; but the question is whether they are technically *ultra vires*. The directions given have varied in form. In some cases the Syndicate was to be elected by the Senate sitting together but voting by Faculties; in others by the members of the Senate divided into groups according to their qualifications for the purpose of ensuring the proportional representation of the various schools and acting separately. But whatever the difference of form, the effect has been the same, namely, to continue the former practice of election by Faculties. In accordance with these directions elections were held at all the Universities, and except in the case of Bombay, were held without protest or complaint. Provincial Syndicates were constituted and have been some time at work preparing the ground for the permanent Syndicates. But this has now unfortunately been stopped. General objection is now taken to the constitution of the Syndicates on the ground that the action of the Chancellors was *ultra vires* and that they had no powers to give the directions to which I have referred. In Bombay application has been made to the High Court for an injunction to restrain the Provisional Syndicate from acting in the affairs of the University. In Calcutta a distinguished ex-Judge has lent the weight of his name and authority to a formal protest before the Senate of the University, and there are signs that the controversy will soon extend to Madras, Allahabad, and Lahore, and that litigation may become general. In the meantime the work of all the Universities is at a standstill: valuable time is being lost, and unless something be done and done promptly the progress of the Universities seems likely to be definitely arrested. It is not for this Council to decide on the legality or il-

legality of the action of the Chancellors. That depends on technical points of construction, and must be determined, if it be necessary to determine them, in courts of law. But it is the concern of the Legislature to ensure that the work of education be not indefinitely arrested, and that it be not suffered to remain in a state of paralysis until such time as the resources of litigation are exhausted. It may be said that the decision of the Bombay Court would settle the whole question so that proposals for legislation are premature until that decision is known. But I submit, my Lord, that that is not so. If the question affected Bombay only, the decision of the Bombay Court would determine the matter, that is, if no appeal were lodged against it (and there would be an appeal to the Privy Council, but it would not determine questions in other Provinces or questions arising on different facts. Other actions may be started: indeed it is rumoured that they are to be started before other courts, and litigation may be indefinitely protracted. So far I have dealt only with the constitution of the Provisional Syndicates, but it is right to call the attention of the Council to the fact that these difficulties of construction, which I have discussed, are not limited in their effect to the Provisional Syndicates. The same question arises in regard to the election of Fellows to represent the Faculties under clauses (c) and (f). Then again there are no provisions to secure election by the Faculties unless such power is contained in the proviso that the election is to be "in such manner as the Chancellor may direct." These Fellows are to be representative of the Faculties, and it would be certainly most undesirable that the Faculties should be denied any voice in their election. But if the argument against the wider construction of the Chancellor's powers be good in the case of the Provisional Syndicates, it must be good in their case also. The result follows that the Bodies Corporate of the Universities, or at least of some of them, have never been properly constituted, and that the whole work must be done over again and the time spent and labour bestowed on them must be absolutely wasted. My Lord, I have now put before the Council the main features of this unfortunate controversy, and trust that I have convinced them that the matter is one which demands prompt treatment in the public interests. The Bill is a short one and does no more than validate the action of the Chancellor in regard to the constitution of the Senates and Provisional Syndicates. That action does not affect the ultimate constitution of the bodies of the University: it is of a temporary character only, and if there be a

[FEB. 1905.]

dispute as to the meaning of the Act in regard to it, it seems better to do as the Chancellors have done and to follow the procedure which was in force before the passing of the Act until such time as the Universities are fully constituted. My Lord, I beg formally for leave to introduce the Bill.

MR. GOKHALE'S SPEECH.

The Hon. Mr. Gokhale said:—My Lord,—I beg to oppose this motion. I was only last night that I received the agenda paper of this meeting, and then I saw that it was proposed to introduce a measure of this kind at to-day's Council. There was, however, no copy of the Bill with the agenda paper—there is no copy even now before me on the table—so I was entirely in the dark, until I heard the speech of the Honourable member in charge of the Bill, about the precise nature and scope of the proposed legislation. Now, my Lord, I respectfully submit that this is somewhat hard on members of this Council. Now I find myself compelled, if I want to enter my protest at all, to speak just on the spur of the moment without any opportunity to look up facts and references, relying solely on my mere recollection of things. My Lord, I was one of those who did his utmost last year to prevent the passage of the Universities Bill. But having done that, as soon as the Bill was passed, I was among those who recognised the wisdom of the appeal so earnestly made by His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal to both friends and opponents of the measure that they should after that bury their differences and in the best interest of higher education endeavour to co-operate with one another to make the Act a success. I should therefore have been glad, if there had been no occasion for me, not to oppose any further the proposals of Government in regard to the Universities of India. But as the Government have thought fit to introduce the present measure, and as I disapprove of it most strongly, there is no course open to me but to offer it such resistance as I can. My Lord, I interpret the Honourable member's speech as a practical admission that the Notifications, which the Chancellors in the different provinces have issued, are illegal and *ultra vires*, and that the action taken under them cannot be sustained. For, if there had been the faintest possibility of the Notifications being upheld by the High Courts, the Government, I am sure, would not have taken this unpleasant and not wholly dignified course of coming to the Legislature to validate what they have done. Now, my Lord, one might easily ask the question how

such illegal Notifications came to be issued, for with the resources at the disposal of the various Governments in the matter of expert legal advice and in other ways, the public had a right, even in this country, to expect work less careless than that. But when a mistake has been admitted in public life as in private life, the less one dwells on it the better. But though I do not care to press the question how these Notifications came to be issued, I must protest emphatically against the course proposed to be adopted to set right the illegality that has been committed. I think, My Lord, the only proper course for the Supreme Government on this occasion was to call upon the various Chancellors to withdraw these objectionable Notifications and substitute others in their place more in accordance with the law. Instead of following this plain course, the Government have chosen to come to the Legislature with proposals to remedy, not any defect in the Law, but a serious illegality committed in taking action under the law, and persisted in in spite of warnings and protests. My Lord, in all civilised countries there is a well-understood and well-defined distinction between the Legislature and the Executive Government, and the Legislature is regarded as higher than the Executive. In India, unfortunately, this distinction for the most part is only of a nominal character, for with the present constitutions of the Councils the Executive Government can get what law they please passed by the Legislature without the slightest difficulty. I submit, however, that it is not desirable, it is not wise that this fact should be forced on the attention of the public in so unpleasant a manner as on this occasion, and I think the distinction becomes a force. Our Legislature is to be thus at the beck and call of the Executive Government, and if it is to be called upon to exercise its powers of legislation to remedy defects not in existing laws but in executive action taken under those laws, My Lord, I respectfully but emphatically protest against this lowering of the dignity of the Legislature. Of course there is nothing to prevent the Government legally from coming to the Legislature with such proposals as they please. But I venture to think that there are moral limits on the competency of the Government in this matter. I think that the Government should come forward with proposals of amendment only in the event of the existing law being found so defective as to be unworkable, errors in executive action being set right as far as possible by executive action alone. I can imagine a case where, soon after passing a measure, the Government suddenly discovered a flaw which makes it im-

possible to carry the measure into practice. In such a case, however, one may regret the necessity of amending legislation but one would be prepared to regard the position of Government with a certain amount of sympathy. But that is not the case on the present occasion. It is not contended that no executive remedy is possible to set matters right, for, by withdrawing the present Notifications and substituting others in accordance with law, the whole difficulty can be got over. The Honourable member has told us that this would involve much loss of precious time, and of valuable work already in process of being done. Surely this is not such a calamity as to justify the present proposals. It is true that those who get into power for the first time often imagine that they must begin their reforming work at once, and that the situation cannot brook a moment's delay. Everyone will not, however, necessarily sympathise with such impatience, and some may even welcome circumstances which necessitate their going more slowly. As regards the fear that in some places examinations will have to be postponed, unless the election of the present Syndicates is validated, even that need not frighten us much as examinations have been postponed in the past on account of the plague and other difficulties, and there is no great harm if they have to be postponed for a time in any place this year. The Honourable member has further told us that after all the defects that have been discovered in the Notifications are of a purely technical character. Now I cannot subscribe to this view of the matter at all. Take, for instance, the formation of the Faculties. If this function had been left to the Senates as required by the law—if it had not been illegally usurped by the Chancellors—we should have had the Faculties formed in accordance with some clear and intelligible principle as in old times. But in what the Chancellors have done there is no such clear principle recognisable. Thus, in Bombay a man like Mr Justice Chandavarkar, than whom there are few more cultured Fellows—European or Indian—in the Bombay Senate, has been excluded from the Arts Faculty, which after all is the most important Faculty, and relegated to the Faculty of Law, which is made to include every Fellow who has taken the LL.B. degree. So it is not only a mere setting right of technical defect that is involved in this Bill. My Lord, there is another most important question that must be brought to the notice of this Council. I am not sure that I quite followed the Honourable member in what he said about the effect of this Bill on the Syndicates which have been elected under the illegal Notifications. I

understood him to say, and I speak subject to correction, that the elections could stand. If this be so, I can only protest against what is proposed as a great wrong, at least so far as the Bombay University is concerned. For there the opinion of eminent counsel has been obtained which declares that the Notification was clearly illegal and *ultra vires*. This opinion had been forwarded to the University authorities before the elections were held, and the only request that was made was that the elections should be postponed till the Chancellor had reconsidered the whole question in the light of that opinion. An opportunity was thus given to the party that is anxious to introduce the new order of things to set matters right by cancelling the Notification and issuing another in its place. Instead of that, they preferred to hold the elections in accordance with the Notification, and now it is proposed to condone the illegality committed with open eyes by means of fresh legislation. My Lord, the unfairness of this arrangement becomes all the more obvious when it is remembered that those who saw the illegality of the Notification did not take part in the election beyond entering their protest. They did not allow themselves to be nominated as candidates, neither did they exercise their undoubted right to vote because of the illegal character of the whole proceeding. On the other hand, those who chose to act on the Notification acted as though they were determined to carry out their object, whatever the obstacles in their way. Thus, a motion for adjournment with the Vice-Chancellor who presided over the Arts Meeting allowed to be put to the meeting one day was under exactly similar circumstances ruled out of order the next day at the Law Meeting by the Judicial Member of the Executive Government, whose interest in University matters was suddenly aroused and who attended to take the chair, which otherwise would have been occupied by the senior Fellow present, Sir Pherozeshah Mehta. And it is now proposed to support by fresh legislation the illegalities committed in this high-handed manner by those who chose to ignore the warning and opinion of eminent counsel, and it is proposed to punish those who protested against the illegalities and refrained from being a party to them. I think it is absolutely unjustifiable to disfranchise a large number of Fellows and accept the elections made by a handful of men in each group as made by the Faculties, and once more I protest emphatically against the contemplated wrong. My Lord, there are some of the observations which suggest themselves to me on this occasion. I have been under some disadvantage in having had to speak on the spur of the

moment, and I can only trust I have made no mistake in my statement of facts, nor have employed stronger language than the exigencies of the situation demanded.

The Hon. Mr. Richards said: The Honourable member began by complaining that he had no notice of this Bill. That is, however, a matter which will soon be remedied. Before this Bill will come up for the second reading he will have full notice of it and will be in a position to comment on it freely. The Honourable member then said that this Bill was an admission that these Notifications were illegal. Against that view I enter an emphatic protest. The object of introducing the Bill is simply to put an end to this state of suspense. We cannot determine ourselves whether these Notifications are legal or illegal. What we have to determine is the state of suspense created by these Notifications. The sole question is, what is to be done in order that the work of education in these Universities may go on? That is the sole question the Council has to deal with. I listened in vain for any suggestion from the Honourable member as to how that state of suspense can be put an end to. If we adopt his suggestion everything would have to be gone over again. The Bill will put an end to these delays and allow the work of the Universities to go on.

The motion was then put and agreed to.

The Hon. Mr. Richards then introduced the Bill and moved that the Bill, together with the Statement of Objects and Reasons relating thereto be published in English in the *Gazette of India* and in the local official Gazettes.

The motion was put and agreed to.

A meeting of the Council was held at the Council Chamber, Government House, on Friday, 10th February. His Excellency Lord Curzon, Viceroy and Governor-General of India, presided.

UNIVERSITIES VALIDATING BILL.

The Hon. Mr. Richards moved that the Bill to validate action taken under the Indian Universities Act, 1904, be taken into consideration. He said he had on a former occasion explained to the Council the objects of the Bill and would now content himself with formally moving that it be taken into consideration.

MR. GOKHALE.

The Hon. Mr. Gokhale moved that for the words "the Bill to validate action taken under the Indian Universities Act, 1904, be taken into consideration," in Motion No. 1, the words

"the consideration of the Bill to validate action taken under the Indian Universities Act, 1904, be postponed *sine die*," be substituted. He said: Last Friday, when I troubled the Council with a few observations on the Bill now before us, I ventured to suggest that the introduction of this measure and the Hon. member's speech in support of it amounted to a practical admission that the notifications issued by the several Chancellors were illegal and *ultra vires*. The Hon. member however, took exception to my remark, and that makes it necessary that the Council should consider briefly the circumstance connected with their notifications and the position now created by them. For this purpose I would invite the attention of the Council to what has taken place at Calcutta and Bombay. I take these two Universities, partly because it has been easier for me to obtain precise information in regard to them than in regard to others during the short time at my disposal, but mainly because the circumstances of the Calcutta University are brought to be within the personal knowledge of several members of this Council, and at Bombay matters have culminated in a suit being instituted in the High Court. My Lord, I have no wish to-day to stir up the ashes of the controversy that raged round the Universities Bill last year, though one may say in passing that some of the fears then expressed by the opponents of the measure about the probable exclusion of independent Indians from the administration of the University are already being more or less realised. What, for instance, can be more lamentable than that on the present Syndicate of the Calcutta Universities, four Faculties out of five should be without a single Indian representative, and that in Bombay a man like Sir Pherozeshah Mehta, once a Dean in Arts, who, in point of attainments and of zealous devotion to the best interests of the country, towers head and shoulders above many of those who have of late been posing as authorities on high education in this land, should be excluded from the Faculty of Arts? However, I know that any further complaint in the Council about the policy of the last year's Bill is like ploughing the sands of the seashore, and I have no wish to engage in an enterprise at once so fruitless and so unnecessary. My Lord, I must ask the Council to glance for a while at what may be called the scheme of the last year's Act in regard to the constitution of the first Senate and of Provisional Syndicates. That scheme, I contend, is both clear and adequate, and if only ordinary care had been taken to adhere to it, the present difficulties would not have arisen. The scheme was set forth in the several clauses of

Section 12. First of all there was to be election of the Fellows by graduates, or by old elected Fellows, or by both. Then there was to be appointment of not more than ten old Fellows by the Chancellor. And there was to be the election or rather co-option of ten more Fellows by the elected Fellows and Government nominees acting together. The co-option was to complete the Senate, and then the Chancellor was to notify that the Body Corporate of the University had been constituted, appending to the notification a list of the new Senate. As soon as this declaration was made, the old Senate and the old Syndicate were to cease to exist, and the new Senate, that is the Body Corporate, was to elect a Provisional Syndicate in such manner as the Chancellor might direct,—the old bye-laws and regulations of the University continuing in force till new ones were framed, except in so far as they were expressly or by implication superseded or modified. Now two things more are absolutely clear: (1) That the election of the Provisional Syndicate is to be by the Senate, i.e., the Body Corporate, and secondly, whatever discretion might be conferred on the Chancellor by the words "in such manner as the Chancellor may direct," that discretion is limited first by the expressed terms of the Act, and secondly by such old regulations and bye-laws as have not been superseded or modified. The Hon. member said last Friday that unless a very wide meaning was assigned to the words "in such manner as the Chancellor may direct," there would be a difficulty about fixing the number of the Syndicate. I am surprised at the Hon. member's argument, for he forgets that the old regulation prescribed the number, and, the Act being silent in the matter, that number must stand. On the other hand, the regulations prescribed election by Faculties, but the Act expressly provides for election by the Senate; therefore the election by the Faculties must go. I therefore contend that the scheme of the Act for the constitution of the First Senate and the Provisional Syndicate is a clear and complete scheme, and the responsibility of the present muddle rests not on those who framed the Act, but on those who did not take sufficient care to understand its provisions and exceeded their powers in taking action under it. Indeed, my Lord, I wonder what Sir Thomas Raleigh in his retirement will think of these proceedings in Council and of the justification urged for them, for to my mind they are little less than a reflection on the patient industry and care with which he elaborated the provisions of the Universities Bill, and I think it will strike him as an irony of fate, that, while

these proceedings should be initiated by those who were among the most enthusiastic supporters of his Bill, it should have been reserved for an uncompromising opponent of the measure to protest against the charge of unsatisfactory work which they involve against him! My Lord, I have so far briefly sketched what may be called the scheme of the Act. Let us now see how they have followed this scheme in practice at Bombay and Calcutta. In Bombay the election of the Fellows by graduates and by old elected Fellows took place all right. The appointment of 80 Government nominees followed in proper form; finally 90 proceeded to the couple, the remaining ten sitting and voting together as required by the Act. The Bombay Senate was thus regularly constituted, and no one has taken any exception to its constitution. Then came the Chancellor's notifications about the election of a Provincial Syndicate, in which he arbitrarily divided the Fellows into groups, which he had no power to do, and directed these several groups to meet and vote separately and on separate days, which also he had no power to do. And when the illegal character of the notification was brought to his notice and opinions of eminent lawyers in support of their view were forwarded to him, the University authorities persisted in acting on the notification, with the result that the aggrieved party had to move the High Court for redress. In Calcutta the catalogue of illegalities was even longer. Here the election of ten Fellows, ten graduates and very old elected Fellows, took place all right, and the Chancellor's nominations were also in regular form. From this point, however, commenced the regular series of irregularities. The ten Fellows to be co-opted were not co-opted by the elected and the nominated Fellows sitting and voting together as required by the Act. The constitution of the Calcutta Senate itself was thus defective. Then the Chancellor divided this Senate into Faculties for purposes of electing the Syndicates, which he had no power to do. The old regulations which are still in force recognise only four Faculties, but the Chancellor constituted five Faculties on his own responsibility, which was irregular. Under the old regulations every Fellow, *ex-officio* or ordinary, must belong to at least one Faculty. But the Chancellor did not assign the *ex-officio* Fellows to any Faculties, which was irregular. Finally, the Provisional Syndicate was elected by the Faculties instead of by the Senate, as expressly required by the Act, and this was irregular. And now, after all these irregularities have been committed, the Government of India come to the Legislature with a proposal to vali-

date all that is being done. In doing so they ignore the fact they are interfering with a pending suit, destroying the protection of the High Court which the public prizes above everything else, lowering the dignity of the Legislature and creating throughout the country a most deplorable impression about the practical irresponsibility of the executive Government; and yet, when it is said that the action of the Government is a practical admission that the notifications were illegal, the Hon. member thinks it necessary to protest against the inference. Mr Lord, I think the matter is pretty clear. In any case the view that the notifications are illegal and *ultra vires* is supported by three distinguished members of the Bombay Bar—two of them being Europeans who have taken no part in recent educational controversies and who occupy the foremost positions in their profession in Bombay. Can the Hon. member quote on the other side any authority of equal eminence or anything like equal eminence, or of any eminence at all? Is he prepared to pledge his own reputation as a lawyer to the view that the notifications are not illegal? And if he is not, I submit my inference is a fair inference, and I think I am entitled to draw it. The Hon. member complained last time that I had no alternative course to suggest. This was surely a most extraordinary complaint to make, for in the next minute he proceeded to show how my suggestion, viz., that the faulty notification should be withdrawn and others, in accordance with law, substituted in their place, would involve waste of time and work, and prove harmful to the interests of the University. My Lord, I really think it is the duty of the Government, not less than that of private individuals, to face whatever inconvenience has to be faced in obeying the law, and the only proper and dignified course for the Government was to have waited till the Bombay High Court had pronounced its judgment, and if the decision had been adverse to the Government, to have withdrawn the notifications held to be illegal, and to have substituted others in their place framed in accordance with law—a validating Bill being at the same time introduced to legalize the work done during the interval by the defectively constituted bodies. If, on the other hand, the Court had decided in favour of the Government, nothing further need have been done in the matter unless the decision had been reversed by the higher authority. The Hon. member drew last time a dismal picture of the result that a state of uncertainty would produce. That picture, however, need not frighten anybody—at any rate, no one who is acquainted with the

inner working of an Indian University. It would not have taken so very long after all to set matters right, and in the interval the Vice-Chancellor and the Registrar could have carried on the ordinary executive business of the University, and whatever temporary inconvenience had resulted would have been borne as inevitable. Instead of this the Government has chosen a course which is hardly respectful to His Majesty's Judges; which intervenes by means of legislation in favour of one party to a pending suit; which lowers the dignity of the Legislature and which proclaims that the executive authority in this country is perfectly above the law. I decline to be a party to such a course, and I therefore beg to move the amendment which stands in my name.

MR. RICHARDS.

The Hon. Mr. Erle Richards asked the Council to reject the amendment. He proposed to speak very briefly because the matter had already been discussed on a former occasion and because it really lay within a very small compass. The Hon. member had said that the matter was governed by the existing bye-laws. As a matter of fact the existing bye-laws applied to a totally different state of things. If the election was to be by the Senate and not by the Faculties, it would be impossible to say how far those bye-laws applied, what part of them was good and what part of them was bad, what parts were applicable to this case and what parts were not. He ventured to suggest to the Council that the whole matter had been very briefly put. It seemed to be supposed that these Provisional Syndicates had in their hands the whole of the future prospects of the Universities and were going to wield their powers for good or for evil all their life. Such, however, was not the case. They were simply transitory bodies which carried on the business of the Universities, granted degrees and regulated examinations for a time until they were superseded by the permanent Syndicate. They have no absolute power, the Senate being the real controlling authority. He ventured to think that the Provisional Syndicates had not the importance which had been ascribed to them. In moving for leave to introduce this Bill he had remarked that there was a state of confusion and doubt as to the status of these Provisional Syndicates, and that that state of confusion and doubt was detrimental, and must be detrimental, to the work of the Universities. He had also called the attention of the Council to the fact that in Bombay legal proceedings were taken and that here in Calcutta legal proceedings were threatened. He knew

now that a protest had been lodged here, and it seemed impossible to suppose that the work of the Universities of Allahabad and Madras could have gone on unchallenged. Was this state of affairs to be allowed to drift on, or was something to be done to put a stop to it? Every well-wisher of the University—and he included Mr. Gokhale amongst them—must desire to put an end to this state of things at once. The only question was whether this Bill was the real remedy or whether there was any other remedy which could be more suitably applied. He would ask the Council to put aside the case of Bombay for the present. The case of Bombay depended, as he believed, on special circumstances, and when Mr. Gokhale called attention to those special circumstances he would be prepared to deal with the case of Bombay. At present he would ask the Council to deal with the matter as affecting the other four Universities. As regarded the elections, they were in fact held with the approval of the Senate, and therefore what they had to deal with was the merest technicality. The Bill which he had had the honour to bring before them would set right that technicality in the shortest and least expensive way. It would remove all doubts as to past proceedings would set at rest these different points; and would allow the work of the Universities to continue uninterruptedly. In conclusion Mr. Richards dealt with the suggestion of Mr. Gokhale that the proposed course was not the proper one to take, and said he certainly could not ask the Council to embark on the course suggested in the amendment, which must lead to confusion and difficulty. This question could only be settled by litigation. Litigation meant delay, stopped University work, wasted time and involved expense; but legislation avoided all this and was the proper and only course to put an end to all this state of doubt and allow University work to continue.

The Hon. Sir Denzil Ibbetson spoke as a member of the Select Committee, and argued that the procedure followed had been in accordance with the spirit of the law.

The amendment was then put and lost.

The Hon. Mr. Richards' original motion that the Bill be taken into consideration was then put and carried.

MR. GOKHALE.

The Hon. Mr. Gokhale moved that after Clause 1 of the Bill the following clause be added, Clauses 2 and 3 being renumbered 3 and 4, respectively, namely:—"2. Nothing in this Act shall apply to the University of Bombay."

The Hon. Mr. Richards asked the Council to reject the amendment, which was based on the ground that a special grievance existed in the case of Bombay, and that owing to the withdrawal of certain gentlemen from the elections held by the Faculties proper representation on the Syndicate had not been secured. He had gone into the question of how these members of the Provisional Syndicate were elected and he had taken his figures from the plaint lodged by the plaintiffs in the Bombay High Court and he took it, therefore that the figures would be favourable to the plaintiffs. In the Faculty of Arts there were 45 electors and 4 were elected out of 10. In the Faculty of Engineering there was no protest and no withdrawals and 6 were elected. In the Faculty of Medicine there were 22 electors of whom 2 did not vote and it was obvious that their absence did not constitute any serious grievance. In the Faculty of Law there were 25 electors of whom 6 withdrew and the remainder elected 2 representatives. It was quite fair to say that six withdrawals might have influenced the result of the election. But had the result of the election been improper? The two gentlemen who were elected as representatives of the Faculty of Law were Mr. Justice Chandavarkar, an eminent Judge of the Court, and Mr. Ras, Principal of the Government Law College and Professor of Jurisprudence. Nobody who knew these two gentlemen could say that they were not fit to represent the Faculty of Law. The withdrawals had thus no effect on the results of the elections, except in one case, and in that case they had two gentlemen elected who were most eminently fitted to represent that particular Faculty.

The Hon. Mr. Gokhale said that Mr. Richards seemed to be labouring under a strange misapprehension as regards the figures he had given. He (Mr. Gokhale) had written to Bombay and had got the figures of those who were actually present. In the Faculty of Law there were 22 electors, but only 11 were present, of these 6 withdrew and only 5 remained to elect 2 representatives. The Faculty of Arts consisted of 45 members, but only 20 attended and they were in favour of the new order of things. The Faculty of Engineering consisted almost entirely of Government officers and they could not look for independent action on the part of Government officers. In the Faculty of Medicine there were only 3 or 4 who actually voted.

The amendment was then put and lost.

The Hon. Mr. Richards moved that the Bill be passed.

The Hon. Bai Sri Ram Bahadur, opposed.

The Hon. Nawab Saiyid Muhammad, Sahib Bahadur, also opposed.

MR. GOKHALE.

The Hon. Mr. Gokhale said: My Lord,—I have already spoken thrice on this Bill, but I cannot let it pass without a final word of protest. My Lord, British rule in this country has hitherto been described—and, on the whole, with good reason—as the reign of law. A few more measures, however, like the present and that description will have to be abandoned and another substituted for it, namely, the reign of executive irresponsibility and validating legislation. My Lord, the Government are paying too great a price for what is undoubtedly an attempt to save the prestige of its officers. But is prestige ever so saved? On the other hand, an occasional admission of fallibility is not bad, especially for a strong Government like the British Government. It introduces a touch of the human into what ordinarily moves with machine-like rigidity. It enhances the respect of the people for law, because they are enabled to realize that even the Government respects it. And it strengthens the hold of the Government on his people because they see that in spite of its strength it has a tender and scrupulous regard for the limitations imposed by the Legislature upon it. My Lord, may I, in this connection, without impertinence, say one word about your Lordship personally? Whatever differences of opinion there may be in the country about some of the measures of your Lordship's administration, the impression hitherto has been general that during your time the Local Governments and administrations have had to realize more fully than before that there is a controlling and vigilant authority over them at the head, and that this authority will tolerate no irregularities on their part. It is a matter of disappointment that this impression should not have been justified in the present instance. My Lord, public opinion in this country being as feeble as it is the only two bodies that control the exercise of absolute power by the Executive are the Legislature, which lays down the law, and the High Courts which see that the law is obeyed. If now the Government is to destroy the protection which the High Courts afford by means of validating legislation, and if the Legislature is to be reduced to the position of a mere handmaid of the Executive, to be utilized for passing such legislation what is there left to stand between the people and the irresponsible will of the Executive? My Lord, I feel keenly this humiliation of my country's Legislature: for though we, Indian

members, have at present a very minor and almost insignificant part in its deliberations, it is after all our country's Legislature. Moreover, I have a feeling of faith that in the fulness of time our position in it will be much more satisfactory than at present, and anything that lowers it in the eyes of my countrymen cannot but be regarded with profound regret. My Lord, I will vote against the passing of the Bill.

The Lieutenant-Governor dealt with the question as it had affected the Calcutta University, where, he said, there had been reasonable give-and-take.

THE VICEROY.

The Viceroy said:

In spite of the heroics in which the Hon. Mr. Gokhale indulged in his concluding speech just now, I venture to think that the truest remark that has been made this morning fell from my honourable colleague sitting upon my left, when he said that the importance of this matter has been gravely exaggerated. As I understand the case, the question before us is essentially a small one. When we passed our Universities Bill last year, it became necessary to provide for a transitional period before the new constitution came into final operation. For this purpose what are called the transitory provisions were inserted in Section 12 of the Act. I confess that I was never very much enamoured of those provisions myself. They contain a number of conundrums almost unintelligible to the mind of the average layman, and certainly unintelligible to myself. But I would remind the Council that they were not part of the original Bill. We owe those transitory provisions in the main to the ingenuity of a learned Judge of the High Court of Calcutta; a Member of this Council a year ago, a Member of the Select Committee that was responsible for turning the Bill into its present shape, and one of the most consistent allies of the Hon. Mr. Gokhale himself. Mr. Gokhale in one of his speeches said he wondered what Sir Thomas Raleigh would think of our procedure of to-day. I earnestly hope that Sir Thomas Raleigh in his peaceful retreat in England will not bother himself about anything so essentially trivial. But if he is in anxiety about the views of Sir Thomas Raleigh, what must be the mental position of the learned Judge? Under one of the sub-sections of this Section 12, a Provincial Syndicate was to be appointed to carry on the business of the University and to frame the necessary regulations for the permanent Syndicate in the interval before this was appointed later on. The Provisional Syndicate was to be appointed by

the Senate in such a manner as the Chancellor might direct. Upon this authority the various Chancellors in the various Universities proceeded to act, and the various provisional Syndicates were elected, not always in the same way. I know nothing of the proceedings that took place at the other Universities, because I was absent from India at the time: neither had I anything to do with the constitution of the provisional Syndicate here, beyond indicating the method of procedure for the election, as I was by the terms of the Statute bound to do. The Hon. Mr. Gokhale is good enough to tell me that my action was irregular throughout. With all respect I must decline to take him as an authority upon a matter of law. I have other legal advisers whose opinions are perhaps equal to his own and whose opinions do not coincide with his. I knew nothing of the Provisional Faculties or of the elections that they made. The first I heard of it was when I saw their names in the newspapers. Any suspicion, therefore, that the Government at large or the Chancellor of the Calcutta University in particular were trying to arrange matters in accordance with their views is absolutely groundless. We have not any certain knowledge whether our action was even illegal. Reading the Act as a layman I should be very much inclined to say that the action, in Calcutta at any rate, was strictly legal, and such, I believe, is the opinion of the Hon. Member who sits upon my left. But even if it was illegal, it is surely quite clear that the illegality was of the most petty description and was due to an ambiguity in the wording of the Act for which the Government were not mainly responsible.

Now what has happened? The question of legality has been raised, not here but in Bombay. There the matter seems, I agree with the Hon. Member in that respect, to be rather more open to doubt, though, while agreeing with him on that point, I must state that he had no right whatever to say in his speech the other day, and to repeat in one of his speeches to-day, that the Government by their action had admitted the illegality themselves. That is far from being our position. On the contrary, it was disputed by Mr. Richards throughout. Anyhow, the matter was raised in Bombay and was brought before the High Court there. It might equally have been raised here; we had reason to believe that the friends of the Hon. Member in this city were waiting to see what happened at Bombay in order to raise the question here. An era of litigation appeared therefore to threaten. And what did litigation mean?

It meant not only the sometimes dilatory process before the Courts of Law with which we are familiar in this country, but also suspension of the work of the Universities until the point was settled perhaps months later on. I quite agree with what has just fallen from the Lieutenant-Governor on this point. I was surprised to hear the Hon. Mr. Gokhale say last week that this did not much matter, that he was even willing that months should be wasted before this question was settled. That phrase would come naturally enough from the lips of a professed enemy of the Government, but it does not come so well from the mouth of a sincere friend of education, which is the light in which we always prefer to regard the Hon. Member and in which he always depicts himself in this Chamber. This is the situation that the Government by the ordinary and obvious means placed at their disposal intervened to stop. Thereupon the Hon. Member tells us that our action is arbitrary, that we have assumed a position of practical irresponsibility which has produced a most deplorable effect, and just now, in a moving peroration, he even indicated that the reign of law was coming to an end in India, and I am not quite certain that he did not set it down to my discredit that I was to be the Viceroy under whom this disastrous state of affairs was about for the first time to arise.

Now I need hardly tell Hon. Members that when the Hon. Mr. Gokhale made these remarks, he made them not for this assembly but for the benefit of his friends outside. The Government, in introducing a validating Bill, to resolve the doubts that have arisen, are not doing anything that they have not done before; there is no novelty in their action; they are not intervening to secure anything for Government which we want and which we ought not to seek. All that we are doing is to intervene to prevent the unfortunate consequences that have already in part resulted, and that might result in an even greater degree, from an ambiguity in the wording of the Bill; and as for the deplorable effect that is alleged to have been produced, I think a much more deplorable effect would have ensued had the Government not interfered, and had they allowed this state of suspended animation, of interrupted work, on the part of the bodies that we spent so much time in constituting last year, to continue. Of course the Hon. Member sees in our action much more. In his eyes I am afraid that the Government are always guilty of dark deeds, which it is his duty to discover and lay bare. He said, for instance, this morning, that what had already happened showed how true were the

prophecies of himself and his friends a year ago. He remarked that some of their fear had been more or less realised. Well, I was waiting to discover what those fears were; but he then passed away from the subject. I think it was prudent on his part to introduce these qualifications for this reason. The particular fear in which the Honorable Member habitually indulged last year and which figured in almost all his speeches, was that the Government was going to pack the Senates of the new Universities. He wrote in his Note of Dissent that "the object of the Bill is to place the Indian element in so hopeless a minority as to dissociate it for all practical purposes from the Government of the Universities. This much is clear the rest is doubtful." Then in one of his speeches later on, which I remember rebuking, at the time, he said that the Senates of the future would be dominantly European with only a slight sprinkling of Indians just to keep up appearances. Now let us see how the fears of the Hon. Member's have been more or less realised. In the Senate of the Calcutta University, for which I am in the main responsible, the Indians are in a majority over the Europeans of 3; in the Bombay University, which the Hon. Member knows so well, the Natives have a majority of 14. In other words, 57 out of 100 is what he described by anticipation as a slight sprinkling of Natives. In Lahore the Natives are in a majority of 3. In fact the Universities of Madras and Allahabad are the only two Universities upon the Senates of which the Europeans are in the majority; and their majority in Madras is only 4 and in Allahabad only 5.

The Honorable Member has been very eloquent to-day about the attitude of Government, and I have ventured, I hope without offence, to reply to him. May I suggest to him that he should turn his attention for a moment to the attitude of his own friends? Is he quite sure that a disinterested love of education has been at the bottom of their action in this matter? It is difficult, I think, to believe it of all of them. To do them justice there is a certain class of opponents of Government who have never pretended it for a moment. The object of that class is quite clear and it has been stated in their organs. They desire, in the first place, to discredit the Universities which the Government created last year and to bring their work to a standstill and, in the second place, they wish to bring about an election of new provisional Syndicates who would be more in sympathy with the views of the enemies of the Act than those who have been elected, and who might help them in practice to break it down.

That, as we all know is the scheme that has been revised in certain quarters, and it is now about to fail. I could not help being a little amused last week when the Honorable Member called us to witness that he had been greatly moved by an appeal made by the Lieutenant-Governor last year; that since then he had been exercising all his energies to make our Bill a success; but that he had been diverted from this excellent enterprise by the arbitrary conduct of Government in once again bringing the matter into the arena of controversy. Considering that the whole matter that we are sitting here to-day to discuss is in consequence of action not taken by the Government but taken by the friends of the Honorable Member this seems to me rather strange. Now, however, that this move has failed, I hope that the Honorable Member, and those who act which him, will return to the rôle of true friends of education in this country, and that we may expect his co-operation in future in defeating any further attempts to impair the success of the Act, which I really believe that, equally with ourselves, he has at heart.

The motion was then put and carried.

The Hon. Mr. Gokhale asked for a division, which was taken with the following result: For the motion 15, Against 4.

The Council then adjourned till the 24th instant.

OUR ENGLISH LETTER.

CAMBRIDGE, January, 1905.

The schoolmaster's hard-earned holidays must have been saddened to him by the discovery that he is no gentleman in the eye of the law. A witness at Southend, who belonged to the pedagogic profession, applied for his expenses on the scale allowed for 'gentlemen'; but the magistrate reduced him to the ranks of manual labour. It would appear, however, that the law allows, and the Court awards, that he may assume this honorific title if he has studied in a University. What if he has been an out-student at London? Possibly we may find that a school-room is not 'a place within the meaning of the act,' and that a schoolmaster is a non-entity, not even a human being, exercising his functions, legally speaking, nowhere. Many schoolboys would be glad to have the legal technicality converted into fact.

The first two days of the vacation were occupied, as usual, by the Head-masters' Conference in their annual meeting. On this occasion that meeting was at Horsham, within the walls of the newly-built Christ's Hospital. Several subjects

were discussed, and few decided. On the question of making membership of the Cadet Corps compulsory, opinion was by no means unanimous. All indeed were in favour of teaching patriotism; but many were afraid of fostering the spirit of militarism, and of familiarising their boys with the pomp and circumstance of war while necessarily hiding its horrors. Compulsion, again, is the essence of conscription; and they were not unnaturally afraid of introducing the thin end of the conscriptive wedge into our public schools. There is indeed no stronger argument in favour of the voluntary principle than the popularity of Cadet Corps. We should probably be not far wrong in guessing that in schools where such corps exist, fully half of the boys of their own accord, join, and more than a third remain. If the same proportion is kept up throughout the country at large, a voluntary army of a million can easily be raised. Finally the Conference adopted the plan which Prime Ministers so often adopt, and referred the question to a committee. The Conference also, it is interesting to note, passed by a large majority a motion disagreeing with the proposals of the Cambridge Syndicate respecting Greek in the 'Previous' or 'Little-Go' examination: and their general attitude towards the spirit of the times was further shown by their protest to the War Office against making Latin merely optional, instead of compulsory, in the Woolwich and Sandhurst examinations. Altogether, the meeting was pretty well on the usual lines, and did much what we have learnt to expect Head-masters to do. Assistant-masters are indeed represented at the Conference, but they have not yet been able to make their influence felt.

The London County Council has decided to spend nearly three hundred thousand a year in County Scholarships. Of these there used to be six hundred; there are now to be two thousand five hundred. They are open to children under twelve who have attended a public elementary school for two years; they give education *gratis* for three years, and are renewable for two more. There is a kind of graduation which reminds us of the method under which the 'income-tax' is allocated. Where parents' income is under £160, the scholars get £6 a year besides; and whatever the parents' income, those that bind themselves to become teachers receive £15 a year. This scheme has been severely censured by the Association of London Teachers, on the ground that it seems designed rather to secure teachers than to improve education. The rate-payer is also likely to object to it, on the obvious ground that it gives such a premium to 'low' incomes: but the middle-class has been so weak for years that its opposition

will probably be as ineffective in this case as it has been hitherto. The County Council, indeed, has not been making itself popular. Its decision to hold its educational meetings in private was, from the tactical point of view, a very great mistake. It has been wittily compared to a submarine, showing its nose momentarily every few minutes, and then diving into obscurity again. Dr. Macnamara has voiced the public feeling very effectively; and the answers of Mr. Mackinnon Wood, though able and forceful, have not succeeded in allaying the general discontent, which is the more alarming because it is felt far more strongly by the Progressives than by the Moderates. It was the Progressives who put the present council in power; and, unless indications are misleading, they will hardly do so again unless more trust in the people is shown.

There is an article in the *Cornhill* by a German Rhodes' scholar which is well worth reading. It gives the impressions of a young man, accustomed to German scholastic methods, of a great English University; and these impressions, though of course subject to revision in the light of fuller knowledge, ought to give us pause. He came to Oxford with the idea that he was coming to a place of study. He found it a training-ground for athleticism. The under-graduate is happy—because ignorance is bliss. He is ignorant of English history, of English literature, of English politics—of everything, in fact, except English sport. All this is true, but fortunately it is not the whole truth. The Rhodes' scholar, when he has been in Oxford a little longer, will dive beneath the surface, and discover there a number of men who work hard, and think harder: who talk the athletic cant because they wish to avoid unpleasantness, but think very little about it; who play a game of Rugby Football once a week for exercise, but are none the less zealous students. They are in the minority, it is true; but they are the minority that does more to fashion the place as it really is than hundreds of men who froth upon the surface. Nevertheless, as I began by saying, the article is well worth reading. First impressions are not always corrected, and go largely to form a nation's estimate of another nation. We may learn from this paper some of the reasons which explain the growing contempt which is felt for England on the continent—a contempt not altogether justified, but, if we consider our superficial follies, not at all unnatural.

The Bishop of St. Asaph has recently contributed to the columns of the 'Standard' a series of three or four long articles on the historical and other aspects of the educational question in Wales. There are many of his facts which are

not likely to be universally regarded as correctly put; and to his opinions there will probably be still less general adhesion; but the series deserves study as an able, and on the whole temperate, statement of the case from the point of view of the Church in Wales. Regarding an absolutely secular system as out of the question, and on the other hand asserting that undenominationalism is simply an invented religion that churchmen can never accept, he claims that parents shall decide whether their children shall have religious instruction or not, and which form of religion they shall be instructed in. He even proposes that there should be provision made that one teacher should teach the Church catechism and another the 'undenominational.' On the real points at issue, however, which are briefly the right of popular control and the absolute and total omission of religious tests in selecting teachers, he is far less direct and distinct. Till these two points are settled there can be no talk of compromise on other matters.

The Head-master's Conference, like all engaged in teaching, cannot but feel the tyranny of examinations. This tyranny is all the greater because of its uncertainty. The number of these tests is legion, and the variety in the demands made by professional bodies on would-be professional men is simply intolerable. The Conference therefore addressed to the Board of Education a document pointing out these inconveniences, and asking if steps could not be taken to co-ordinate, or at least largely to simplify, the present chaos. The Board has therefore issued a set of proposals and have sent them round to responsible bodies asking for criticisms. These proposals come briefly to this—that inspection should be undertaken by the Board, freely in the case of Secondary schools earning grants, and for a payment in other cases. The examinations are to be strictly adapted to the courses of the schools, and the teachers are to co-operate with the examiners. To this plan there are many objections—two very important. The first is the obvious one of expense. The multitude of examinations, so far from being diminished, will be increased. Secondly, the examiners will no longer, as they do in the Oxford and Cambridge Joint Board examinations, give a rough comparison of the results attained in different schools, and so supply parents with something (however little) to go on in appraising the value of the work done in the schools. Each 'seminary of sound learning' will have to be judged by an absolute standard. There can be little doubt that some other scheme will have to be proposed: for the old wine, though not good, was better than this new sample.

Reviews and Notices.

"WILLIAM PITT," BY LORD MACAULAY, WITH INTRODUCTION AND NOTES, BY R. F. WINCH, M.A. (MACMILLAN & CO.) Price 2s.

The introduction comprises two paragraphs taken from Cotter Morison's 'Macaulay' in the English Men of Letters Series and from Dean Milman's 'Memoir of Lord Macaulay' respectively. The marginal headings of the paragraphs are a great help to the analytical study of the book. The historical allusions in the text receive full elucidation. A chronological table with special reference to incidents alluded to in the text adds to the utility of the book. It is intended in every way to be a historical text-book or it is hard to account for the striking omission of grammatical, etymological and other explanations.

"THE RIME OF THE ANCIENT MARINER," BY S. T. COLERIDGE, WITH INTRODUCTION AND NOTES, BY P. T. CRESWELL, M.A. (MACMILLAN & CO.) Price 1s.

The text proper does not take up more than twenty-four pages, while the notes, introduction, &c., run over thrice the number of pages. A regular pretentious thesis, touching on the origin, character, and purpose of the poem, is elaborated, while the poem serves just as a peg to hang it on. The author says in his preface that one of his aims has been "in some small measure to make it a centre round which may be grouped references, the necessarily slight, to points of biographical or other interest." But it must be observed that, valuable and interesting as it is, the gorgeous introduction far from giving prominence and relief to the poem has only thrown it into the shade. The notes are clear and exhaustive and there is perhaps hardly left anything to be desired. But there is an irrepressible feeling that the annotator has overdone his office.

"SELECTED POEMS OF GRAY, BURNS, COWPER, MOORE, LONGFELLOW," WITH INTRODUCTION AND NOTES, BY H. B. COTTERILL, M.A. (MACMILLAN & CO.) Price 1s.

This is a collection of half-a-dozen small easy poems, chosen apparently at random. Each of these poems is by no means representative of the author from whom it is taken. These poems are chosen for Irish students by the Intermediate Education Board for Ireland, and the author therefore has no hand in the selection. There is at the beginning of the book a short sketch of the

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life of each poet and a few characteristic remarks on his works. But it is to be feared that the language is not so easy and the style not so attractive as it ought to be for young boys and much of the matter too may be felt above their heads. The notes are too brief but clear and distinct so far as they go. The author has intentionally given a wide berth to Grammar, Syntax, Analysis, &c., and it is to be noted as a good feature that the poor boys' heads are spared the minute details of grammar. The boys are recommended to make frequent use of the dictionary and points of grammar are left to be treated by the teacher at his discretion.

"*ARROPAGITICA*," BY JOHN MILTON, EDITED BY H.B. COTTERILL. (MACMILLAN & CO.) Price 1s.

A useful and attractive book for general readers who content themselves with the general appreciation of the book without aspiring to make a special critical study of it. Such aspirants are directed to the masterly edition of Professor Hales in the Clarendon Press Series, which will engage them fully. This book, on the other hand, does not make any pretensions to meet the demands of the specialist. The editor has, therefore, thought fit to adopt modern orthography, and has carefully omitted philological and grammatical disquisitions. The introduction dwells in a succinct and scholarly way on several topics kindred to the subject; and the chronological summary at the end brings out prominently the chief events in the life of Milton. It is on the whole a well-edited book.

POEMS AND SONNETS OF WORDSWORTH, EDITED BY H.B. COTTERILL. (MACMILLAN & CO.) Price 2s.

The book starts with Lowell's Essay on Wordsworth, which serves for an Introduction. It is intended to serve as a convenient hand-book for Irish students, and the poems have been chosen by the Irish Intermediate Education Board. It contains thirty poems in all: but one misses a few of Wordsworth's characteristic poems, say for instance, 'Ode on Intimations of Immortality,' 'Laodameia,' 'The Fountain,' 'Peter Bell,' &c. The book is carefully annotated and the notes are very brief and suggestive.

WOODSTOCK, BY SIR W. SCOTT, WITH INTRODUCTION AND NOTES, (MACMILLAN & CO.) Price 2s. 6d.

Considering the poor get-up of the common run of Scott's novels in the hands of students, we

welcome this edition of the book. This is neat and elegant, printed on good paper and in bold characters and has an inviting aspect. We wish other good novels of Scott were so edited. The Editor's Introduction and Notes form the chief new attractive matter in the book. The introduction takes a cursory view of many of the chief points of Scott's life and works and contains a few critical remarks on "Woodstock," the history, the plot and the characters. The introduction cannot be pronounced to be a very creditable performance. The language is generally far from good and degenerates occasionally into looseness. The following will serve as a few specimens.

"His poems brought money and fame greater than any writer of English poetry had ever received."

"The sale of the church lands produced ten millions."

"Great conjectures were made as to the name of the author."

"His house and his expenses, limited by no prudential considerations, grew with his fortunes which were dependent on his connection with reckless and unscrupulous men...."

The notes are brief and clear. The book, however, wants a glossary.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

DEPARTMENTAL NOTIFICATIONS.

Miss T. M. Mergler, B.A., is appointed Sub-Assistant Inspector, Chittoor Girls' range, sub. probation, in the third class (Rs. 125).

Mr. K. V. Subbaiya, M.A., L.T., is appointed Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Russelkonda range, vice Mr. K. Sadasiva Row transferred, but to continue to act as Fifth Assistant, Kumbakonam College.

Mr. B. Raghunatha Das, is appointed to act as Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Russelkonda range, vice Mr. K. V. Subbaiya on other duty or until further orders.

Mr. V. Buchiramaia, B.A., is appointed Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Surada range, in the Probationary class.

Mr. S. Gantayet, is appointed Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Aska range, in the Probationary class.

Mr. B. C. Chatterji, is appointed Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Purnahottapur range, but, during his absence on leave, Mr. P. S. L. Narayana-murthi will act as Sub-Assistant Inspector of

Schools, Purnahottapur range, in the Probationary class.

Mr. K. Sadasiva Row, is appointed Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Berhampur range, vice Mr. B. C. Chatterji, transferred.

Mr. B. Kameswara Row, is appointed Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Ichhapuram range.

Mr. S. B. Palit, B.A., is appointed Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Vizianagaram range, without prejudice to his acting appointment.

Mr. S. Bhuvarama Rao, B.A., L.T., is appointed Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Palkonda range, in the Probationary class, but to act as Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Vizianagaram range, vice Mr. S. B. Palit, on other duty, or until further orders.

Mr. E. Ramakrishnaia, to act as Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Palkonda range, in the Probationary class, vice Mr. S. Bhuvarama Rao on other duty or until further orders.

Mr. T. Hanumanta Rao, B.A., L.T., is appointed Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Paravatipuram range, in the Probationary class.

Mr. P. Appalanarasaiya, is appointed Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Vizagapatam range, vice Mr. G. Rama Aiyangar transferred.

Mr. G. Rama Aiyangar, B.A., L.T., is appointed Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Anakapalle range, vice Mr. B. Kameswara Rao transferred.

Mr. C. W. Moss, Head-master, Madrasa-i-Azam, is granted furlough for one year from or after the 6th May 1905.

Mr. S. Soundararaja Aiyangar, Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, is granted privilege leave of absence on full pay for three months from the 9th February, 1905, the date of his relief from the Arni range.

Fort St. George, February 21, 1905.

Mr. R. A. Nelson, Principal, Law College, is granted leave on medical certificate for one year.

Mr. C. L. T. Griffith, to be a temporary member of the Indian Educational Service and to hold the appointment of Professor of Civil Engineering, College of Engineering, Madras, during the absence of Mr. A. Chatterton on leave or on deputation or until further orders.

This appointment will have effect from the 23rd January, 1905, being the date on which Mr. Griffith reported his arrival.

Mr. J. Vittal Pant, Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Nandyal range, is to act for the Assistant Inspector, Bellary Girls' range, during the absence of Miss Govindarajulu on leave or until further orders. To join immediately.

Mr. A. O. Pranatarthara Aiyar, B.A., Lecturer, Rajahmundry College, is to act as Inspector of Schools, Northern Circle, during the absence of Mr. L. C. Williams Pillai, B.A., on leave or until further orders.

Mr. A. S. Vaidyanatha Aiyar, B.A., Assistant Inspector of Schools, Malabar division, is to act as Lecturer, Rajahmundry College, during the employment of Mr. A. O. Pranatarthara Aiyar on other duty or until further orders.

Mr. T. Mathai, Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Calicut range, is to act as Assistant Inspector of Schools, Malabar division, in the ninth class of the Provincial Educational Service, during the employment of Mr. A. S. Vaidyanatha Aiyar on other duty or until further orders. To join immediately.

Mr. P. P. Braithwaite, B.A., Vice-Principal, Teachers' College, Saidapet, is to act as Inspector of European and Training Schools, Madras, during the absence of Mr. J. H. Stone on leave or until further orders.

Mr. S. Subramanya Aiyar, B.A., Second and Acting First Assistant, Teachers' College, is to act as Vice-Principal, Teachers' College, vice Mr. P. P. Braithwaite on other duty or until further orders.

Mr. M. Venkataratnam, B.A., Third and Acting Second Assistant, Teachers' College, to act as First Assistant, Teachers' College, in the ninth class of the Provincial Educational Service, during the employment of Mr. S. Margesha Rao on other duty or until further orders.

Mr. A. Subramanya Aiyar, B.A., L.T., Third and Acting Second Junior Assistant Professor, Presidency College, Madras, is to act as Second Assistant, Teachers' College, Saidapet, in the ninth class of the Provincial Educational Service vice Mr. S. Subramanya Aiyar on other duty or until further orders.

Mr. P. Rajagopala Aiyar, Assistant Professor of Physics, Presidency College, has been appointed Professor of Physics, Rajahmundry College.

The Madras Government have sanctioned the estimates aggregating Rs. 73,290 for the construction of a Veterinary College and subsidiary buildings at Madras. The sanction of the Government of India will be obtained to an estimate of Rs. 5,547 for the construction of quarters for an Assistant Principal of the College.

An Educational Conference was held in the Government School Hall, Calicut, on Monday last, with Mr. T. T. Logan, Inspector of Schools, in the chair. The Assistant Inspector of Schools, all the Sub-Assistant Inspectors and the Head-masters of some of the schools, were present. It was resolved that the rule which required that schools eligible for recognition should be fully supplied with buildings and furniture, should be relaxed in the case of Mopla Schools, the Managers whereof are to be given two years' time during which to satisfy these conditions.

The Madras Government have passed orders on the Memorial received from the Committee of the National High School, Negapatam. It is remarked:-

A Native High School, managed by a local Committee, existed in Negapatam from the year 1876 to the year 1883. The venture was unsuccessful and, owing to financial difficulties, the school was handed over to the Portuguese Mission in 1883. For the past twenty years secondary education in Negapatam

has been in the hands of Christian bodies, the Portuguese Mission and the Wesleyan Missionary Society, who manage, respectively, St. Anthony's High School and the Wesleyan Mission High School. In 1904, an indigenous Committee was again formed for the purpose of founding and managing National High School. The Committee first approached the Bishop of Mylapore with a request that St. Anthony's might be retransferred to the Hindu and Mahomedan communities. The Bishop replied that he desired to preserve in his Diocese the schools which his predecessors had established. The Committee thereupon, without adequate notice to the managers of the existing schools and without obtaining the approval of the Director of Public Instruction to their action, proceeded to start a school to which practically all the pupils and several of the teachers were drawn from the existing institutions. The fact that the new school was filled by depleting the old high schools and not by attracting boys who had previously not attended schools in Negapatam convinced the Director of Public Instruction that the educational needs of the locality did not warrant the establishment of the new school. He accordingly refused it recognition.

There is room in the Presidency for every variety of educational agency, but in the present state of education it is the duty of the Government to check such competition between different agencies as is likely to injure the cause of that education or arrest its steady growth. Under the instructions laid down for his guidance by the Government the Director is required to refuse recognition when from a purely educational, as distinguished from a social or religious point of view, no need for a new school is shown to exist. He has also been instructed to take notice of the conduct of managers who overstep the limits of legitimate competition and to refuse recognition and aid to their schools.

The Government are prepared to assume that the ultimate objects of the Memorialists' enterprise and the motives which impelled them to undertake it are those set out in the Memorial. They must, however, condemn the means employed by the Memorialists for the attainment of those objects. On a careful examination of all the evidence that has been laid before them, the Government cannot acquit the Committee of the National High School of precipitancy, of over-bearing and of want of consideration for institutions which, whatever their short comings have acquired a claim to the gratitude of the people of Negapatam by twenty years of effort and devotion. The methods adopted by the Committee of the National High School, whatever their intentions may have been, might easily have had the unfortunate result of destroying the existing schools at Negapatam without establishing a new school on an efficient and permanent basis.

Combined effort for purposes of public utility on the part of natives of the country is invariably a matter of suggestion and approbation to the Government. It has been the consistent policy of the Government to encourage indigenous management

of educational institutions and to leave free scope for religious instruction in all aided schools. The aspirations of the Memorialists, as far as indigenous management and instruction in the Hindu and Muhammadan religions are concerned, have the full sympathy of the Government. The Government are further willing to be convinced by the test of experience that there is room for three High Schools in Negapatam, and are glad to hear that the Committee have had considerable sums of money placed at their disposal, have been promised further subscriptions, and believe themselves to be in a position to guarantee the financial stability of the National High School. The Government are accordingly prepared to recognise the school experimentally if it is shown to the satisfaction of the Director of Public Instruction to fulfill the ordinary conditions of recognition of which, it must be understood, the restriction of competition within the necessary limits will be considered the first and most important; and if the Committee agree to such condition as to buildings and fees as the Government may lay down after consulting the Director. But as a mark of disapprobation of the methods hitherto pursued by the Committee and their supporters, the Government are pleased to direct that recognition be not in any case recorded for the present.

It will rest with the Hindu and Muhammadan communities of Negapatam to prove the need for the new school by endowing it and establishing it by all other fair means. Government deprecate any methods not open to men who look upon those in the field before them as fellow-workers. But if the Committee of the National High School can within the next six months give proof no less of the sincerity of their intention than of the stability of their undertaking the Government will be even willing to consider the advisability of hastening the ordinary process of recognition; for the usual practice is to recognise only the Fourth Form in the first instance, the Fifth Form in the second year, and the Sixth Form in the third year so that a new High School may build itself up without depleting other institutions.

Meanwhile the school will be on its trial and the Government cannot admit it to the benefits of those provisions of the Grant-in-Aide Code which assume the unquestioned stability of a school. The Director will accordingly refuse to entertain for the present any application for a building or purchase grant that may be made by the Committee.

The following letter about the Hindu Foreign Education Fund has been published in the newspapers.

SIR,—In connection with the letters that have been recently appearing in the *Madras Mail* about the formation of a "Sea Voyage Fund," please allow me to inform gentlemen interested in the movement of the existence of a Fund which has been recently started in Madras under the name of "The Madras Hindu Foreign Education Fund."

A preliminary meeting was held at the Cosmopolitan Club on the 23rd April last, under the presidency of Sir S. Subrahmanya Aiyar, K. C. I. E., and the following Resolutions were passed:—

(1) That it is desirable to organise a Fund, to be registered under the Charitable Societies Act XXI of 1860, for the purpose of providing scholarships for deserving Hindu students of the Madras Presidency to enable them to go to England and compete for the Indian Civil Service, and departments of the Indian Public Service or to go through a course of technical education in Europe, America or Japan.

(2) That the members of the Fund shall pay an annual subscription of not less than Rs. 120 for a period of three years at least.

(3) That a Committee consisting of the following gentlemen be appointed for the purpose of framing a draft of the Memorandum of Association and the rules and conditions under which the Fund is to be administered for collecting information with regard to the several branches of the Indian Public Service for which competitive examinations are held in England, the amount of money likely to be required by students during their stay in England, for the purpose of inviting Hindu gentlemen to become members of the Fund, and taking such other steps as may be necessary in the furtherance of the objects of the Fund.

NAMES OF THE MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE:—

Rao Bahadur C. Jambulingam Moodelliar, C. I. E.; Dewan Bahadur K. Krishnasawmy Rao, C. I. E.; Mr. C. Sankaran Nair, C. I. E.; Mr. V. Krishnasawmy Aiyar; Mr. S. Rungiah Chettiar; Mr. T. V. Seshagiri Aiyar; Mr. C. Kumarasawmy Moodelliar; Mr. P. R. Sundara Aiyar; Mr. C. V. Kumarasawmy Sastriar; Mr. P. S. Sivaswamy Aiyar; Mr. V. C. Desikachariar.

(4) That the Funds to be collected shall be kept in deposit in the Bank of Madras in the names of the Secretary and the Treasurer.

(5) That Mr. P. S. Sivaswamy Aiyar be appointed Secretary, and Mr. V. C. Desikachariar be appointed Treasurer.

The Provisional Committee has addressed circulars to Hindu gentlemen inviting them to join the Fund, and there are now forty-two gentlemen who are members. Rules have been drawn up for the purpose of registering the Fund, and it is intended to register it when seventy-five members shall have joined it. I may add that the Fund has been started on the lines of the Hindu Education Fund of Bombay and to a considerable extent of Mr. Tata's scheme. The main features of the Fund are (a) that the students are to be selected with reference to their qualifications and likelihood of success; (b) that the money required for their expenses is to be advanced to them as a loan to be repaid on their return in instalments with interest at a very low rate (c) that the lives of the selected students are to be insured for the probable amount of the advances to be made, and the insurance policies held as security for the loan; (d) that the moneys repaid by the students are to be

used as a Fund for helping future students on similar terms. It is considered that a sum of Rs. 18,000, or £1,200, per annum is likely to be required to work the scheme successfully. This amount can be easily made up if there are 150 gentlemen in the whole Presidency willing to contribute Rs. 120, per annum. The subscription for membership has been fixed rather high to avoid the difficulty of collecting small subscriptions from a large number of people and to maintain a sense of individual responsibility among the members for the financial stability of the undertaking. But we shall be happy to receive subscriptions and donations of any amount, though, if they fall short of the sum of Rs. 360, they may not entitle the subscriber or donor to a voice in the management of the Fund. Persons paying a donation of Rs. 1,000 can become life-members. I may add that Dewan Bahadur K. Krishnasawmy Rao and myself have each subscribed Rs. 1,000, the amount payable for a life-membership. Any gentleman who wishes to support the Fund may communicate with me for any further information about it that may be desired.

P. S. SIVASWAMY AIYAR.

Mylapore, 4th Feb.

At a meeting of the Council of Native Education, held on Friday, the 20th January, under the presidency of Dewan Bahadur K. Krishnaswami Rao, it was resolved to send a memorial to the Director of Public Instruction. The following is the text of the memorial by the Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswamy Iyer, the Secretary of C. of N. E.:

SIR,—I am desired by the Council of Native Education, Madras, to bring to your notice certain defects in the system of Lower Secondary Education now in force in the Presidency. It has long been felt both by educationists and by the public that the results of the present system of Lower Secondary Education are unsatisfactory and that boys who have gone through a course of instruction in the Lower Secondary Schools do not possess any real knowledge of the subjects which they have been taught and are not fully qualified to undergo a course of instruction in the Upper Secondary classes. The annual heavy slaughter of candidates in the Matriculation Examination of the University is a clear indication that the majority of the boys who have entered upon the High School course have done so without a sound previous training. Among the many causes of this unsatisfactory state of things a prominent place must be given to the method generally adopted in Lower Secondary Schools of imparting instruction in non-language subjects through the medium of English. The pupils who attend the Lower Secondary classes are boys of tender years and do not possess sufficient knowledge of English to be able to understand English text-books in non-language subjects or to benefit by any instruction in such subjects through the medium of the English language. The books which they read convey no ideas to them and they are obliged to cram the books prescribed, or badly written notes and com-

pendiums. That the system is faulty and requires to be changed is admitted by most people who have had any experience of the system of Education or of its products and there can be no more weighty condemnation of the evils of the system than is contained in paragraph 26 of the recent resolution of the Government of India, dated 14th March 1904.

It may be pointed out that in the Educational Conference of 1899 in Madras, it was resolved that vernaculars should be the media of instruction in Lower Secondary schools. I may also state that the Council of Native Education addressed a large number of school-masters and other gentlemen interested in education with reference to this matter and they find a practical unanimity among the persons consulted as to the necessity for adopting the vernaculars as the medium of instruction in non-language subjects. Notwithstanding this unanimity of opinion, English still continues to be the medium of instruction and no steps have been taken to bring about a reform. It is a matter for surprise that even the Managers who voted for the resolution at the Educational Conference, have not adopted this strongly advised course in their schools and that Government has not followed the course in its own training schools which the Department of Education directly manages. The circumstances which appear to stand in the way of the change appear to be the following:—

(1) The desire of parents that their boys should receive instruction in English from as early an age as possible.

(2) The fact that instruction through the medium of the vernaculars in non-language subjects has not been made compulsory by the rules of the department.

(3) The alleged want of suitable text-books in the vernaculars.

(4) The fear that if any change is made in the system it will lower the standard of knowledge in English among the boys.

It is true that the large majority of uneducated parents desire their boys to begin the study of English as early as possible but this cannot affect the introduction of the reform, provided all schools other than European or otherwise requiring exceptional treatment like some of the schools in the City of Madras are compelled to make the vernaculars the medium of instruction. So long as the rules of the department do not prohibit the use of English as a medium, there will be schools bidding for popularity by professing to teach even non-language subjects through the medium of English. As between two rival schools one of which adopts English as a medium of instruction and the other which adopts the vernaculars, there is no doubt that parents will send their boys to the former school in preference to the latter and the school which provides instruction through the vernaculars will find itself at a disadvantage and all its well-meant efforts in the way of sound education will be liable to be frustrated. But if the department makes it compulsory upon all schools to adopt the vernaculars

as the medium of instruction the wishes of parents cannot stand in the way of carrying out the change.

As to the alleged want of suitable text-books, we think that there is no great difficulty in finding appropriate text-books in the vernaculars. Even if there are no suitable text-books available at present, if rewards are offered by the department for good translations of suitable text-books, they are sure to come into existence in two or three years. If proper translations have not yet been published of suitable text-books, it is because there has been no demand for them and no encouragement to translators. If the change is to be postponed, till there are suitable books in existence and if suitable books are not likely to come into existence until there is a demand for them, there is no possibility of introducing a change at all. We believe that sufficient encouragement in the shape of rewards has not been offered to induce people to come forward with translations of the necessary text-books. Notwithstanding these disadvantages there have been a fair number of translations published and the time has come to make a new departure. The last reason given is considered by some people as one of importance but we cannot share this view. The cramming up of ill-understood English text-books on miscellaneous subjects taught not as text-books in language, but merely as books of information is not calculated to improve the knowledge of the English language possessed by the students. Notwithstanding the fact that the present system has been in force for a great number of years, the results have been far from satisfactory. It is said that if English is abandoned as a medium of instruction the attainments of the students in English will be even worse than they are now. On the other hand we think that a great deal of the energy of the pupils which is now wasted in getting up books without understanding the contents can be set free and utilised for the acquisition of a better knowledge of the English language. If necessary, more books may be prescribed in the English language and as these books will have to be taught as language lessons, the students are likely to acquire a more correct knowledge of the language. Our proposal does not in any way involve the abandonment of English as a language subject. English should be taught as a language even in the Lower Secondary Department and if the students are obliged to read more text-books in English as part of their language lessons, it may be safely predicted that there will be no deterioration in the standard of knowledge of English possessed by the students. The obstacles which have stood in the way of a change can all be easily removed and a change may now be safely made. The steps which in our opinion should be taken for this purpose are (1) the issuing of rules by the department rendering it obligatory upon all Lower Secondary Schools to teach non-language subjects in the vernaculars and upon the inspecting agency to hold the examinations in such subjects also in the vernaculars, (2) the holding of the Lower Secondary Examination (so long as it may yet be held) so far as these subjects are concerned in the

vernaculars even in the case of those candidates who bring up English as their first language, and (3) the encouragement of translations of suitable text-books by means of rewards. We hope that in the interests of sound education and in furtherance of the policy laid down by the Government of India, you will be pleased to take steps to introduce these desired changes at as early a date as possible.

I have the honor to remain

Sir,

Your Most Obedient Servant,
Secretary to the Council of Native Education,
MADRAS.

TRAVANCORE.

The following Resolution and Notification have been published by Mr. V. P. Madhava Rao, C. I. E., Dewan of Travancore:—

His Highness the Maharajah has recently had under consideration the question of improving the educational methods which are at present followed in schools in Travancore.

2. The educational system established in Travancore provides, as in other parts of India, for instruction in stages which may be classed as Primary, Pre-Collegiate, Collegiate, and Post-Collegiate or Special.

3. It is observed that while the Primary stage more or less completely meets the needs of those who merely require the rudiments of education the Pre-Collegiate stage, including Middle and High Schools, being designed for those who wish to enter the University and being thus of an almost exclusively literary character, affords no facilities and is in fact unsuited to the increasing number who wish to take up pursuits—commercial, industrial, or practical—which are more closely connected with the ordinary concerns of life. It is also observed that under the present system the memory is cultivated at the expense of the understanding, that very little is done to stimulate and strengthen powers of observation and that neither dexterity of hand nor appreciation of magnitude and form receives that attention which it deserves whether regarded as an educational method or an educational aim. Further the Government of His Highness see signs on all sides of an awakening to the necessity for improvement in the existing educational methods particularly in their application to practical ends, and feel that it is their duty to make provision for meeting the needs of the people in this direction.

4. The absence of facilities for training in the first, and the non-employment of an admittedly powerful educational method in the second of these cases, are defects which Government are desirous of seeing remedied: first, by the introduction into a certain number of schools of those methods of manual training which have met with success in America, Europe and Japan; second, by the establishment of schools in the curricula of which these methods, with suitable adaptation to local conditions

will form an important feature along with branches of instruction designed to meet the deficiencies already indicated.

5. The system which it is thus intended to introduce will have its due effect in the cultivation of those aptitudes and faculties which at present receive no attention and if it were carried no farther would have a high value as an educational method. But Government have also in view its utility as the basis for a farther scheme of technical instruction which it is intended to introduce later.

6. The first step in the direction indicated will be taken immediately. His Highness the Maharajah has been pleased to sanction the deputation of two graduates to America in order to undergo courses of instruction in the methods of manual training and in the organization and management of schools which employ such methods. They may also have to visit the chief manual training and technical schools in America Europe and Japan. On their return, they will be employed in organizing schools on the lines already indicated and in training teachers for such schools. They will be given scholarships for this purpose and their travelling expenses will be paid by Government. The terms upon which these scholarships will be given are detailed in the Notification accompanying these Proceedings.

7. Government wish to emphasise one point with regard to the selection of the persons whom it is proposed to depute for this purpose. The success of the measure, towards the introduction of which the preliminary steps are now being taken, will depend largely upon the extent to which the responsibility imposed upon them is realized by the persons selected. What the Government expect to find in them is earnestness of purpose and a sense of the importance of the mission on which they are sent. In addition to the general educational qualifications required it is necessary that the persons selected should possess alertness of mind, capacity to assimilate new methods of instruction and considerable powers of organization. With these considerations in view, Government will closely scrutinize the past history and career, as well as the other qualifications, of candidates for these scholarships.

NOTIFICATION.

I. Under sanction of His Highness the Maharajah, scholarships will be given to two graduates, selected according to the terms notified below, to enable them to undergo courses of instruction in America in the methods of manual training and to visit the more important manual training and technical schools in America, Europe and Japan. On their return, they will be employed under Government in the organization of similar schools in Travancore and in training teachers for such schools.

II. The scholarships will be of the value of £200 per annum and all travelling expenses will be borne by Government. It is expected that the time occupied by the different courses of instruction and by visits to schools will be three years.

[Feb. 1905.]

III. Candidates for these scholarships must fulfil the following conditions:—

(a) They must be born subjects of His Highness the Maharajah.

(b) They must have taken the B.A. degree in Mathematics or Chemistry and Physics.

(c) Their age must exceed thirty years at the date of application.

IV. Before making a final selection Government will obtain the opinion of the Medical Board, on the physical fitness of the candidates whom it is proposed to select.

V. No person will be selected who does not bear an unimpeachable character.

VI. The persons finally selected will have to enter into an agreement with Government embodying the terms upon which the scholarship is held and the conditions on which it will be forfeited.

VII. Applications for these scholarships should be addressed to the Dewan of Travancore and should reach him not later than 15th March 1905. Each applicant should furnish the fullest particulars regarding his name, address, age, parentage, qualifications, and his presents and former occupations. Certificates which relate only to the respectability or character of the applicant need not be forwarded. Government will make the necessary enquiries on these points.

BENGAL.

His Excellency the Chancellor of the Calcutta University is pleased to nominate the following gentlemen to be ordinary Fellows of the University:—Khan Bahadur Maulavi Mahomed Yusuf, B.L.; Rev. A. Neut, S.J.; the Hon. Mr. Justice R. F. Rampini, M.A., LL.D.; Lieut.-Colonel R. H. Charles, M.D., M.C.H., F.R.C.S., I.M.S.; Rai Rajendra Chandra Sastri, Bahadur, M.A.; Mr. Harinath De, M.A., M.B.A.S.; Shams ul-Ulama Mirza Ashraf Ali.

An indication of the want of interest that is now being displayed by Bengalis in the teaching of Sanskrit, is found in some figures in the Report of the Director of Public Instruction in Bengal. Mr. Pedler states that the number of advanced schools teaching Sanskrit is steadily decreasing. Four years ago 1,191 such schools were returned; by last year the number had fallen to 974. Similarly the pupils attending have fallen from 10,617 to 8,370. The schools referred to are not recognised by Government, and it is probable, says the *Englishman*, that a certain number of pupils have been transferred to public institutions; but Mr. Pedler appears to regret the gradual disappearance of the unrecognised schools because many of them uphold an ideal of learning for its own sake which has been lost sight of in many more advanced institutions.

THE Lieutenant-Governor presided at the annual distribution of prizes to the pupils of the Boarding

School and Hindu Girls' Schools of the Women's Foreign Mission of United Free Church of Scotland held on Saturday the 4th February, in the School premises, Cornwallis Square. Lady Fraser gave away the prizes. Speaking about the decision of the House of Lords in the Scottish Church Case, the Lieutenant-Governor said:—There are four grounds the correctness of the judgment of the House of Lords. The one is that it is, to a certain extent at least, attributable to what men called accident. But the case, after he had pronounced his opinion but before he had written his judgment, the decision of the Law Courts of Scotland would not have been reversed on appeal. And again but for the fact that the most distinguished lawyer in Scotland, the late President of the Court of Session, had already given his opinion in favour of the United Free Church, and was therefore unable to replace Lord Shand when the latter died, Lord Shand's death would still have left the decision in favour of the United Free Church. The reversal of the decision of the Scotch Courts may therefore surely be attributed to a strangely unfortunate accident in the death of one distinguished Judge and the inability of another Judge (even more distinguished) to take his place. Another ground on which it seems reasonable to dispute the accuracy of the decision of the majority of the Lords is the immense weight of legal opinion against it. The Judges in Scotland were unanimously of the other opinion; and those of the seven Lords who differed from the Lord Chancellor and the majority are men of whom lawyers certainly do not speak with contempt. My third ground is that the theological statement by the Lord Chancellor is one dealing with the interpretation of the standards of the Presbyterian Churches of Scotland, and is not only viewed with astonishment by the vast majority of Scotch theologians, but has also been repudiated by the leaders of the small section of the Presbyterian Church in whose interests it was made. The fourth ground is that the decision is due mainly to a mistake in fact, not in law. Although we may not be able to accept all the ecclesiastical principles which have been laid down in the judgments of the Lord Chancellor and his colleagues, yet the great general principle of law which lies at the basis of the diverse judgment is one which we accept, namely, that the mind of the donors should rule the administration of a trust. What we hold is that the Lord Chancellor and his colleagues made in this respect an extraordinary and deplorable mistake of fact.

THE Research Scholars named in the following list have been re-elected to hold their scholarships of Rs. 100 a month for another year:—

1. Babu Bhabesh Chandra Banerjee, M.A.—Hindu Philosophy, with special reference to *Mimamsa* Philosophy—Sanskrit College.

2. Babu Hem Chandra Sen Gupta, M.A.—Mathematics, with special reference to Practical Astronomy—Presidency College.

[Feb. 1905.]

3. Babu Satish Chandra Upadhyaya, M.A.—Physical Science, with special reference to the effect of the transmission of electric waves or X-rays in electrolytic solutions, or the connection between plant and human life—Presidency College.

4. Babu Anukul Chandra Bose, M.A.—Study of moisture in the atmosphere and the behaviour of Clarke's cells in India—Presidency College.

NEW SCHOLARS.

THE following graduates have been granted Research scholarships of Rs. 100 a month each for one year, with effect from the 1st February, 1905:—

1. Babu Naresh Chandra Sen Gupta, M.A.—Philosophy, with special reference to the subject of Idealism (with Pantheism), its forms, history and its place in the history of thought—Presidency College.

2. Babu Bipin Bihari Das, M.A.—Physical Chemistry, with special reference to (1) the molecular conductivity of very dilute solutions of acids, bases and neutral salts; (2) dissociation of substances in mixtures of water with various alcohols, etc.—Civil Engineering College, Sibpur.

3. Babu Satish Chandra Mukerjee, M.A.—Chemical affinity with special reference to the electrical state of nascent gases—Presidency College.

THE Committee appointed by the Local Government to consider the question of introducing commercial education at the Presidency College has drawn up a curriculum containing compulsory and optional subjects which it recommends should come into force not later than June. The Bengal Government has decided not to offer any scholarships in commercial subjects, in view of the reduction which it has sanctioned in the fees payable at the College. The Committee has approved of the proposal that local examinations should be adopted in preference to the London Chamber of Commerce examinations. They suggest that the setting of the papers for the examinations should be left to an Examination Board to be constituted for the purpose on which educational officers and representatives of the Bengal Chamber of Commerce and the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce should sit; that the certificates given by the Education Department to students who pass the examinations should be endorsed by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce; and that the Bengal Chamber and the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce should be requested to publish lists of the successful examinees. The Bengal Chamber of Commerce has chosen as its representatives on the examining body, Messrs. E. Henry, J. B. Lloyd and F. H. Stewart. While the Government of Bengal has declined to lead the way in the direction of offering prizes and scholarships, it has intimated its willingness to permit such inducements to be offered privately. So far the only firm to avail itself of this permission has been the Remington Type-writer Co., which offers three gold medals to the students who acquired the highest efficiency in type-writing. The Committee of the Bengal Chamber approves of the scheme in its final

shape, and considers that if the classes and examinations are taken advantage of by students "a great improvement will take place in the attainments of clerks available for mercantile employment."

A MEETING of the Senate of the Calcutta University was held at the Senate House, College Square, on the 27th Jan.; Mr. A. Pedler, Vice-Chancellor of the University presided.

Sir Guru Das Bannerjee then moved the following resolution:—"That having regard to the fact that the Provisional Syndicate has been constituted in contravention of Section 12 cl. (p) of the Indian Universities Act, 1904, this meeting cannot consider its recommendation."

Mr. Justice Pargiter moved as an amendment: "That the consideration of the proposal be deferred until a judicial decision had been arrived at regarding it, and that in the meanwhile the Senate do carry on the current business of the University." This amendment was carried by 36 to 22 votes. Then the meeting was adjourned for a week.

The adjourned meeting of the Calcutta University Senate was held on the 3rd February. A letter from Sir Andrew Fraser, the Rector, was read, apprising the Vice-Chancellor that a Bill to validate the earlier proceedings had been introduced into the Supreme Legislative Council, and suggesting that the Senate might therefore proceed to business. Notice of a motion on the subject of the Syndicate election had, however, been sent in by Mr. Sinha, and the Vice-Chancellor asked whether he wished to press it. With somewhat precipitate readiness Mr. Sinha withdrew his motion, whereupon Mr. Pedler found himself in something of a difficulty. Having previously stated that Mr. Justice Pargiter's amendment—to the effect that the Senate do proceed to the current business of the University—should be made the substantive motion before the meeting, the Vice-Chancellor then suggested that it should be withdrawn, for the purpose of clearing the way. It was pointed out that the amendment had already been put to the vote and passed; that by accepting it the Senate had resolved to proceed to business; that under these circumstances it could hardly be withdrawn, even if there were any necessity for withdrawal. Nevertheless, the meeting allowed Mr. Justice Pargiter to withdraw, and the Senate, without having formally resolved to proceed, began upon the orders of the day. This quaint procedure was followed by a pathetically ludicrous scene. It had been proposed that the Syndicate be authorized to draft regulations in respect of certain matters provided for in the Act. On the ground that the present Provisional Syndicate was in certain respects unsatisfactory, Sir Guru Das Bannerjee moved that this important duty should be entrusted, not to the Syndicate, but to a Committee of the Senate consisting of thirteen members. The amendment was carried, the nominations were made, and the Senate proceeded to ballot for the election of the

Committee. This perfectly simple business, owing to the cumbrous machinery in vogue at the University, occupied—according to Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukerji's calculation—exactly 53 minutes. Hence all that was possible after it was over was the rapid clearing off of a few non-contentious items of business and the further adjournment of the meeting until Wednesday (the 8th) next.—*Statesman*.

On Wednesday afternoon the adjourned meeting of the Senate was held at the Senate Hall. Mr. A. Pedler, Vice-Chancellor of the University, presided.

The Revd. Father Lafont withdrew the following notice which stood in his name.

"That in view of the fact of the abolition of the Faculty of Science, the two representatives of that Faculty, who were elected on the 17th of December last, have no *"locus standi"* in the Provisional Syndicate; I beg, therefore, to propose that the Faculty of Arts, elect two of their Members in order to bring the number of their representatives to five, on the Syndicate."

The Vice-Chancellor said that the statement which had been made by Father Lafont was most satisfactory and he was sure that they would now avoid the chance of anything like a long discussion.

Mr. Arden Wood moved that the following recommendation of the Syndicate be adopted:

The Syndicate to recommend to the Senate (1) that a Committee of seven members and the Registrar be appointed to draft Regulations in respect of the matters referred to in Section 25, Sub-section (2), Clause (e) and (f); and (2) that the Committee consist of the following members:

The Vice-Chancellor, Dr. P. K. Ray, Sir Guru Dass Banerjee, Mr. N. N. Ghose, Mr. G. W. Kuchler, the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Ashutosh Mookerjee, the Hon'ble Mr. Justice J. G. Woodroffe.

Moulvi Seraj-ul-Islam seconded the resolution which was then put and carried.

After several other items, the Registrar then laid before the Senate applications from Akroy Kumar Sarkar and Abinash Chandra Guha praying that as their names have been removed from the rolls of the Medical College on account of their failure at the 1st L. M. S. Examination, they may be permitted to appear at the ensuing 1st L. M. S. Examination without further attendance at lectures.

The Vice-Chancellor having explained the circumstances under which the two students applied for leave to appear at the examination, Major Drury moved the application of Akroy Kumar Sarkar be rejected as he had failed thrice and be, in consequence, removed from the Medical College.

Rai Chuni Lal Bose Bahadur in seconding the above took exception to the Senate's encroachment upon the privileges of the Medical College authorities. The learned Doctor submitted that this would be subversive of good order and discipline and tended to weaken the influence of the Principal of the College. He deeply sympathised with the applicant, but thought it his duty although a very unpleasant one to oppose his application. He then gave details of the candidate's case and contended

that it did not deserve a sympathetic consideration of the Senate.

Dr. Nilratan Sircar in supporting the application, said that the interference of the Senate in that particular would in no way be subversive of discipline and finally tried circumstantially to rebut the statements offered by Dr. Chuni Lal, thus trying to make out a case for the applicant.

Lieutenant-Colonel Ranking said that impartially speaking, he did not think the applicant deserved any sympathy. He failed thrice, thus showing his utter incapacity to pass the examination. If in course of successive attempts, he happened once to squeeze himself through he would not surely be a very valuable addition to the ranks of the profession. He could only pass by cramming in which natives of the country very much excelled.

Sir Guru Das objected to the expression "natives excelling in cramming" of the last speaker. The latter he said, had in trying to oppose a solitary instance generalized his view and applied it sweepingly with respect to all natives of India. This he protested against.

Lieutenant-Colonel Ranking disavowed any intention for reflection on any body. What he meant to say was that "the natives of Bengal had marvellous memory" and that "no European could ever compete with them in that respect."

After some further discussion Mr. S. K. Ratcliffe moved as an amendment that the application be referred to the Faculty of Medicine. It occurred to him that two questions were involved in the discussion: one about general principle and another about personal justice. It was quite likely that they were wrong in their reviews with regard to either or both.

Father Lafont seconded him. The amendment was then put and carried by 34 against 21 votes.

Dr. Nilratan Sircar proposed with regard to the second applicant, Abinash Chandra Guha, that his application be rejected.

The application was then by a majority of votes rejected.

The meeting then separated.

The second meeting of the Central Council of the Association for the Advancement of Scientific and Industrial Education of Indians, was held at the Town Hall, on Friday, the 10th February, at 1 p. m.

The Resolution on the adoption of the Report was first passed. Next was carried the resolution with regard to the accounts of the Association from 1st September 1904 to 31st January 1905 (Receipts Rs. 10,949-2-9; Disbursement Rs. 914-3-9). The Budget for 1906 was passed with an estimated income of Rs. 79,200 and an estimated expense of Rs. 19,610.

The Secretary then laid on the table the report of the Special Committee for selecting candidates for education in foreign countries which had been adopted by the Executive Committee.

The following young men have been elected for scholarships for industrial education in foreign countries: Gopal Ch. Sen, M.A., Manufacturing

THE PUNJAB.

To Mr. Archbold, the newly chosen Principal of the Aligarh College, was due the creation of the Appointments Committee which has in recent years become an important body in Cambridge University, and which has for its object the selection of men for employment after leaving the University. Mr. Archbold will not be able to join his appointment in Aligarh until the 15th October, 1905, because he is at present engaged upon a work on *French History* for the University Press. The *Pioneer* thinks it is not probable that any Government appointment would have tempted to India a man so fully and usefully employed in his own University: but the reputation won for Aligarh by its two first Principals has become the means of assuring the College a continuance of its good fortune.

At a meeting of the Senate of the Punjab University on the 30th January, a discussion arose on the assertion that the constitution of the Provisional Syndicate, Punjab, is illegal and *ultra vires*. The objector maintained that under the Universities Act the Chancellor had no power to create Provisional Faculties for electing Provisional Syndics and the objection made in Bombay had been, he understood, upheld by the Advocate-General.

Mr. Wright said that the proceedings in Bombay differed from those in the Punjab inasmuch as the Syndicate of the Punjab had been elected at a meeting of the Senate, though by Provisional Faculties, whilst in Bombay the Faculties had met in separate places and at separate times.

Mr. Robson said that nothing was irregular or illegal in the procedure adopted in the Punjab, inasmuch as it was quite in consonance with the practice hitherto in force regarding the election of the Syndicate.

After considerable discussion the majority adopted a resolution to the effect that, in the opinion of the Senate, there is no flaw in the election of the Provisional Syndicate, and should it be found hereafter that there was some legal deficiency in the Senate, steps would be taken by Government to remedy it in the usual manner.

About a recent affray between two football teams in Lahore, the *Mahratta* makes the following remarks:—"But now when a Missionary College of Lahore complains against an aided College of the same place, we mean the Dayanand Anglo-Vedic College, of an offence not more serious than that in any of the two previous cases, we find the Tournament Committee, not content with excluding two of the supposed offenders for two years and the D.A.V. College itself for one year from the tournament actually recommending them to the Syndicate for rustication for two years from University examinations. It is a matter of common practical wisdom that elders should not identify themselves with the quarrels of youngsters; and whenever the maxim is disregarded the consequences are bound to be serious. It is no doubt bad discipline for boys

Chemistry (Edinburgh and Germany); Satish Ch. Das Gupta (B.A. with honour in Science), Manufacturing Chemistry (Edinburgh); Kailash Nandi, B.A., B.L., Assistant Engineer, Mining and Electric Engineering, (New Castle-on-Tyne); Innu Bhusan De., B.A., Agriculture (America); Kailash Pati, B.A., (Bihari Hindu), Weaving (England); Basaratuddin Abdul Tahir, B.A., Tanning (America); Dharendra Kumar Roy, B.A., Pharmacy (Edinburgh); Sheo Prasad B.A., Weaving and Lace-work (Japan); Lalit Mohan Sen, Mechanical Engineering (Glasgow); Sitauath Saikhe, Oil Industry and Agriculture (France); Shish Chandra Guha, B.A. (Japan); Mujiruddin Ahmed, Silk and Matches (Japan); Jugendra Prasad Bose, printing in Sasi Pada Gupta Printing and Soap, (Japan) Matches and Enamel; Mohesh Chandra Roy, (Orissa), Silk (Japan); Purna Chandra Roy., Glass (America).

Babu Jogendra Chunder Ghose proposed that the Indian Industrial Association and the Society for the Encouragement of Indian Arts and Manufactures be incorporated with this Association.

Raja Peery Mohan Mookerjee proposed an amendment for the formation of a Sub-Committee for the consideration of the terms of amalgamation.

The amendment having been put was carried.

Babu Jogendra Chunder Ghose next proposed that the resolution of the Executive Committee accepting the terms of settlement offered by the Utkal Conference be confirmed.

It was duly put and carried.

The Resolution that a Sub-Committee be appointed to frame the trust-deed and to consider and report after taking legal opinion whether the Association should be registered, was next put and carried.

Roy Sita Nath Roy Bahadur next proposed that a Committee be appointed with powers to add to consider what steps should be taken for furthering the following purposes:

- (1) Formation of Joint-Stock Companies for starting necessary and profitable industries.
 - (2) Establishment of a Bank for promoting native industries.
 - (3) Establishment of a Polytechnic.
 - (4) To ascertain the present condition of indigenous industries and what can be done for their improvement.
- Seconded by Mr. A. Chaudhuri, it was put and carried.

CENTRAL PROVINCES.

The Government of India have sanctioned the creation of a Graded Service for Teachers in High and Normal Schools in the Central Provinces. The graded appointments will comprise nine classes, ranging from Rs. 250 to 300 per mensem, and compensation, in the form of personal allowances, will be granted to the present incumbents of the posts when the pay is temporarily reduced.

engaged in sport to turn it into a riot. But such things may happen; and the proper punishment for an offence committed on the field of sport is the exclusion of the individuals concerned from the field. But, when we find boys recommended for rustication from University examinations, the next step would be rustication of whole College classes, or eventual temporary disaffiliation of the whole College or dismissal of its Professors to save such disaffiliation. The worst of it all is that in a contest like this the aided Colleges will have as a rule to go to the wall, while Missionary and Government Colleges may escape lightly. Such a situation is fraught with danger; and we may hope the Punjab University Syndicate will wisely and resolutely set its face against taking any cognisance of the invalid recommendations made by the Tournament Committee. The seeds of jealousy thus sown will otherwise fructify; and the whole system of holding inter-collegiate tournaments will irredeemably suffer. The Lahore Tournament Committee has evidently assumed arbitrary powers, and the first thing that the Educational Department have to do is to see that the powers of these Committees are clearly stated."

THE Secretary of State for India having sanctioned the appointment of an additional Inspector of Schools on the Indian Education Service in order to open a sixth Circle of Inspection in the Punjab Province, it is notified by the Under Secretary to Government, Home (Education) Department, that, with effect from the 2nd March 1905, a sixth Circle of Inspection, with head-quarters at Amritsar, will be opened. The re-arrangement of Circles of Inspection in the Punjab will therefore be as follows from that date :—*Delhi Circle*—Consisting of the Hissar, Rohtak, Gurgaon, Delhi, Karnal and Ambala Districts; *Jullundur Circle*—Consisting of the Jullundur, Ludhiana, Ferozepore and Hoshiarpur Districts; *Amritsar Circle*—Consisting of the Amritsar, Gurdaspur, Kangra and Sialkot Districts; *Lahore Circle*—Consisting of the Lahore, Montgomery and Simla Districts; *Multan Circle*—Consisting of the Multan, Lyallpur, Dera, and the other districts of the Punjab, although a very unpleasant one. The Secretary then gave details of the case and contended

The following circular has been sent, by the Under-Secretary to Government, Punjab, Home (Education) Department to all Commissioners, Deputy Commissioners and Inspectors of Schools in the Punjab:

"I am directed to inform you that, in view of the necessity for a large increase in the number of boys and girls in receipt of a primary education in the Punjab, His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor has ordered that, as far as possible, no important village or central locality, should be without a Primary School of some sort. His Honour has, therefore, been pleased to sanction the opening of additional Primary Schools in all the Districts in the Punjab, as noted in the accompanying statement.

2. The Schools will be under the control of District Boards like the other Primary Schools, but the expenditure on their maintenance will be met from Provincial Revenues.

3. During the current financial year the expenditure will be met by reduction of 20 per cent. contribution from Local to Provincial Revenues, and the Accountant-General is being addressed by the Chief-Secretary to place the sums noted in the margin at the disposal of the various District Boards. The money will be sent on the maintenance and equipment of these schools, and the Deputy Commissioners are requested to direct the District Inspectors of Schools to submit a detailed account of the expenditure to the Director of Public Instruction through the Inspectors of Schools."

The total number of Primary Schools to be opened in the Punjab as suggested by the Inspectors of Schools is 816, of which 580 are ordinary, 1 Zemindari, and 235 indigenous; of this 816 Schools, 703 are Boys' and 113 Girls' Schools. The total cost is Rs. 1,22,676.

THE following circular letter is issued from the Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental Educational Conference Office, Aligarh, by Mr. G. Gardner Browne:—

In the recent Conference held at Lucknow it was decided to raise funds for the establishment of a Conference Office and permanent staff at Aligarh in order that the work of the Conference might be carried on throughout the year.

The following throughout the year.
scholarships for a small sum of money was raised
countries: Gopul O. to commence work at once.

Foreign Notes.

MR. J. CHURTON COLLINS, M.A., has been appointed Professor of English Literature in the University of Birmingham.

MR. RICHARD PEYTON has given £10,000 to endow a Chair of Music in the University of Birmingham; and Sir John Holder, a member of the University Council, has offered £1,000 towards the purposes of the Chair.

SIR DONALD CURRIE has given £25,000 to the University of Edinburgh, mainly for the remuneration of a staff of lecturers. The University appeal for funds has brought in some £15,000 more for laboratories and research.

THE University of Chicago has received 2,500,000 dollars from its munificent benefactor Mr. J. D. Rockefeller, to found a School of Engineering. Mr. Rockefeller will also provide buildings.

THE late Mr. G. T. B. Wigan bequeathed to the University of Cambridge £9,000, the interest on which is to be devoted to the promotion of scientific education and research.

MR. T. CASE, M.A., Waynflete Professor of Moral and Metaphysical Philosophy, has been elected President of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, in succession to the late Dr. Fowler. Professor Case graduated from Balliol, and was afterwards a Fellow successively of Brasenose and Corpus. In 1864-5, he played in the Oxford XI.

"THERE is a tendency to deery holidays," Professor Armstrong remarked in his speech on child study at the Liverpool Conference "but I think holidays are a very good thing. It is very important, in my opinion, to give children a fallow period. I think we are at the present time exerting considerable over-pressure on our children, especially in connection with this cursed examination system."

INCREASED Treasury grants to Universities and University Colleges are shown in a minute just issued. Manchester is to have £6,000 a year (£2,500 increase), University College, London, and Liverpool £5,000 each (£2,000 increase), and Birmingham £4,500 (£1,800 increase). At the bottom of the list come Southampton with its grant raised from £1,000 to £1,700, and Dundee, which is only to receive £1,000, the same amount as last year.—*University Correspondent.*

A GERMAN Rhodes Scholar criticises Oxford in the *January Cornhill*. The strictness of the discipline, the importance of athletics, and the absence of study are the three things that seem to have impressed him most. While admiring the cult of athletics he regrets the fact that "the Oxford student has little time to pursue his scholarly education." This is the more unfortunate because "the young Englishman's acquirements are slighter than is usually the case in Germany," and his ignorance is often "really astounding." The "unchanging menu" of the College dinner also evokes the German critic's disapproval.—*University Correspondent.*

SIR W. ANSON speaking on the scholarship question referred to the phrase "educational ladder," saying that "if the metaphor meant that the whole purpose of education was advancement in life, to move out of one class of school into another and higher, and that the whole object of education was to serve personal advancement and ambition, that was a view he would always contest and repudiate. He thought the definition of the purpose of scholarships which represented that they were for the benefit of the community, to sift the various types of ability among the young, and to secure to the community that every child developed its abilities to the best advantage, was the correct one, and that which stood for the true purposes of the scholarship system." The Board of Education, he made it clear, did not propose establishing school scholarships from its own resources.—*University Correspondent.*

It does not require a deep philosopher (says the *Journal of Education*) to discover how easily and readily a nation or an individual is corrupted by a system of doles. Free education looks as if it were to become the forerunner of free meals and free clothes. The loafer always prefers to wait feebly for philanthropic aid rather than make an effort on his own account. It is to be hoped that the scholastic profession is not yet demoralised to this extent. The abolition of fees for elementary education, the lowering of fees in intermediate schools, the large increase in State grants the unanimous cry from local authorities for increased aid in behalf of training colleges—all these seem to have aroused the idea that the State is a benevolent parent whose pockets are to be picked by a mixture of cajolery and playful force. The pernicious and illusory notion is abroad that because the State pays two-thirds of the cost of training the primary teacher it ought to do at least as much for the secondary teacher. By an insidious and indirect wind this result might be reached if teachers trained in elementary colleges were permitted to teach at once in secondary schools without being considered to have broken the pledge given to the State. If the status of a teacher in a secondary school is ever to be one of dignity and weight, he must prepare himself at his own cost for his profession; under any other circumstances salaries will indubitably be lowered, with a corresponding lowering in the position and the power of the teacher.

•The Educational Review.

The Madras High Court decided last January that the surplus funds of the temple may be devoted for the following—among other—purposes: (1) The establishment of a Sanskrit College in Lower Tirupati to be called the 'Sri Venkatesvara Sanskrit Vidyasala,' with a Library attached, and with suitable buildings, inclusive of residential quarters for the teaching staff and students; (2) The distribution of prizes annually to persons professing proficiency in the one or other of the various Hindu Shastras. As much as 24,000 Rs. may be devoted to the first, and 12,000 to the second object. 3000 Rs. a month on the average is no mean addition to the resources of enlightenment at the disposal of the Hindu community. If the scheme suggested by the Judges should be properly worked, it would be fruitful of the greatest good. We are free from the narrowness that would suppose that any particular language has the exclusive key to culture. The study of Sanskrit and of its literature on proper lines must make as much for enlightenment and broadening of sympathies as the study of English. It is the spirit of instruction that gives the necessary ply. In modern Oxford it was possible for Gladstone to grow up without the Socratic temper—as Mr. John Morley complains he did. It was possible in ancient India for a Kapila to cultivate the daring spirit of speculation in rather unpromising surroundings. With two thousand rupees a month and twelve thousand rupees reserve force for prize distribution to the Pandits, excellent arrangements can be made for the proper cultivation of Sanskrit. Will it be too subversive of established things, are we

likely to bring down the heavens about our ears, if we suggest that while arrangements are made for efficient instruction on the traditional lines, there must be supplementary instruction on the lines of modern historical research. May not the Pandits grow into savants under proper guidance? They are not so impervious to new ideas, they are not so slow to learn as generally thought. We can this moment mention a Tamil scholar who has laid the world of literature under great obligation by his excellent editions of perishing Tamil classics, and who but for an accident might have lived in one of the mutts and added somewhat perhaps to the recondite poems we already have in Tamil to be conned over only by a few enthusiasts. He came in contact with gentlemen who had received Western culture and encouraged by them he has easily assimilated new ideas and the new critical spirit. The Tirupati Vidyasala may possibly bring out many Sanskrit scholars who under unfavourable circumstances might die mute and inglorious, but who in favouring conditions might do for Sanskrit what Pandit Swaminatha Aiyar has done for Tamil.

If the principle of the decision in the Tirupati case should be followed generally what a scope for the cultivation of scholarship there would be! Why should not Universities like Oxford and Cambridge grow up after all from such beginnings? These had their origin in similar religious foundations. We need not be too sanguine. Alnaschar has furnished us with a warning. We shall wait and see.

If the Hindu Community has had an access of strength to the cause of culture from the Madras Judges' decision, the decision of the House of Lords on the Scottish Church case has all but threatened

The Scottish Church Case and the Christian College.

the efficient progress of the Madras Christian College. What enviable position the Madras Christian College occupies in the educational work of the Presidency its worst unfriends must admit. Thanks mainly to the personality of Dr. Miller, the College has been advancing from strength to strength. Its relation to the Church and the Mission work, Dr. Miller explains in the evidence he gave before Lord Elgin. "The College was in many ways the centre of the whole extensive Mission of the United Free Church in Southern India, and would indirectly suffer greatly if the work of that Mission were destroyed or in any way impaired.....If the South Indian Mission of the United Free Church were seriously damaged, that Church would not, perhaps could not, continue to the College the active sympathy and pecuniary help which were indispensable to its maintenance, so that what was admittedly one of the most powerful agencies for good of many kinds among a population of nearly 50 millions might eventually be ruined." Again "the separate position of the College was authorised by the Free Church in 1876, after sanction by the General Assembly of the previous year and the approval of the Church Missionary Society and of the Wesleyan Missionary Society." The aim has been, Dr. Miller says later on, to make a United College embracing all Churches interested in education in Southern India. As many fresh streams meet in one salt sea, many a Mission School has this purpose of contributing to the strength and growth of the College. Though in India, the evangelising work of the College has to be kept in the back ground, it had to be brought prominently forward in Dr. Miller's evidence. The College's "success as a Christianising influence, which was its chief end," required a close and living connection with

* The italics are ours. Ed.

a large Church, able (1) to continue the large subsidy which is the mainstay of its finance, (2) to supply from its youth a sufficiently of men of high training and Christian purpose and (3) to carry on the oversight and maintain the interest in its welfare." What fore-thought, what organising powers have been shown by the Missionary agencies! All the resources developed by men of such forethought and organising powers the House of Lords would hand over to the legal Free Churchers, men admittedly incompetent to carry on the work so successfully carried on by the larger body. If the decision should be upheld by the Royal Commission, all but the property of the incorporated College would have to be given up. Deprived of the older portion of the College and the Anderson Hall, the institution would be in a bad way and there might be rejoicing among the Philistines. But we expect the Commission would decide equitably and in harmony with the spirit of the original trust deed.

We have been quoting from Dr. Miller's evidence because it helps to understand the octopus-like growth of the institution.

The lesson of the development of the Christian College will not, it is hoped, be lost on the friends of education. The need for organisation and co-operation will be seen to be imperative for success. Especially is it so with regard to the indigenous institutions. Is the Council of Native Education going to do something in the matter, something better than what it has hitherto done, memorialising the Government?

We congratulate the Association on its growing popularity as evidenced by the attendance at the last annual meeting of a number of younger men who have recently

joined the Association. We are specially pleased to note the whole-hearted way in which some of our retired officials devote themselves to the good work of popularising its work and promoting its usefulness. We learn that a scheme for the establishment of a Girls' High School is to be shortly submitted. The delay was due to the absence of Miss Carr from Madras. The work of the year was very satisfactory compared with that for the previous year. Things must be hopeful indeed for the education of girls and women in this Presidency when an orthodox Hindu gentleman like Dewan Bahadur V. Krishnama Chariar expressed himself thus: "Unfortunately under the present educational circumstances of the country, Indian mothers had to be educated through their daughters, and the daughters themselves left school at the age of eleven. . . . The question was whether they should be allowed to leave schools after learning a little reading and writing and go home and forget what little they had learnt. The important problem was how to get their grown up daughters to continue their studies after leaving school and to keep up the taste for reading and extend their knowledge." The President Mr. Justice Benson referred to the good work the Association was doing in promoting friendly feelings and social intercourse between Europeans and Natives and commended the services of Mrs. Brander and the business capacity, energy and tact of the Secretary, Dewan Bahadur P. Rajaratna Mudaliyar. We congratulate the Association on its past year's successful work.

The Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society had its centenary celebrations from the 17th to the 20th January last.

It has been doing in Bombay the work which properly worked Universities have been doing elsewhere, encouraging research work and focussing the intellectual activities of the scholars. Among its workers were scholars like Forbes, Mountstuart Elphinstone and Malcolm and the latest meeting of the Bombay Branch shows that the lead of such scholars has been well followed. There were papers relating to Sanskrit, Arabic, and Persian scholarship. Historical and Science sections were not behind hand in their activities and the reading of the report of the proceedings has had a cheering effect on us and scholarship and sound learning seem to have found a congenial soil in Bombay. We do not feel competent to appraise the papers read at the meeting but we will venture to invite the attention of Mr. Karkaria to the common-sense views of Harry Hotspur on the subject of portents.

Not long after the Bombay meeting, the Bengal Society held its annual meeting. The President in the course of his address referred to one of the principles that regulated the formation of the Library: that it should aim at completeness in all publications relating to Asia in conformity with the society's name. This is a principle that may be advantageously followed by all libraries so that each library might aim at forming as complete collection of books bearing on the province or district it ministers to, as is possible for it to get together. Then the library may extend its range if funds should permit. One alluring prospect the President held out to the Indian student and that was as the members of the Government Services were less and less able to find leisure for such oriental studies and as they had very few inducements in this direction, the Indian

[FEB. 1905.]

student had the field of distinction clear before him. We have heard of the Edinburgh Reviewer's cultivating literature upon a little oatmeal and why shouldn't the Indian scholar cultivate historical and other researches upon the little rice and curry he can manage to get. He must have plenty of leisure as he is not likely to be wanted for the services and there is no danger of his growing overfat on his earnings. Here are alluring prospects.

The Viceroy referred to the shrinkage of the area of research and said that the work of the scholars in future must be the comparatively prosaic one of filling up the details of the framework constructed by the earlier students. A foreign scholar writing to *The Friend of India* says that there is no reason to adopt Lord Curzon's gloomy view of the prospects of research. In the East of Asia, in China, Japan, Java and Malaysia there are fruitful fields of historic work. In the world of artistic investigation, Java offers a virgin field. Javanese monuments are products of Hindu artistic genius. The influence of the Indian epics can be traced on the sculptured walls of the temples. Properly equipped students have but to go, see and overcome. Will friends of Indian research arrange to send duly qualified men to the East that is calling?

We make no apology to our readers for our dwelling on the work of such societies. We are of opinion that the successful working of these societies will serve as a safe test of how far the new spirit of investigation has acclimatised itself to the different Provinces. Judged by such a test Madras seems to justify the nickname it has earned. The Literary Society calling itself an Auxiliary of the Royal Asiatic Society has sunk to the position of a circulating library and reading-room and its annual

meeting is a severely business-like one of receiving the annual report and electing the managing committee. But in the earlier days there were papers read and a journal published and something done to justify its name. Other times, other views.

What a boon would it be—an alphabet 'understanded' of all Indians! Mr. Justice S. C. Mitra (in a paper read at the Calcutta University Institute and published in the *Hindustan Review*) advocates the adoption of the Sanskrit Alphabet in the Devanagari character. We call the attention of our readers to Mr. Mitra's suggestion as the adoption of any such common script would tend to bring together the people of India by helping them to understand each other with less effort than now. We have heard the Telugu Alphabet commended for the purpose as it would tend to easy and rapid writing. We should like to have the pros and cons thoroughly discussed and a common understanding arrived at. We are not sanguine that because a reform approves itself to reason it will therefore be immediately acted upon. But nothing tends to promote a reform so much as keeping it constantly before men's minds, familiarising them to it and making it look less uncanny than it did when first introduced. Many of the objections to the phonetic reform of the English Alphabet cannot apply to the syllabic system obtaining in India. The only labour that such an adoption of a common script will entail will be a complete reprinting of the different literatures in the common character. That is a labour Herculean enough to cool the enthusiasm of the reformer. But we think so highly of the gain likely to result to India as a whole from the adoption of this reform that money

and trouble spent on this account cannot be reckoned ill-spent.

Nothing succeeds like success and Japan having tremendously succeeded in almost the only way the West is prepared to recognise success now-a-days, it was inevitable that Japan should be brought in 'to point the moral' in many an address. Dr. Pedler could not clinch the argument in favour of scientific training more effectively home to his audience than by referring to the recent triumph of Japan. He drew a comparison between the system of education prevailing in Japan and that prevailing in India. The comparison was of course to the advantage of Japan. The superiority consists in greater concentration of studies, thoroughness and fruitfulness of work, and adaptation of the courses of study to the practical needs of life. We may grant the desirableness of reforms in the directions indicated. But there is danger lurking in generalities. What does Dr. Pedler want? Does he want fewer colleges, those few highly equipped and made inaccessible to a large number of Indian youths by high fees; more men to train themselves in science and not to pursue literary and historic studies? We wish very much that more men should study science than do so now. We should welcome the principle that the courses of study should be adapted to the practical wants of life. Education, we have been saying, must make us fit for the work of life. Anything like the following of that will o' the wisp of learning for learning's sake is a snare and a delusion. But we think that the theoretical and literary courses that Dr. Pedler so much discountenances are as necessary for complete living as the training in science. The studies

The Vice-Chancellor's Address—
Calcutta Convocation.

must be broadly based on the humanities and on that basis there might be a superstructure of science. For the profession of law—the *bête noire* of officialdom—the theoretical studies are the most essential elements. For the profession of teaching they are no less essential. Even the science teacher would be so much the better teacher with a proper equipment of the so-called theoretical study. For success in technical professions any literary or historic or philosophic culture may not be requisite. But as we require men more than machines we should have a due culture in the humanities for all. Even for success in the technical studies of the special sciences, the training in the theoretical studies has been found favourable. With regard to concentration and thorough work, if the words mean that we must have a levelling up, we must welcome the suggested improvement. If they mean, "Close certain of the existing schools and colleges, and have a few residential colleges of the sort existing in Oxford," we should deprecate the improvement. Japan is a small country and the few colleges it has will serve its needs. India cannot be content with a small number. If the present colleges should be doubled, that would hardly meet the needs of the people. But that is a view which does not find favour now. A reference to one other point of the address and we shall have done. Referring to the system of education pursued till recently Mr. Pedler put the question, Has the education given raised the individuals receiving it to sufficiently high intellectual level, and has it made them better citizens, better men, more self-reliant, and men capable of advancing the interests of the empire? The answer according to him is a disappointing negative. Even Lord Curzon and Sir Thomas Raleigh admitted that the educational system they were going to reform

had improved men and made them better citizens and as what they have stated confirm our own impressions on the matter we prefer to believe them. As the new system follows pretty much the old lines till recently followed we do not see how the miracle is to be effected of the utterly useless, inefficient Universities being made into thoroughly efficient, and wonderfully useful bodies? If cucumbers cannot yield sunbeams, will their concentrated essence do so?

The trouble began in Bombay and it was in connection with the choice of the provisional Syndicate. The Chancellor directed that the different faculties must choose their respective Syndics. Objection was raised by an influential body of Fellows that the Chancellor's direction was wrong in law. A formal protest was lodged and when the protest was brushed aside a suit was launched in the Bombay High Court. The hardship that provoked this course was that many Fellows who had done the active work of the University as members of the Arts Faculty were relegated to the limbo of the Law Faculty and the directions of the Chancellor had the effect of keeping some distinguished Fellows out of the Syndicate. We think that *pace* the official defence of the legal member of the Government of India, it was a wrong thing to have proceeded to the election of the Syndicate in the face of the protest. The Chancellor might have given fresh directions giving the Senate as a whole power to choose the Syndicate. That was done here and so far we have had no unseemly doings. We may have our share of legal proceedings but they are of the nature a moral crusade. Instead of following the straight path that was pointed out, the Bom-

bay Chancellor adhered to his original directions.

A similar course followed in Calcutta brought on a similar protest and though it was from a single member it was too weighty to be ignored.

The Government of India apprised of the threatened *impasse* in University administration has adopted the heroic remedy of validating the acts of the Chancellor. We are of opinion that the remedy was an extreme one. The Government itself has an educative function. It can teach the people respect for the law, it can 'own up' when it may have slipped and can make the people recognise the manliness of a frank recognition of lapses. The Viceroy spoke of the exaggeration of what was essentially a trivial matter. We think it was trivial but it is the legislative remedy that has raised the question to its present plane of importance. It was open to the Chancellor of Bombay to have nipped the evil in the bud, but he allowed the discontented Fellows to make a star-chamber matter of it and the Supreme Government possessed of the giant's strength of legislation has giant-like used it and the essentially trivial matter has become a question of ethics, a question of politics.

It was not so very long ago that Sir Thomas Raleigh left these shores be-praised by the Viceroy for having piloted safely through the Universities' Act and placed it on the statute-book. We are sorry to learn that this piece of legislation instead of being the flawless chrysolite, we had been led to think, it was, turns out to be a bungled up piece of business, the gold being contributed by Sir Thomas

and the clay being a local supply. It was for the golden portion we take it that that the late legal member was mentioned as the compeer of Macanlay and Sir Henry Maine by our Viceroy who deborted the graduates of Calcutta from the sin of exaggeration. But the contributor of the clay feet was also accorded warm praise. But is any such apportioning of the praise or blame a desirable thing? Is it not a President's business to see there is no bungling anywhere? Was it in good taste to mention the matter at all?

But the attitude of the Viceroy to the Hon'ble G. K. Gokhale verged on the limits of bad taste. The mention of 'the friends outside' of the Bombay member and of the innuendo that he was playing to the gallery came with a particularly bad grace from the present Viceroy. The truest word uttered on the tone adopted by Lord Curzon in his reference to Mr. G. K. Gokhale is the query in *The Friend of India* (16th February), "Shall the young Indian be true to his country, his nationality, his practical ideal, and then, in striving to embody his truth in earnest conflict for his fellows, be prepared to meet and content to accept such anger and scorn as that which the Viceroy of India condensed into his reply at the Council Board to the Government's ablest, most independent, most patriotic opponent?"

If the President of the Council offended against the proprieties on the preceding day, the Viceroy's Convocation Address. Chancellor of the University threw justice and fairness to the winds on the succeeding day. Conceived in irritation and delivered in ill-temper, Lord Curzon's address to the Calcutta graduates was an unpardonable insult to the Indian peoples. We were

XI

reminded, as we read the accusation of Indian character, of the famous passage in *Sakuntala* where one of the young ascetics who formed the escort of the simple forest-maiden rebukes the king in a tone of irony for suggesting doubts as to her truthfulness:

Hold in contempt the innocent words of those
Who from their infancy have known no guile;
But trust the treacherous counsels of the man
Who makes a very science of deceit.

The situation by no means furnishes a fair parallel, nor are the words justly applicable to the present instance; but the quotation strikingly expresses the shock that our sense of the fitness of things receives when we see a statesman and diplomatist reared in the atmosphere of European party politics preaching on the virtue of simple and straight adherence to the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth. The severest censure of Lord Curzon's indiscretion, however, is furnished by himself in a passage quoted from his book of travels in the East by the *Amrita Bazar Patrika*. For ourselves we have no patience with those who have gone about ransacking our ancient writings for ideal conceptions and actual embodiments of Truth. It appears to us to betray a nervous anxiety not quite consistent with true dignity to be so easily put on our defence as a nation, and to be ready, as soon as an aspersion is cast on our character, to open a packet of testimonials from all and sundry, much like a discharged domestic seeking to be re-employed.

The long-expected order of Government on the new school at Nega-patam has at last come. The National High School, Nega-patam makes queer reading. Two different minds seem to have directed the pen of the unlucky draftsman, and the result is a piece of composition which is forced and un-

intelligible. After two or three attempts at interpretation we were able to make out (1) that Government will not recognise the school till about September next; (2) that Government may recognise the school about that time, if in the interval the Committee of the school do not pursue the same methods as they adopted at first, if they do not overstep the limits of legitimate competition, if they prove the necessity for three high schools in the town, if they satisfy the other conditions of recognition, and if they further fulfil the conditions that may be prescribed regarding buildings and fees. These *ifs* make up a formidable list, and it is no wonder that the promoters of the school feel more anxious than ever during this period of 'trial.' But they seem to be nobly rising to the occasion, for we are informed that, since the order was received in Negapatam, there has been a steady flow of donations towards the funds of the school which now amount to Rs. 22,000. Truly good cometh out of evil.

Government is rightly solicitous of the welfare of existing educational institutions. It rightly insists in the case of new ventures on guarantees of stability, efficiency and fair competition. Nobody desires a restoration of the conditions that prevailed in Secondary education before the University resolved to recognise schools for the purpose of its Matriculation examination. But we contend that the attitude of Government towards new schools must be one of sympathy, welcome, and encouragement. Neither in quality nor in quantity has Secondary education reached a stage where we may rest satisfied. There is still enormous room for expansion in this field. No policy is sound which takes it for granted that there are quite as many Secondary schools as are needed, that sets up a mechanical and inflexible test of the

educational needs of a locality, and that exacts from new institutions extraordinary standards which some of the institutions long recognised and aided by Government have not reached. Government blames the Negapatam School Committee for precipitancy, overbearing, and want of consideration for existing institutions. We presume that Government is in possession of definite facts to support such charges. But they are not all before the public. That the Committee took into their service several masters from the old schools of the place is indeed a questionable proceeding, and we are sure they will be ready to acknowledge the error. But we are not able to follow Government when it says that the new school has drawn all its boys from existing institutions. We wonder what else is possible. Surely Government does not expect the influence and efficiency of a school coming into existence to be powerful enough to attract pupils from other localities or to bring the need of education home to people in the locality hitherto indifferent to it. Still less do we understand the position of Government regarding the notice to the authorities of the old institutions. What sort of notice is meant? Is it a polite challenge to them to quit the field? Or a request for their blessings and support? In the present instance the promoters of the National High School began their preparations some months before it was actually started, and they had further negotiated fruitlessly for the transfer of one of the existing schools. The previous consent of the Department is also for the first time declared necessary. This, however, is a very objectionable doctrine. What can the Director say beforehand of a mere proposal to start a school? The promoters cannot give any but vague promises and plans of work, and the Director can only talk of chances and possibilities and unascertained

local needs. If he encouraged the proposal, he would be disavowing existing institutions; if he threw cold water on it, he might be stifling healthy educational growth.

But hidden away amidst these charges and reproaches is a clear enunciation of Government's sympathy with indigenous effort in education and its appreciation of the movement in favour of religious and moral instruction. The Negapatam people must also be gratified to find that their aims and intentions are not misunderstood and that their public spirit and sacrifice have not been ignored. It is true the approbation is feeble while the disapprobation is strong. On the whole, however, reading between the lines, the resultant drift would appear to give room for hope, if not for security or satisfaction. Once the *non-possumus* attitude is relaxed, we feel fairly confident that justice will follow.

We heartily congratulate the Travancore Government on the enlightened and progressive educational policy which it

has adopted. The latest fruit of this policy is the deputation of two graduates to America, Europe, and Japan to undergo courses of instruction in the methods of manual training and in the organisation and management of schools which employ such methods. The Notification, published elsewhere in this number, states the objects of such deputation. It shows a clear perception of the defects of our present system of education and of the lines on which improvement is needed. The chief aim is to give a practical turn to education, and it is sought to be attained, first, by the introduction into a certain number of schools of those methods of manual training which have met with success in America, Europe, and Japan, and secondly, by the establishment of schools in the curricula of which these methods, with suitable adaptation to local conditions, will form an important feature along with other branches of instruction.

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PART II. THE PRACTICE OF EDUCATION—TRAINING.

INFINITE trouble and skill may be shown in evolving methods of instruction, in improving text-books, appliances and so on, but, after all, "the teacher is the school for the highest purposes of education." He is the instrument and his work is very complicated. Hence, the instrument must be highly tempered, keen, well-polished. A perfect teacher must be a perfect man, his faculties fully developed and his sympathies acute and universal. All that he has has to be expended. His faculties, body, soul and spirit, his gifts and attainments, mental, moral and physical, are called into play. He is not to make himself a mere machine for the imparting of knowledge. No impression is made on the character of the pupil. It is the personality of the man that tells. He is to be the "spring of life and inspiration to his scholars." It is in him to kindle in the young mind a passion for "studying liberally, for thinking seriously, for serving gladly." His responsibility is great. It is in him to make or mar the youthful nature entrusted to his charge. Dr. Westcott, the late Lord Bishop of Durham, speaking of his master says: "It is natural that I should look back to my own master,—James Prince Stz,—the greatest, as I believe, among the teachers of his time. Happily there are some things that

never feel the touch of age. The presence, the expression, the voice, the manner of my old master have lost nothing of their vivid power by the lapse of half a century."

The influence which the teacher exercises upon the pupil is of two kinds, direct and indirect. While the ostensible business of the teacher is to impart knowledge through some medium, yet all the while he is exercising an immediate influence on the pupil, governing him by authority, and guiding him by his own example. This Dr. Fletcher calls training (*Führung*): Herbart was the first to make a distinction between Teaching (*Unterricht*) and Training which includes both Government (*Regierung*) and Guidance (*Zucht*). [Refer to Herbart's Letters and Lectures on Education, translated by Felkin].

The teacher wishes to have a direct influence on the pupil. He uses his power. He governs by authority. Some limit this only to preserving order, others bring discipline under government. With young children, it is only government, they have not the power of insight. First, it must only be unreasoning obedience. Later, it develops into intelligent and understanding obedience, which means to say the will is brought into action, and thus good habits are formed. The teacher must have recourse to discipline, if he wishes to reach the will and affect character. If only Government is used, it

may weaken character, and further, provoke a reaction, setting the will in opposition: So, Government and Discipline should go together.

There is no sharp distinction between Government and Guidance. It is only a difference of degree. Dr. Thomas Arnold emphasises the fact that the personal example of the teacher is important. He is anxiously being watched by, say, twenty pairs of observant eyes. In his manner and deportment he has to be careful and vigilant and on no account to give himself away. The child is an unconscious mimic. In the young child imitation is an all-powerful factor. Hence the teacher must be careful of the example he sets his children. It is not only in the school-room, but outside regular school-hours, the teacher can use his influence. In school societies, in joining in the children's games, in making himself not only a fellow-worker, but a fellow-companion, the teacher can make his influence felt.

By government and discipline the teacher seeks to instil certain habits in the child. He seeks to establish among the pupils, obedience, love of order and regularity, truthfulness and conscientiousness, and diligence. The psychology of these topics comes under the discussion of *Habit* as the foundation of character and as to its influence on will. [Refer to some Text-book of Psychology—Chapter on Habit.]

Obedience is the fundamental principle of all discipline. The child is restless by nature: this has to be constantly checked. Education is forced upon the child, but in the young child there exists an inner craving for obedience, and this makes it possible for the teacher to exact obedience. This depends upon the character of the teacher, who must aim at

getting a spirit of authority which is not undecided and timorous but which expects to be obeyed. There is a quietness and confidence that comes of self-discipline while sympathy and tact may be cultivated. Obedience is exacted by commands or orders, but the manner of issuing them is important. The teacher should know what he wants before he gives the order, which should be able to be performed by the child. He should give no reasons nor should he allow arguing on the part of the pupil. Implicit obedience is to be exacted. Orders should be clearly and concisely given in one's own natural voice. A loud voice effects nothing. It should be incisive, the utterance distinct and the enunciation clear. The teacher must see that the orders are obeyed. He should reduce his orders to the minimum, to only what is necessary, so as not to burden the child with useless rules.

If there is disobedience, the teacher must learn the cause and tackle it. It may be due to carelessness or heedlessness. The children might be inattentive. This is due to two reasons. The lesson may not have proved interesting enough, or it may be due to physical conditions. If the former, it lies in the teacher himself to rectify it. If the latter, it can be remedied. Faults of obstinacy and impudence call the teacher's genius or generalship into play. They should not be passed over lightly, but dealt with in an appropriate manner. If the child proves too intractable, send him out of the class, so that the attention of the others might not be diverted, and deal with him in private.

Next is the *love of order and regularity*, which is a most useful factor in discipline. Without quietness there can be no tuition. The teacher's first duty is to maintain order in the class, in everything. In place-taking there should be no confusion. In this drill is essen-

tial, specially for large classes. Punctuality is absolutely necessary not only on the part of the pupils, but on that of the teacher, specially in finishing a lesson. The master should see to the cleanliness and neatness of the rooms. The occasional inspection of desks, the appointing of one or two boys to look after the appointments of the school-room, specially in science laboratories, helps to make the children neat and tidy. The teacher must develop a habit of not working until there is perfect order. He should see that all eyes are directed on him, that there is no whispering or inattentiveness. His eye, ear and voice should be everywhere, and he should take up such a position as to command the whole class. Sometimes a sudden silence on the part of the teacher in the midst of a general hum of conversation is very effective. Disorder should be detected and checked immediately. Neatness in the matter of home-work and exercise books, in rough work in mathematics, &c., should be carefully looked after. Sometimes disorderliness is due to superabundance of animal spirits. This should be met with equal energy by the master. A bright lesson full of legitimate interest, a bright and well-modulated tone, a firm and kind manner will soon attract the attention and interest of the children.

Truthfulness in the pupils should be carefully fostered. Here the personality of the teacher himself is important. He should carry out his promises and threats, and show no favouritism which is "the sin of sins." He should assume no knowledge of what he does not know to be certain, and besides, he should show the completest confidence in his pupils, until he finds an occasion to show that it is misplaced. Lies are resorted to to escape punishment, to get out of an embarrassing

position, and in the case of young children, to imagination. Sometimes, vanity, the desire of praise, and the desire to call attention to oneself may be the cause of lying. Whatever the cause, it requires careful and individual treatment and great discretion.

To make the pupil *diligent*, the teacher himself has to work hard. In giving a new lesson, he should see that the lesson is easy and bright enough to gain the attention of the class. In recapitulating make the children work. When writing on the black-board, a child should either recapitulate or dictate. When the class is engaged in written work, progress varies, but sufficient work should be given to the more intelligent, so as to keep them engaged.

Here Dr. Fletcher gives just a few hints about home-work. Too many or too difficult home-lessons should not be given. They should bear upon the class-work, but must not be used to replace it, that is to say, new lessons should not be given for home-work.

The subject of punishment may be appropriately discussed here as it is the last resource of the teacher to enforce discipline. It is a means to work through the emotions and thus make the child better. The sense of shame must be rightly directed as it is correlative with self-respect. Punishment is used to act as a remedy to prevent the repetition of the same offence. Hence, there are different kinds of punishment. Vigilance and self-possession on the part of the teacher will obviate many of the small punishments. Look, demeanour or voice of the teacher carries punishment to the sensitive child. It should be such as to remedy the fault, *e.g.*, isolate a talkative child, make a lazy child work, &c. A universal punishment such as imposition or detention for every kind of

fault shows lack of judgment. The subject of corporal punishment has been much discussed. In former times it played an important part. Now, it is being gradually cut down. It has been said that the abolition of corporal punishment should be the ideal to which all teachers should strive. But it cannot be given up altogether at present. It is seen that the young child attaches no indignity to it. It feels that with the punishment the offence is paid for and thinks no more about it. Harmony is established again. But with more refined punishment, the irritation and remembrance of the punishment often lasts much longer. Marks, rewards and prizes are other debatable subjects. These always had a high place in the Jesuit schools which systematically developed this system. They were copied by the others, who found the method useful in creating an stimulus for work. But here comes the point: Does not this involve a principle of competition and rivalry, which will prove bad for the morale of the class? Besides, does it not make education mercenary, so much payment for so much work done? Again, don't the prizes become ends in themselves? The children think of the prizes and forget the sacredness of work. Yes, these objections are valid, but some points may be advanced in their favour. There is a good deal of drudgery in lessons, which are not a perennial source of interest. Why not make it easier and more interesting to the child by introducing the system of marking? The dangers against over-keen competition can be checked by the teacher. If the teacher maintains a high standard before them, it is a check on this danger. Rewards and the character of payment by results. But it is the result that is rewarded but the is not only how much know-

ledge the child has acquired, but how much the child has done according to his powers. Marks if properly and judiciously given are useful in helping the child to find its own level, and in a way forming a measure both for the teacher and the pupils. They are also a check on the teacher, as absolute fairness and exactness are essential in marking. They are a help to parents to judge the improvement of their children. If there is no system of marking there must be something else for instance, remarks, but this forms a vague standard. Rewards and prizes must be limited. A high standard must be taken. Thus, there is much to be said on both sides.

Dr. Fletcher recommends the following books on the subjects of Training: Laurie's Institutes (Ch. X-XV); Arthur Sidgwick's Stimulus; James's Chapter on Habit; Fletcher's Lectures on Teaching, Chapters I and IV.

H. KRISHNAMMAH.

THE MATRICULATION MISERY.

FOR years past the Matriculation examination has been the source of all kinds of scandals. Every one connected with this examination in one way or another has had some moments of pain and anxiety. At one time the questions were negligently allowed to leak out. At another time, the candidates were suspected of malpractices, and all, guilty as well as innocent, were made to undergo the ordeal of a re-examination. Then there was the scandal of the question papers being stolen and sold by a special agency. And now the University Registrar's crusade against the private candidates has thrown all other scandals into the shade. No man's honour is safe, be he a Headmaster or a Fellow. And the results of the examination during the last few years have been anything but satisfactory.

Why, of all the public tests held in this presidency, the Matriculation examination alone should attain so much notoriety must become apparent to any one that cares to know it. When, at the last meeting of the Madras Teachers' Guild, I observed that the percentage of passes in our Matriculation was far less than that in any other University examination, the Revd. Mr. Pollard met my remark by saying that the difference was due to the fact that the Matriculation candidates were inferior "in style and capacity" to the candidates for the higher University examinations, and that, therefore, the former were less able to answer well than the latter. May I request Mr. Pollard to note that the percentage of passes in the Lower Secondary examination is far higher than the percentage in several other examinations? The quality of any examination must be such that the average candidate can succeed in it. The candidate for a higher test must necessarily be superior in "style and capacity" to the one for a lower test. And what is, then, the significance of Mr. Pollard's contention? As I understand it, it is this. The examiners value the answers given by the Matriculation, F.A. and B.A. candidates by the same standard. The same quality of answers is expected by one or two examiners, and necessarily the Matriculation candidates do not come up to the level of the F.A. and the B.A. candidates. Another chief examiner observed at the same meeting that, in one subject, even greater accuracy and precision were expected from the Matriculation candidates than from the B.A. candidates. One chief examiner is said to have declared that he was determined to "weed out" all the unworthy, meaning, thereby, that he would allow none but the very best to succeed. In short, very unfortunately, the impression is

gaining ground that the examiners in one subject are assuming almost a hostile attitude towards the examinees. Is it not a notorious fact that the University had to amalgamate Science and History because it became absolutely impossible for it to get its Science examiners under control?

In the paper which Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri read before the last Educational Conference, he conclusively proved, with evidence strong enough to satisfy a judge and a jury, that in several subjects the examiners soar far above the heads of the examinees and contended that teachers in the High School classes ought to have a voice in moderating the questions. Mr. Stone, who presided on the occasion, was not able to refute the charge; but he satisfied himself by pronouncing that High School teachers are "men of inferior capacity" and that it was not desirable to associate them with the men of superior capacity—the professors. Good taste forbids my attempting to examine whether all High School teachers are "men of inferior capacity," or how far the college professors can sustain their pretensions. However, no man, unless he is hopelessly prejudiced, can deny that he who is able to teach must be able to examine. If the High School-masters possess capacity enough to teach, how do they happen to lose the capacity to examine? I wonder how such a supposition is possible. And, surely no one will venture to assert that there are not among High School-masters men of character to be trusted with responsible positions. In this connection, I must most emphatically protest against the plea that on every examining Board there are some who were in some way or other associated with the High School department. Like all delusions, this is a highly mischievous one. How does a Professor in the College department, who merely superin-

tends the work done in the High School department, become competent to understand the real capacity of the High School pupils? Even if the Professor should occasionally teach the classes, his impression can, at the very best, be only a vague one. Again one who has taught the High School classes years ago can by no possible pretence be accepted as one that is conversant with the capacity of the boys. The notion that the Matriculation chief examiners know the capacity of the examinees is born of grievous misconception, and is kept up by blind self-love. Too much stress cannot be laid on the fact that the examiners have to understand the capacity of the examinees. Again it is argued that High School teachers are appointed as assistant examiners and that they may avail themselves of the opportunity to represent the High School standard to the chief examiners. This is surely a desperate plea for a hopeless argument. After the question paper has been answered by the candidate, of course imperfectly or wrongly from the nature of the questions, what will be the use of any representation that may be made by the High School teacher to the chief examiner? Are we to believe that the chief examiners will allow their assistants to give full marks to imperfect answers? Such a demoralizing method of rectifying a wrong should not be countenanced. But as a matter of fact I am given to understand that the assistants are only allowed to receive instructions from their chiefs, and that the orders of the Science examiner are very peremptory. Whatever may be the theories advanced against my contentions, the fact remains that the conduct of the Matriculation examination during the last ten or twelve years has been open to grave objections. Especially during the last three or four years not less than 70 per cent. of the candidates

are made to fail. No one who has a head to understand and a heart to feel will be slow to admit that a thorough and sifting inquiry ought to be made at once.

It will be readily seen that in the F. A. and the B. A. examinations more than ordinary care to pass the candidates is taken by the examiners who are themselves the professors. Of the three subjects—Mathematics, History and Physiology—a candidate is expected to take only 30 p. c. in two subjects and only 20 p. c. in the remaining. Was not this provision made because, otherwise, the Professors had to groan under the vagaries of the chief examiners in those subjects? It stands to common sense that if such a safeguard be deemed necessary in the conduct of an examination where the examiners are fully aware of the capacity of the examinees, it becomes all the more necessary in the case of the Matriculation. Again, the heroes of the Matriculation butchery, the Science examiners, invariably propose alternative questions in the B. A. Science papers. Is it or is it not because they wish to make all allowances for their vagaries? Will any Professor risk his reputation by saying that answers to three or four questions may be of the same quality and quantity? The solicitude of the Professor—Examiner for his examinee needs not a stronger proof.

In spite of all that I have said, I do not presume to be able to convince certain exalted people that the methods of the examination should be altered. My ambition is a very humble one. All that I pray for is this: The instructions given by the chief examiners to their assistants should be made public property. It is inconceivable what trade secrets the examiners can have. Why should they be confidential? Surely the examiners are

not afraid that their instructions will not bear publicity. Then why should they object to it? Do they raise the standard of the answers to be given to such a high level that they tremble to face the music after the publication? If the courts of justice be allowed a jurisdiction in the matter, the illegality of the secret raising of the standard will be brought home to the examiners. If the instructions given by the chief examiners to their assistants be made public, all the masters will have an opportunity of knowing what sort of work is expected of them. It is not a little deplorable that year after year, the masters should be doing their work without knowing how to enable their boys to meet the whims of a particular class of examiners. When in the paper referred to above Mr. Srinivasa Sastri made this demand, Mr. Stone said, "The teachers ought to give up the appalling habit of considering their work as a preparation for the Matriculation examination....Owing to this habit, they had become incapable of thinking of their proper work." In a University whose only work is to hold examinations, in the Educational Department whose only standard of judgment is the percentage of passes, this is downright cant; and I have neither the time nor the patience to notice this remark seriously. However, I must ask Mr. Stone and those who think with him, why so much importance should be given to securing a high minimum in every subject. He said that failures were largely due to this. Did he ever try to remedy this defect? Surely, it will be a very useful reform if the minimum in each subject be done away with. If a boy should secure a certain percentage of the aggregate number of marks, he must be declared to be fit to enter the sacred precincts of the College classes.

I have consulted several responsible gentlemen about the advisability of publishing the instructions given by the chief examiners; and the opinion seems to be almost unanimous in favour of it. Mr. J. A. Yates says that he is in favour of publishing reports by chief examiners. How does this greatly differ from my demand? If a question is obscure and is not answered by a large number of candidates, the chief examiner in indicating the shortcoming of the answer will have to state fully what he expects. In this system it is quite open to the chief examiner to obscure his position; and, seeing how the Science examiners have impaired the public confidence it will not do to trust to the generous impulse of the chief examiner. If the instructions be published, it will go a great way to mitigate the hardship.

May I appeal to all Headmasters to join together and demand this concession? How long do they intend to groan impotently? I am sure no schoolmaster who realises his responsibility to his pupils will excuse himself from giving utterance to what he conscientiously feels. I appeal to my mofussil brethren. Will they collectively and individually make their opinions felt? The Madras Teachers' Guild is going to meet again to consider this question. Will they strengthen that body by lending the weight of their support?

C. K. GOVINDA RAU.

SCOPE OF THE LANGUAGE LESSON, GRAMMAR PROPER, AND GENERAL ENGLISH IN SECONDARY CLASSES.

LESSONS on language have only a limited scope. They have no right to hold tyrannic sway over the domain of General English or Grammar and make it their pro-

vince to give systematic and thorough instruction on the complexities of General English. Herein it is necessary to draw a line of separation between Grammar and General English. As a matter of fact, Grammar, considered in the comprehensive sense of the term, embraces within its scope all the subdivisions of General English, and the reason why so many books on General English as distinct from Grammar Proper are forthcoming and do meet with acceptance at the hands of educational experts, is that they exhibit, in a short compass, the knowledge that would, otherwise, have to be acquired through a long and laborious course of a critical study of Grammar. Considering the short time at the disposal of pupils of this examination-ridden land and the paucity of proper books on Grammar, it is incumbent on the teachers of Secondary classes to devote separate hours to the teaching of General English. This mode of separation of Grammar and General English with rather a vague explanation of their differences of scope may seem so strange to a European mind that I think I should have recourse to one illustration at least to show what I mean. Books on General English treat of the "Degrees of Comparison" at great length in an elaborate chapter for the mastery of which the pupil is forced to tax his subtle, logical powers of reasoning to the utmost. But an ordinary text-book on Grammar gives it a subordinate place and mostly omits the consideration of such subtle points. I do not, however, mean to say that expert Grammarians who have written voluminous books on Grammar do not insert, in their books, a sound exposition of the so-called points of General English, but I wish to remark that such books, being far above the comprehension of pupils of Secondary classes, are practically sealed books to them. Hence

the need is so urgently felt of the labours of an expert schoolmaster who selects and arranges the materials at his disposal so judiciously as to be within the comprehension of the average pupil.

Having thus drawn a forced and, in my view, a practically correct distinction between Grammar and General English, I next proceed to define and limit the scope of the language lesson. The language lesson comprises within its scope the following (1) Explanation of words, phrases and sentences; (2) Peculiarities of structure and idiom; (3) Peculiarities of Grammar and (4) Subject-matter. I am inclined to think that there is no scope for controversy as regards the first, second and fourth points, but the expression "Peculiarities of Grammar" is so vague that no language lesson, however perfect it may be, can possibly be said to be exhaustive in reference to this matter. The truth is that the language lesson, to be perfect, need not enter thoroughly into an exposition of points of Grammar in all cases where the passage to be taught furnishes examples. It follows then, that the language lesson rather tends to test the pupil's knowledge of Grammar and General English and impress the information on his mind than pretend to give a sound and elaborate exposition by itself. Some schoolmasters are of opinion that the so-called subdivisions of General English as distinct from Grammar Proper may be systematically and thoroughly taught in the course of the language lesson aided, no doubt, by separate lessons on Grammar Proper given with the aid of approved text-books on Grammar. I dissent from this opinion. To support my view of the case, I give, for the present, only one illustration with the certainty that such instances may be easily multiplied. Let us revert to "Transformation of the Degrees of Compari-

son". According to my view of the case, a separate lesson must be given, the different models of transformation should be taught at the same time and the subtle distinctions and peculiarities thoroughly impressed if, at all, the teacher wishes to give unity and completeness to the lesson.

According to the opposite view, the teacher has to trust to mere chance for examples, and when once the language lesson furnishes him with an opportunity of teaching a particular model, he is debarred, by the limited scope of the language lesson, from digressing into a thorough exposition of the complexities of such transformations. In that case, the lesson tends to be illogical, incoherent, and unimpressive.

The next question to be settled in reference to the language lesson is the right method to be followed by the teacher in his attempt at making a judicious choice of examples in the text-book to elicit from the pupils the "Peculiarities of Grammar and General English" and impress the same upon his mind. Herein it is necessary to classify the "Peculiarities of Grammar and General English" under certain concise headings. It is needless, in this place, to attempt an elaborate classification which can be found in books on Grammar and General English, but what I wish to point out in reference to the language lesson is that the teacher should elicit from the pupils such peculiarities as he has recently taught during Grammar and General English hours. To make my statement clearer I shall have recourse to one illustration. Let us suppose that the teacher is going on with "Conjugation" in Grammar Proper. In that case, he will do well to teach in General English the "Transformation of the Active into the Passive forms and *vice versa*" for the proper un-

XI

derstanding of which a knowledge of Conjugation is indispensable. Further, it is necessary that, in the course of the language lesson, he is ever on the watch to find out proper examples of these kinds and to make use of the same for testing the pupil's previous knowledge. It would be an interesting and instructive piece of work to build up a graded system of lessons by having recourse to certain definite text-books on Grammar and General English. But it must be borne in mind that the selection of such text-books must be made with very great care, and the teacher has to pitch upon that chapter in General English for the proper understanding of which the portion taught by him in Grammar Proper is of considerable help. The teacher has, however, to exercise his discretion in running over tedious and unimportant portions in Grammar and dwelling, at great length, upon the more important ones corresponding to which the various chapters in General English are being taught by him side by side. As to the question, whether, corresponding to each chapter in General English, there is a special, distinctly marked sub-division in Grammar and whether the two coincide with each other in such a manner as to bring home to our minds their relationship in full detail, I cannot pronounce my opinion with confidence, and, as a matter of fact, I reserve my remarks on the matter for a future occasion. But, in this connection, it may, with certainty, be affirmed that a set of definite principles of Grammar is of special value in the elucidation of each and every chapter in General English, and that there is, therefore, much scope for making Grammar and General English go hand in hand with each other.

In short, and to recapitulate the main points at issue, I wish to assert (1) that language

lessons test the pupil's previous knowledge of General English and Grammar and do not pretend to give systematic and exhaustive instruction on the complexities of the same (2) that though Grammar and General English are theoretically synonymous, it is imperatively necessary, for all practical purposes, to devote separate hours to the teaching of each of them (3) that chapters (in General English and Grammar) closely akin to each other and tending to make the understanding of the one easier with the help of the other, must be taken up and taught at the same time and (4) that in the course of the language lesson, examples must be chosen with a view to the elucidation and practical application of the principles recently learnt in General English and Grammar.

Such a happy union of Grammar proper, General English and the language lesson will so mould the pupil's mental conformation as to evolve a healthy, rational and practically useful mind.

S. E. ISWARA IYER.

UNGRATEFUL INDIANS ?

THE Government in their order on the memorial sent by the Negapatam National High School Committee accuse that body, among other sins, of ingratitude towards the missionary agencies who have been doing educational work there for nearly twenty years. As mission agencies have been doing educational work all over India and as everywhere attempts are being made to replace these by indigenous agencies, the accusation levelled against the Negapatam Committee may with equal justice be levelled against all those responsible for such attempts. Before ingratitude becomes recognised as a peculiarly Indian vice as, on the

highest authority, lying has been, it behoves us to examine whether any and what claims the mission agencies have on the Indian communities for gratitude.

Before we can base a claim for gratitude on our neighbours we must do them a good which can be recognised by them as such. If we differ from one another as to our views of what is good there must be room for subsequent disappointment and mutual recrimination.

The logic of the Government is simple enough. The missionaries have been engaged in the work of education at Negapatam for so many years. The people of Negapatam have been benefited by the work. Hence the people must be grateful. But now they set up their own schools. *Ergo* they are ungrateful. Even as thus crudely put, the weakness of the Governmental reasoning is pretty patent. Because one has received some good from another, one does not become ungrateful because of resolving not to incur further obligation.

But the question is more complicated. It is a case where we have to take into account the overt deed and the overt or covert intention of both the parties, the one that confers and the other that accepts the benefit.

What is the object of the mission institutions in India? It is nothing less than bringing the people to Christ. No mission agency, however liberal the views of particular leaders may be, professes any other aim. As this is a point no missionary can dispute, there is no need to labour it further. A reference to Dr. Miller's evidence before Lord Elgin will suffice. The chief end of the Christian College is there avowed to be that of spreading the Christianising influence among the pupils entrusted to its charge. The work of

other colleges and schools conducted by the mission agencies is either the insidious one of spreading the Christian influence or the avowed one of converting the pupils to Christianity. The work of education is carried on as a means to this end. If education as conducted in the colleges and schools should, instead of being, as it is thought to be, helpful towards conversion, be standing in the way of the conversion of the heathen, it would be given up.

Such being the ultimate aim of the missionary, the attitude of the Hindu or the Mussulman must depend on his views on the question of conversion, as to its banefulness or otherwise, as to the efficacy or the reverse of the means employed. For this purpose we may divide the men affected by missionary efforts into three classes: *the rigidly Orthodox, the Ultra-liberal and the Laodicean.*

To the rigidly orthodox Hindu or Mussulman there can be no question as to the evil of his son's conversion to the Christian religion. He is generally one who has not had the benefit of the new enlightenment, and he has no idea of the aims and tendencies of education as imparted by mission schools. He sends his son to the mission school as being the most convenient, as the nearest and as perhaps the cheapest. What claims has the missionary on such an orthodox parent's gratitude? If he should succeed in his ultimate aim, as he might working on the callow mind of youth, the son would be worse than dead to the Indian parent. The death of the son's body the Indian may school himself to bear. But the death of the *soul*, his becoming a *pathitha*, how can the Hindu parent bear it? Perhaps the son has not been converted. He has imbibed however enough of Christian influence. He is perhaps one like Nicodemus willing enough

to visit Jesus by night. He despises the most cherished ideals of his father. What seems wisdom in the eyes of the father is mere foolishness to the son. Can the father be grateful to the missionary for giving him back such a changeling? Again, in the case where the son comes back unharmed, where he finds the new learning furnishing him guidance to purify his own ideals, where it enables him to see the shortcomings of alien religions, what claim for gratitude has the missionary? The pit was nevertheless there dug for the unwary feet. If the father is grateful, such gratitude is certainly not to the baffled would-be betrayer of youth, but to the care that there is in Heaven for the Indian, base as he is.

Take the case next of the *ultra-liberal*. He believes in something more than words that God fulfils himself in many ways and he does not believe in the claim of any particular religion to a monopoly of saving truth. The only harm he would find in the son's conversion is the special disabilities the son would incur by the adoption of the new sectarianism he might receive with baptism. To the parent perhaps there was no option in the matter. The mission school might have been the only one accessible to one of his means. He may also demur to the missionary having a claim on his gratitude. He has to choose the Mission School as a necessary evil and he can judge of people only by their avowed intentions. The fulfilment of the avowed intentions of the missionary agency would mean the break up of families and consequent misery. It is but human nature not to overflow with gratitude towards those that aim at such results.

The *Laodicean* would be pretty much in the same case as the *ultra-liberal*, so far as the question of gratitude is concerned.

The missionaries may consider that the Indian wilfully loves darkness rather than light, but that is not the question. But take him as he is. Whether he is one of the rigidly orthodox, or the lukewarm or the liberal variety, he has a bias in favour of his own religion, and in many cases he looks in impotent indignation at systematic and successful attempts made to spread a net-work of Christianising agencies under the guise of educational institutions. If the Government should, however, insist on the conscience clause being enforced, and if the missionaries should agree to the Indian youths absenting themselves in scripture hours, there would not be the heart-burning that there is now about the attitude of a professedly neutral Government. Let but the Government moot the question and the mission agencies would rouse themselves and, as at the touch of Ithuriel's spear the rebel angel revealed himself, they would state in unmistakable terms why they are here and on what condition they will pursue their educational work. And with a refinement of ingenuity, so much of Government grant, *i.e.*, ultimately so much of the people's money is given to enable the missionary to do the work that, if successful, would turn the Indian home desolate. And, forsooth, the Indian is reproached with ingratitude towards the missionary!

The Indians want to get their sons educated. In many places either because of their own neglect or of the superior organization and resources of the missionary, mission schools offer themselves as the only agencies for education. Parents and responsible guardians of youths may be aware or not of the object of the missionary. Those that are aware of the object may make light of the danger and fancy that their boys would get the

benefit of education and escape the evil of conversion. They resemble the man, R. L. Stevenson tells us of, riding in the prairie full of dry grass with a single match to light the cheroot. The match, if successfully lighted, might by a spark set the prairie on fire and the rider might have to fly for life. The match is struck without success, and the man feels devoutly thankful. Is not the rider remarkably like the Indian parent sending his son to the mission school? But whether aware of the object of the missionary or not, he cannot be expected to be grateful to the missionary and it is not human nature to be grateful towards those that attempt to wreck household peace and happiness.

K. B. RAMANATHAN.

EDUCATION IN BOMBAY, 1903-1904.

PLAGUE.

The last Report of the Director of Public Instruction for the Bombay Presidency shows how much plague has been impeding the progress of education. We hear constantly of schools being closed because of plague. The Primary Schools seem to have suffered most. The Educational Inspector, Southern Division, reports that in the Dharwar District out of 347 Local Board Schools, only 52 escaped a visitation. In Bijapur out of 236 Local Board Schools, only 28 escaped. In Belgaum out of 220 schools, 27 schools were unaffected. "These convey but a faint idea of the harm done to education. The wastage of so many precious years in the life of a schoolboy, the loss of mental and moral stamina consequent upon the frequent exhibition of death scenes, the incessant dread of one's own turn coming next; these and such other effects of a plague visitation on the popular mind cannot be discreted in the pages of an annual Report."

We gather these further details from the Director's Report.

Satara Dt.	...	230 schools closed, died 89 teachers, 2,401 pupils, 11 clerks,
Kaira Dt.	...	died 69 teachers, 1,280 pupils, 8 clerks.
Kathiawar	...	died 17 teachers, 539 pupils, 8 clerks.
Southern Division.		died 153 teachers (58 trained) 3,064 pupils, 13 clerks.

It is a gruesome picture. We need not dwell further on this. It is clear that the work of education has been carried on under very trying conditions.

NUMBER OF PUPILS.

From a comparison of the attendance returns we see that the number of colleges—Arts and Professional—has remained stationary (10 and 5) with a slight increase of 223 and 163 pupils respectively over the numbers of the last year (1902-3) 1915 and 1153. The Training Schools and Advanced Private Institutions also show an increase in the number of pupils. All other schools show a falling off in strength in spite of some slight increase in their number.

As regards the communities, the Parsis and the Native Christians show an increase and all other communities show a decline in the number of pupils undergoing instruction.

COLLEGIATE EDUCATION.

All the Arts Colleges except the Bahaudin College, Junagadh, showed an increase and this was most marked in the Wilson and Fergusson Colleges.

Mr. S. G. Sathe's work in the Elphinstone College is appreciatively mentioned and yet he has not been made Professor of Logic and Philosophy. Are we to understand that he is good only as a warming pan? The Deccan College has had to refuse admission for 170 pupils (its strength being 165) because of want of accommodation. We regret to hear that many of the pupils are not as neat in dress and tidy in their habits as may be expected. The Aided Colleges, St. Xavier's and the Wilson Colleges complain of want of accommodation. The Gujarat College

suffers from the inadequacy of the college income and desertion of students to neighbouring colleges in Native States. "The best checks on emigration," the Director remarks, "are efficiency in instruction and a healthy college life, and there is no reason why the Ahmedabad College should not hold its own against the attractions of its neighbours, for it has the advantages of an unusually good position, large recreation grounds and an excellent hostel."

Coming to Professional Colleges we find that the Government Law School is now presided over by Mr. G. S. Rao (presumably an Indian). In Bombay legal education is not the monopoly of a single college as here. There are Law Classes in Poona, Gujarat, Baroda, Bhavnagar, Junagadh, and Sind.

The attendance at Grant Medical College showed an increase. Further accommodation is needed; a Lecture Theatre for the Anatomy and Physiology classes, a Physiological and Chemical Laboratory and Residential Quarters being the most pressing needed.

The College of Science had also a most successful year and there is promise of further utility and popularity with better equipment.

SECONDARY EDUCATION.

The percentage of passes in the Matriculation Examination in the year under report was 38.5, about twice that of the Madras Presidency in the same year. The percentage of passes among private pupils was 12.9.

The University School Final Examination is now conducted by the Educational Department. Out of 449 sent from schools 220 were successful, *i.e.*, 49 per cent. Of the private pupils (605), only 99 passed, *i.e.*, 16.4 per cent. One striking feature of the Secondary education in the Bombay Presidency is the maintenance by Government of a number of High Schools, the most prominent being the Elphinstone High School, the Ahmedabad High School and the Broach High School. Many of these schools have hostel accommodation which many of the colleges in this presidency

have not yet secured. The Director says of them: "They are year by year fulfilling more thoroughly their office as Model High Schools. The staff in them is usually more highly educated and more highly trained in educational methods than is the case in other schools, the discipline is good, the attention paid to drill and games is increasing and both masters and boys are learning to realise the meaning of the words *'esprit de corps'*." Happy Bombay!

There is only one Municipal High School and the Mission Schools are comparatively few in number.

As regards Middle Schools, there is a falling off in the number of Municipal Schools from 70 to 63. The aided schools are fairly efficient, but they suffer from lack of well-qualified and trained teachers and hence the teaching in such schools is not satisfactory.

The Director anticipates that in Secondary Schools as a whole there would be considerable improvement from a judicious exercise of the large powers given to the Educational Department in regard to the recognition of schools. Bad and ill-organised schools can be made to improve on pain of having recognition withdrawn.

PRIMARY EDUCATION.

It is pleasing to learn that 'much has been done during the year towards necessary instruction of teachers in newer methods, and the reports of all the Inspectors point to the gradual infusion of a new spirit of intelligence and enthusiasm among masters which is most helpful for the future.' The work of Mr. Kuncher, Headmaster of the Karaji School, and that of the Headmaster, Hubli School deserve special praise. Mr. Kuncher hit upon quite an original method of teaching his boys native accounts. A joint stock company of boys was formed, each boy subscribing 4as. capital and writing materials were purchased. One boy kept the account of the cash sales effected, another of the stock, a third of the credit sales and so on. The invention of the Hubli

Headmaster—a small apparatus to teach notation—was an oblong dealwood box 18" x 4" with five compartments, the first consisting of units, the second of tens, &c. The units compartment consists of a few grains of pea. The second compartment contains bundles each of 10 peas. Ten such bundles made into a larger whole occupy the next compartment. Colours distinguish these bundles. A master in the Ratnagiri District makes Geography teaching lively by making each boy represent a District and rehearse the natural products and other features of his own district.

These teachers show how teaching may depart from the dreary mechanical methods of the past much to the improvement of the pupils.

The Local Boards and Municipalities to a large extent share in this educational work. It would appear that the Municipal Schools are not as satisfactory as the Local Board Schools. The difference is due to the difference in supervision. Though the remark is made with reference to the schools in Sind, it is capable of a wider application.

The Aided Schools were generally in a bad way and there was a considerable falling off in number and strength. The decrease was most noticeable in the Southern Division. The Mission Schools are more stable in character than other Schools. They are largely maintained for the benefit of the backward classes.

FEMALE EDUCATION.

The Bombay Presidency is far ahead of this presidency with regard to this matter. The High School at Poona is in a very flourishing condition; The Zoroastrian School, the Empress High School, Chandanvadi; and the Young Ladies' High School, Bombay, do good work as also the Irish Mission Zenana School at Surat.

Though fewer than Boys' Schools, the Middle Mission Schools, have been attending to the educational needs of the Presidency.

The account of Primary Schools for Girls is, according to the Report, fairly hopeful and it is becoming more and more apparent that Girls' Schools are now accepted by the people and female teachers for them are in great demand.

MUHAMMADAN EDUCATION

is making a slow and steady advance and more candidates are coming forward every year for the professional and higher education and the Muhammadan Girls' Schools are not only becoming more common but also more efficient. The Director thinks that the Mussulmans are awakening to a sense of the necessity of adequate education.

Steady attempts are being made to increase the efficiency and further the development of the Normal Schools of the presidency as on their successful work depends to a large extent the future of Primary and Secondary education. The work of professional education, industrial, technical engineering, &c, has not been neglected.

The year has been on the whole one of educational activity and progress in spite of the adverse circumstances under which the work has been carried on. The acknowledgment by Government of the energy, ability and courage with which the Department has been administered by the Director and his officers seems to have been well merited.

COMPULSORY GREEK AS A NATIONAL QUESTION.

The Endowed Schools Commission recommended in 1870 the exclusion of Greek from the regular curriculum of the Second Grade Schools in England. The recommendation has been acted upon. There is in consequence a breach of continuity between the older Universities and the Schools for the middle class youth of England. The abolition of Greek at present can affect only the large public schools (as that in Nottingham.) The newer Universities—the outcome of individual liberality do not make Greek compulsory. The result of making Greek compulsory would

be that the older Universities make it impossible for boys of the smaller Grammar Schools to resort to them and they shut out also the possibility of being endowed by those who promote the modern side. Such a cutting off of the numbers and resources of these Universities is not to be welcomed. Their severance from the national spirit and their diminished opportunities of guiding that spirit must be regretted.

The multiplicity of knowledges has made thorough many-sided scholars rare. But what is lost in thoroughness is made up by breadth of sympathy and outlook. The ideas and methods of the intellectual world is being assimilated. This, united with strengthening of character, is cultivation. He who has it will be a good citizen and will radiate wholesome influence all round. Education as distinct from cultivation differs as means from end. Education consists in acquiring the required minima of knowledge in various subjects as also in the intellectual intercourse of various minds, where every one contributes the point of view and gets the leading notions of his subjects and curiosity and love of ideas are kept alive by friction. All this is possible without Greek.

The insistence of Greek is due to the error that because scientific method is ultimately Greek, therefore Greek must be studied. Similarly you can make Hebrew compulsory because the spiritual culture can be traced to Hebrew literature.

Again it is a narrow view that would confine the term humanities to Greek and Latin literatures. Dante, Moliere, Goethe, and Shakespeare, have not these humanising influences? The educational argument that the study has a disciplinary value will not apply, for, in the Universities, the preparatory training is presupposed and the undergraduate must be in a position to appreciate literary beauty. The retention of Greek presses particularly on the pass man and his burden must be lightened.

The attractions of Greek literature are strong enough to invite a number of scholars to devote themselves to such studies and the abolition of

compulsory Greek will not be detrimental to real scholarship.

Such an abolition will on the other hand tend to keep the Universities in touch with the modern tendencies and will keep them in the position they have been throughout occupying—of giving the educational lead to the nation.

Summarised FROM PROF. J. WESTLAKE'S ART.

(*The Nineteenth Century*, FEB.)

Mr. Churton Collins writing on the same subject in the *Fortnightly Review* recognises the inutility of enforcing the study of Greek on the Science men. But with regard to those who take up the Humanities, the study of Greek must be a *sine qua non*. No degree must be granted unless a competent knowledge of Greek is shown. The bifurcation of studies must be thoroughly recognised and there must be the B. Sc. as well as B. A. degrees, just as there are the D. Sc. and D. Litt. degrees. While absolving all Science men from a compulsory knowledge of the language it will not do to absolve the Arts men. An appreciation of literature, history or philosophy will not be worth the name without a knowledge of the Greek language and literature. The giving up of Greek will lower the standard of the culture of the Universities and they will sink to the level of the newly sprung provincial Universities.

THE TATA SCHEME.

PRESENT STATE OF THE PROJECT.

A mass of important correspondence in relation to the proposed Tata Research Institute has been published by the Home Department of the Government of India. It opens with a letter from the Home Department to the Government of Bombay, dated May 7th, last year, and is summed up in the following letter from the same dept:—

From H.H. Risley, Esq., C. S. I., C. I. E., Secretary to the Government of India, Home Department, To—The Secretary to the Government of Bombay, Educational Department, No. 156, dated the 28th February, 1905.

With reference to the correspondence ending with your letter No. 2010 of 31st October, 1904, I am directed to convey to you the following expression of the views of the Government of India on the subject of the Indian Institute of Science associated with the name of the late Mr. J.N. Tata.

2. A concise history of the lengthy and intricate negotiations relating to the Indian Institute of Science is given in my letter No. 281, dated 1st May, 1903. In paragraph 20 of that letter the Government of Bombay were requested to refer the difference of opinion that had arisen in respect of the valuation of the properties in the city of Bombay which make up the endowment offered by the late Mr. Tata to a single arbitrator of high position, who should have power to call in, for advisory purposes only, two assessors, one nominated by Mr. Tata and the other by the arbitrator himself. In the Bombay Government letter of 11th May, 1904, the Government of India were informed that Mr. G.R. Lowndes, Barrister-at-Law, had been appointed as arbitrator. The enclosures of that letter comprised (1) Mr. Lowndes's award on the question of the valuation of the properties, (2) his report on a guarantee offered by Mr. Tata of the stability of the income derived from them, and (3) his report on the scheme of management proposed for the properties concerned. The award shows that the eighteen properties there enumerated may be counted on to yield an income of Rs. 1,25,000, subject to the condition that the properties numbered 14, 15, 16, 17 and 18 are dealt with in the manner specified in paragraphs 2 to 5. In the extract from his letter of the 13th August, 1903, which forms one of the enclosures of your letter of the 11th May, 1904, Mr. Lowndes explains the basis upon which his valuation was made and refers to the late Mr. Tata's willingness to guarantee an additional income sufficient to secure that the income derived from the properties in question shall never fall below Rs. 1,25,000. This matter of the guarantee fund is dealt with in Mr. Lowndes's report of 3rd March, 1904.

It will be seen that the fund provides Rs. 4,500 for repairs, Rs. 2,500 for management, collection, general establishment and fees to a board of management, Rs. 550 for the possible deficit in respect of Candy House (No. 14), and Rs. 500 for a possible decline in the rents of No. 18. The fund will consist of the rental of the late Mr. Tata's Khar Road Estate at Bandora, which is to be conveyed by him to the trustees of the Institute and leased back by them to him on a 99 years' lease at a fixed rent of Rs. 8,421 per annum; Rs. 8,000 representing the net income and Rs. 421 five per cent. for cost of management. With this additional guarantee the Government of India are prepared to accept the valuation of the properties as sound. They also approve of the proposal in paragraph 7 of Mr. Lowndes's report of 3rd March, 1904, that the guarantee should hold good for a period of ten years only. At the end of that term there should be a readjustment, to be settled by arbitration, with the object of securing that the assigned properties shall continue to yield a clear annual income of Rs. 1,25,000. The only point that is not touched upon in the correspondence is the question of charges for insurance, and the Government of India would be glad to be informed how this matter stands.

THE ENDOWMENT PROPERTIES.

3. The scheme for managing the endowment properties is explained in Mr. Lowndes's report of 2nd March, 1904. His proposals are:—

(a) That the actual management should be entrusted to Mr. Tata or his representatives;

(b) that it should be controlled by a Board of three members, one being Mr. Tata or his representative, one a merchant of high standing to be nominated by Government, and the third, who should be President, either the Chairman of the Improvement Trust or the Collector of Bombay;

(c) that the Board should be quite distinct from the governing body of the Institute itself. In your letter of 11th May, 1904, the Government of Bombay expressed their approval of the scheme of management, but observed that they would prefer that Government should not be restricted to the selection of a particular officer for the post of Chairman of the Board. The Government of India accept the view that the Chairman of the Board should be such officer resident in Bombay as the Local Government may from time to time appoint. In the last paragraph of your letter of 11th May 1904, the Government of Bombay inquired whether the Government of India were prepared to accept the principle of guarantee and the draft scheme of manage-

XI

ment with the modification as to the nomination of the Chairman referred to above. They stated that the Government Solicitor had been asked to prepare a draft vesting order and was examining the title of Mr. Tata to the properties selected by Mr. Lowndes. They added that Mr. Tata had been requested to submit the necessary application for vesting the properties in the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments. When the correspondence had reached this stage and the proposals of the Bombay Government were under consideration the Government of India were informed of the death of the late Mr. J. N. Tata. In my letter of the 1st June, 1904 they expressed their condolence with his family and the Indian public, and inquired what would be the effect of Mr. Tata's death on the scheme for founding an Institute of Science initiated by him. In your letter of 31st October, 1904, the Government of Bombay forwarded a proposal by Mr. Ratanji J. Tata, on behalf of himself and his elder brother Mr. Dorabji J. Tata, offering to transfer the properties to the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments on the terms recited in paragraph 19 of my letter of 1st May, 1903, namely:—

(a) that in the event of the Research Institute being brought into existence within one year of the transfer by legislation assented to by the Messrs. Tata the properties should be vested in the governing body of the Institute;

(b) that in the event of such legislation not being obtained within that time they should be transferred to a trust for some purpose of public utility, the constitution and objects of which would be laid down by the Messrs. Tata.

Annexed to this was an opinion by the Advocate-General of Bombay to the effect that the executors of the late Mr. Tata have power, to carry out his scheme, to apply for a vesting order under the Charitable Endowments Act, and to give and secure a guarantee fund of Rs. 8,000, and generally to carry out the terms of Mr. Lowndes's award which represents an agreement between Government and the testator the terms of which are binding on its executors.

DIFFICULTIES REMOVED.

4. The outcome of the correspondence reviewed above is that, so far as the endowment properties are concerned, the difficulties referred to in paragraph 19 of my letter of the 1st May, 1903, appear now to have been removed. A competent body of experts has pronounced these properties to be worth Rs. 1,25,000 a year, the value originally assigned to them by the late Mr. Tata; a guarantee fund has been provided to maintain the

23

income at this level; and a satisfactory method of managing them has been discovered. The Government of India have thus been placed in a position to formulate, in a more definite shape, than has hitherto been possible, their intentions as to the settlement of the further questions which arise in connection with the formation of the Institute. They accept Mr. Lowndes's valuation of the properties which it is proposed to assign for the purposes of the endowment. They also agree to the proposal relating to the guarantee fund subject to the remark made above regarding insurance charges. They further accept the scheme for the management of the properties as modified by the suggestion in paragraph 5 of your letter of 11th May, 1904.

5. The question of the financial resources immediately available for starting the Institute is examined in paragraphs 15 to 18 of my letter of 1st May, 1903. The Government of India then undertook (in addition to the annual grant of £2,000 which they had already promised) to contribute for a period of ten years any further sum that might be required to make up, together with the Mysore grant, one-third of the current expenditure of any year subject to a maximum of £5,000. It was subsequently explained that the Government of India grant would take either of the following forms according as the provisional committee might elect, but that the election once made would hold good for the term of ten years—

(a) an annual grant for ten years equal in amount to the Mysore grant, but subject to a maximum of Rs. 50,000, or

(b) a grant in each of the ten years equal to one-third of the total expenditure of the year less Rs. 30,000 subject to a minimum of Rs. 30,000 and a maximum of Rs. 45,000.

It was added that no expenditure upon travelling fellowships could be included in the total expenditure of the year. Liberal as was the aid thus promised, the Government of India, after personal consultation with Mr. Dorabji M. Tata, have now reconsidered the matter and have agreed to increase it substantially. Rule 6 of the grant-in-aid code for schools and colleges in Bombay lays down that a Government grant-in-aid shall in no case exceed half of the local assets or one-third of the total expenditure of an institution during the previous official year. Applying this rule to the statement of sums available for current expenditure given in paragraph 16 (2) of my letter of 1st May, 1903, the Government of India are willing to regard as local assets the sum of Rs. 1,25,000 derived from the endowment properties and the grant-in-aid of Rs. 30,000 pro-

vided by the Mysore Durbar, in all Rs. 1,55,000; and to make a grant-in-aid of one-half of this sum or Rs. 77,500, being the maximum admissible under the rule cited above. This will be given without limit of time subject merely to the condition that the scheme of management of the Institution is approved as regards its general principles by the Government of India and is conformed to by the governing body of the Institute. They are further willing to raise their contribution from time to time, as the local assets available increase by endowments or contributions, provided that the amount of the grant shall not exceed one-half of the local assets and shall be subject to a maximum of Rs. 1,50,000. The term "local assets" will be limited to permanent contributions from private individuals or Native States based upon assignments of capital funds, and will not be held to include subsidies from local Governments or occasional subscriptions of a temporary character. The immediate effect of this concession will be that the Institute will have available for the purpose of its operations a working income of Rs. 2,32,500 as compared with Rs. 1,75,000 mentioned by Sir William Ramsay, in the report referred to in my letter of 1st May, 1903, as the minimum sum required for an adequate commencement. It is believed that with an assured income of this amount the governing body will be in a position to procure the most competent teachers of the subjects dealt with in the Institute, to retain their services for long periods, and to found research scholarships for the encouragement of students. They will in fact be able to carry on their operations on a scale commensurate with the high aims which the founder of the endowment is believed to have had in view.

6. The initial expenditure accepted by the provisional committee of the Institute as sufficient to provide the buildings and fittings required is stated in paragraph 15 of my letter of 1st May, 1903, to amount to Rs. 6,57,600. Towards this the Mysore State have undertaken to contribute Rs. 5,00,000, and have promised to allow their Public Works Department to assist in designing and constructing the buildings. In May, 1903, the Government of India expressed their willingness to contribute a sum of Rs. 1,00,000. They have now decided, following the analogy of the grant-in-aid rule quoted above, to offer a contribution of one-half of the Mysore grant of Rs. 5,00,000. Thus the governing body of the Institute will at once have at their disposal Rs. 7,50,000 for the purpose of constructing buildings estimated to cost Rs. 6,57,000.

7. At this stage it will be convenient to consider the legal machinery requisite for the purpose of constituting the Institute and providing for its administration. It has hitherto been assumed that special legislation must be undertaken for this purpose, but on further consideration it appeared to the Government of India that in view of the novel and experimental character of the Institute and the uncertainties attending its working during the first few years of its existence, it would be undesirable to tie the hands of the governing body by statutory provisions which could only be altered by again having recourse to the legislature. This difficulty would, it was thought, be avoided if the administration of the Institute could be provided for by means of a scheme under the Charitable Endowments Act, VI of 1890, which was intended to deal with educational projects, and which makes special provision in Section 5 (2) for the modification from time to time of any scheme settled under the Act. They accordingly referred to the Advocate-General, Bengal, a note drawn up by the Home Secretary sketching the history of the Institute and the proposals for its administration and stating for the advice of the Advocate-General the following questions:—

(1) Can the management of the Tata properties in Bombay and the various matters touched on in Mr. Lowndes's award on the valuation of the properties, his report on the guarantee of the stability of the income to be derived from them, and his report on the scheme for managing them, be provided for by a scheme under the Charitable Endowments Act of 1890, the local Government acting in the matter under Sections 4 and 5 of the Act being the Government of Bombay?

(2) Can the organization of the Research Institute at Bangalore be provided for by a scheme under the same Act, the powers conferred on the local Government by Sections 4 and 5 being exercised by the Government of India under section 7 (1)?

(3) What steps are necessary to enable the Charitable Endowments Act to be used for purposes of administering a Research Institute to be situated in Mysore territory close to but outside of the civil and military station of Bangalore?

The answers to these three questions are given in the Advocate-General's opinion of 13th February, 1905, of which a copy is annexed. The conclusions to be drawn from this appear to be as follows:—

(1) The properties in Bombay should be vested in the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments.

(2) A single body should be formed for the purpose of carrying on the various objects of the trust, this body (being divided by the terms of the scheme into separate committees for the purpose of dealing with (a) the administration of the endowment properties, (b) the executive management of the Institute, (c) the larger general questions which may arise from time to time. The functions of each committee and its powers of independent action should be defined in the scheme.

(3) There should be only one scheme, and that should be framed by the Government of India acting under Sections 4 and 5 of the Act read with Section 7 (1).

(4) The site of the Institute should be so dealt with by the Mysore Government as, if possible, to make it part of British India, or at any rate to enable the Charitable Endowments Act to be applied to it in the same manner as various Acts of the Governor-General in Council are applied to the civil and military station of Bangalore.

8. This being the legal machinery to be employed, there remains for consideration the difficult question of the constitution of the Institute itself, as distinct from the body charged with the administration of the endowment properties. This matter was dealt with in the report of the conference held at Simla in October, 1899, on the subject of an Institute of research in India, which was published in the *Gazette of India* with the Home Department Resolution of 17th November, 1899. The scheme then put forward contemplated the formation of an Indian Research University situated at or near Bombay, the management of which was to be vested in (a) a University Court, and (b) a University Council.

THE CONSTITUTION.

It was proposed that His Excellency the Viceroy for the time being should be *ex-officio* Visitor of the University, and the Governor of Bombay the *ex-officio* Chancellor. The University Court was to consist of the Chancellor, a Vice-Chancellor appointed by the Chancellor for two years, a nominee of the Government of India, eight nominees of local Governments, five nominees of the other Indian Universities, one nominee of the late Mr. Tata, four nominees of the professorial council and an indefinite number of nominees of those benefactors who might contribute property or securities yielding an annual income of not less than Rs. 15,000. The professorial council was to consist of all the professors of the University not more than four nominees of the University Court, and one representative to be elected by the assistant professors

from their own number. In a memorandum submitted by the late Mr. J. N. Tata in April 1901, and forming one of the enclosures to the Bombay Government's letter No. 26, dated 3rd January, 1902, to the Government of India, the proposals of the Simla Conference were further elaborated on lines which appear to have been suggested by Sir William Ramsay's report and by the proposal to locate the Institute at Bangalore. Under this scheme there were to be three administrative bodies, a Court, a Council, and a Council of Fellows. His Excellency the Viceroy was to be President of the Court and was to appoint a Vice-President to hold office for five years. The Court was constituted in the manner suggested by the Simla Conference with the addition of four nominees of the Council of Fellows. The Council was expanded by adding one representative of the Government of Mysore, one nominee of the President of the Court, and one representative of the Council of Fellows and by giving the assistant professors two representatives instead of one. The Council of Fellows was to consist of the holders of such fellowships, whether endowed or honorary, as the University might create from time to time in accordance with by-laws to be made by the Court and also of all members of the teaching staff on the Institute. This proposal is criticised in paragraph 13 of the report of Professor Masson and Colonel Clibborn, dated 5th December, 1901. It was there pointed out that the Court would be too large, that there would be practical difficulties in arranging for its meetings, that the professors of the Institute ought not to be members, and that it would be inadvisable to include in it representatives of the five Indian Universities. The Council of Fellows was condemned as unnecessary and unworkable. For these reasons Professor Masson and Colonel Clibborn proposed to revise the constitution of the Court as follows:—

The Viceroy as President.

A Vice-President nominated by the President.

One nominee of the Government of India

One nominee of each local Government.

Mr. Tata for life and his nominee.

The Director of the Institute.

One nominee of each permanent benefactor (a permanent benefactor being defined as a donor of capital yielding an income of Rs. 15,000 a year).

The Council, which Professor Orme and Colonel Clibborn preferred to call a Board, was to be small and to consist only of those persons who could attend most if not all of the meetings which would be frequent. They suggested that it should consist of the Director as *ex-officio* chairman, the

professors, but not the assistant professors, one nominee of President and one nominee of the Court.

MANAGING COMMITTEE AND GENERAL COUNCIL.

9. It is obvious that the first requisite is to provide the Institute at Bangalore with an effective managing committee which should comprise both persons with technical knowledge and persons of general administrative experience. All members of this body should be residents of Bangalore who would be able to attend the meetings regularly, to settle matters of executive detail and to maintain continuity of administration. It is suggested that it might comprise the Principal of the Institute and all the professors, who would supply the requisite element of technical knowledge and that these should be assisted by representatives of the Government of India the Government of Mysore and the Tata family in such proportions as may be found possible having regard to local conditions.

10. Besides this local committee it will probably be desirable in order to emphasise the larger aspects of the scheme to constitute some general council composed of persons resident in different parts of India whose advice and influence would tend directly and indirectly to promote the interests of the Institute. It may be admitted that there would be great difficulties in bringing such a body together for the purposes of collective discussion, but even if the Council should never meet in its full strength it might be possible by fixing the quorum at a relatively small number to enable the President to procure the attendance of a few members for a particular purpose. It is suggested that the constitution of the general Council might be somewhat as follows:—

Patron—His Excellency the Viceroy.

President—The head of a local Government to be nominated by the Viceroy from time to time for a particular period.

A Vice-President to be appointed by the President.

A representative of the Government of India.

Representatives of those local Governments who assist the Institute by contributions.

Representatives of science and learning to be elected by the members of the Council on the nomination of any member.

Representatives of benefactors who have made donations of capital sums yielding not less than Rs. 15,000 a year.

11. For the ordinary purposes of administration it seems probable that an organisation some-

what on the lines sketched above would be found to work satisfactorily. But neither of the bodies concerned would be in a position to determine without the assistance of the advice of qualified experts two matters of the first importance, namely (a) the settlement of the subjects to be taught, the courses of teaching and the lines of research to be followed, and (b) the selection of professors for the Institute in Europe or elsewhere. Here it is suggested that the Royal Society, which has always shown itself very ready to assist in undertakings of this kind, should be invited to form a small committee of its members for the double purpose of advising in the first instance on the lines of instruction and research to be followed and of selecting professors for service in the Institute.

12. The relations of the local executive body to the general council will require careful definition, the principle being that certain acts of the smaller body would require the confirmation of the larger. This condition, however, need not be insisted on in the case of the committee charged with the management of the endowment properties, as their duties would be strictly defined by the terms of trust, and it would be inadvisable to hamper them in respect of the details of administration by the necessity of procuring the concurrence of a distant authority which could be only imperfectly acquainted with the facts. I am to ask that the Messrs. Tata may be requested to draw up, in general accordance with the principles set forth above, detailed proposals for the formation of a single body or council which shall comply with the conditions of the Charitable Endowments Act, and shall be divided into committees for the purpose of dealing with:—

(a) the executive work of the Institute;

(b) the management of the endowment properties;

(c) any general questions that may arise from time to time.

Each of these committees should be given authority to act independently within the limits of the powers entrusted to them and the relations between the two minor committees and the larger general committee should be clearly defined. These proposals should be included in the statement of terms which should be annexed to the application to be made by the Messrs. Tata to the Government of India under Section 4 of the Charitable Endowments Act.

13. The Government of India have not overlooked the anomalous character of an arrangement under which they will settle a scheme which

includes the administration of certain properties in the city of Bombay, but in view of the opinion of the Advocate-General of Bengal that only a single scheme can be framed under the Act, and of the obvious impossibility that the Bombay Government should be empowered to deal with that portion of the scheme which is concerned with the management of the Institute at Bangalore, they trust that the Governor in Council will accept the arrangement now proposed. I am to suggest that in order to expedite the settlement of the intricate questions now pending it will probably be convenient that the Messrs. Tata should in future address the Government of India direct.

THE GOVERNMENT'S DECISIONS.

14. The decisions of the Government of India on each of the main points discussed in this letter may now be stated as follows:—

(1) The Government of India accept Mr. Lowndes's valuation of the endowment properties.

(2) They agree to his proposals regarding the guarantee fund, subject to such explanation as the Messrs. Tata may desire to offer on the question of insurance charges.

(3) They accept his scheme for the management of the endowment properties with the modification suggested in paragraph 5 of the Bombay Government's letter of 11th May, 1904.

(4) They agree to make an annual grant to the Institute of not more than one-half of the local assets as defined in paragraph 5 above subject to the conditions:—

(a) that the operations of the Institute are conducted on lines approved generally by the Government of India, and

(b) that the amount of the grant shall not exceed Rs. 1,50,000.

The grant calculated on the local assets as they now stand will be Rs. 77,500.

(5) They agree to make an initial grant of Rs. 2,50,000, towards the construction of the necessary buildings and provision of scientific apparatus.

(6) They consider that no legislation will be called for, and that the administration both of the endowment property and of the Institute itself can best be provided for by a scheme to be settled by the Government of India under the Charitable Endowments Act.

(7) This scheme should provide:—

(a) for the vesting of the endowment property and all contributions subsequently accruing in

the Accountant-General, Bombay, as Treasurer of Charitable Endowments such separate trust deeds and conveyances being executed as may be required to satisfy the technical requirements of the Act;

(b) for the formation of a single Council in which would be vested the general administration of the Trust, and which would exercise its functions through the agency of three Committees charged respectively (i) with the management of the endowment property, (ii) with the executive administration of the Institute itself, and (iii) with the decision of such general questions as may call for settlement from time to time;

(c) for defining the powers and duties of the governing body and of the committees in question;

(d) for the reference of certain questions to an advisory committee of the Royal Society or, in the event of its being found impossible to arrange for the formation of such a committee, then to such other scientific authority as the Government of India, after consultation with the Council, may appoint for the purpose.

(8) The Government of India will address the Mysore State on the subject of the action to be taken to transfer the requisite jurisdiction over the site of the Institute.

(9) The Messrs. Tata should now proceed to submit to the Government of India an application under Section 4 of the Charitable Endowments Act annexing to their application a statement of the terms which they desire to be included in the scheme to be settled under Section 5. The statement of terms should deal with the matters discussed in this letter and any other points that the applicants may deem essential to the inception and maintenance of the Institute.

15. With these ample resources at its disposal, the prospects of the Institute may now be looked upon as assured, and the occasion is a fitting one for the Government of India to explain the policy by which their present action is dictated, and the attitude which they propose to adopt towards the future development of the Institute. While sympathising cordially with the far-reaching aims of its promoters, the Governor-General in Council has no desire to associate himself intimately with the actual administration of the Institute, or to claim a determining voice in the settlement of the lines of research to be followed or the methods of instruction to be employed. He is, indeed, ready to assist in furthering by all legitimate means the comprehensive scheme which owes its origin to the generous philanthropy of the late Mr. Tata.

But he realises that the results of the experiment that is now about to be tried will depend less upon the conditions of the project itself than upon the character and energy of those who may come forward to take advantage of the facilities for advanced study which it will offer. The Government of India are anxious in no way to interfere with the free growth of whatever forms of intellectual activity and economic enterprise the Institute may encourage or create, and they will therefore confine themselves strictly to exercising no more than that degree of influence and control which is justified and indeed rendered obligatory by the liberal grant-in-aid now promised.

H. H. RISLEY,
Secretary to the Government of India.

THE DUTCH UNDERGRADUATE.

Macmillan's Magazine for January contains an interesting account of Dutch undergraduate life from the pen of Mr. J. D. Hoare. The Dutch University system differs from that of Oxford or Cambridge, not merely like the German, in the freedom from all control or supervision enjoyed by the student, but in the optional character of attendance at lectures and in the fact that no definite times are fixed for the examinations, for which candidates for degrees may offer themselves whenever they think fit and after any period of study they please. The student who specialises at once as a matter of course, has a professor—of medicine, law, divinity, philosophy, literature, as the case may be—assigned to him; but he is under no obligation to attend his lectures, and, if he finds it unprofitable or inconvenient to do so, can study by himself and order a set of the lectures transcribed from the shorthand note of some student who chooses to add to his income by performing this service. In addition to two examinations which he has to pass for a doctorship in, say, law, the candidate has to write a book, or thesis, on some appropriate subject; but this is the merest formality, though he has to go through the farce of defending it in public when called up to receive his degree. During the period of his residence, the student lives where and how he pleases, is attached to no college, and comes and goes with absolute freedom. If, however, he wishes to share in the social amenities of undergraduate life and not to live apart, as a "Pig," he has to conform to a number of curious, and in some cases exacting, customs which the etiquette of the fraternity imposes. His first three weeks' residence, as a freshman, or "Green," for instance, is a period ostensibly of

probation, and actually of purgatory, during which he is at the beck and call of his seniors and leads a life "compared with which that of 'a fag at the roughest English public school is 'heaven itself,' his only compensation being that of living for the time being at the expense of the second-year men, with whom he takes his meals, whose wines he drinks, and whose cigars he smokes. His status on these occasions differs with the meal. At luncheon he is expected to wait on his hosts and fill the rôle of butt for their wit. At dinner, on the other hand, he meets his elders on terms of equality. Then there are a freshmen's orchestral concert, theatrical performance, and boat-race, in one or other of which he has to take part and all of which serve as occasions for more or less horseplay at his expense. There is a freshmen's club again, which he is obliged to attend every afternoon and which on five days out of the seven is open equally to his tormentors, who, indeed, provide the accommodation. After dinner, eaten at one of the numerous undergraduate clubs, he must repair with his hosts to the general club, "where coffee, liquors and cigars are served, and 'the climax of the day comes for the unfortunate 'Green.' By this time most of his tormentors 'are rather tipsy, and the jests which they perpetrate reduce his person and his clothes to a 'shocking state of disrepair. Syphons of soda-water are occasionally squirted over his head, 'his coat may be torn to ribbons, and he is 'heartily thankful when twelve o'clock strikes 'and he is allowed to wend his way home dripping 'wet and exceedingly weary.' Emancipation day is marked by a variety of ceremonies which need not be described. By this time the freshmen have formed their clubs, which are inaugurated with processions and dinners, generally given at Amsterdam or The Hague, and followed by a 'wine' given at their cost to all undergraduates at the general club-house already mentioned. Literary, debating, and musical societies are also joined and generally meet once a month. After these preliminaries, which extend together over five or six weeks, the students settle down to the ordinary University routine. Lectures go on from 10 A.M. to 4 P.M. The usual dinner hour is 7 P.M. After dinner, the students work till midnight, when they repair to the club, which remains open all night. When a student receives his degree, he is expected to entertain his friends and relatives of all degrees at a congratulatory dinner, which, with the attendant ceremonies, not unfrequently lasts from seven in the evening till three in the morning and may cost the entertainer as much as £120. Once in five years each of the five Universities gives a masquerade, a

really splendid pageant, representing some historical event in which almost every member of the University takes some part, and the "King of the Carnival," who hires a house for the occasion, furnishes it sumptuously, holds court, gives State banquets and balls, often spends thousands of pounds upon the occasion.—

From the *Statesman*.

THE SCHOOL IN SOME OF ITS RELATIONS TO SOCIAL ORGANIZATION AND TO NATIONAL LIFE.

Abstract of a paper read by Prof. M. E. Sadler, at a meeting of the Sociological Society, on Tuesday, December 13, at 8 p.m., at the School of Economics and Political Science (University of London), Clare Market, W.C. Sir A. W. Rücker, D.C.L., F.R.S., (Principal of the University of London), in the Chair.

1. Has not one great obstacle to the advance of educational science lain in our too habitually thinking of schools as if school work were an end in itself, and in our discussing school problems too little in relation to their social context and with too vague regard to the actual needs of the callings for which the different types of school ought definitely to prepare their pupils?

2. All true education has a double purpose, namely, (1) the development of the moral personality, of the physical powers, and of the intellectual aptitudes of the individual; and (2) the fitting of the pupil skilfully to perform the duties of some definite calling, or type of calling, in life, and worthily to discharge with courage and composure of mind the tasks likely to devolve upon him or her as a member (a) of a family, (b) of a local community, whose claims are based upon physical neighbourhood, (c) of the nation, (d) of some church or other ethical fellowship, based upon affinity of spiritual need but not necessarily conterminous with any one country.

3. The trend of the individualistic doctrine in psychology, in economics, and in ethics was to exaggerate the relative importance of that part of educational effort which aims especially at developing individual capacity, and at "giving every one his chance" by means of "the educational ladder," or by incitements to self-help. The trend of the rationalistic movement in philosophy and ethics was yet further to exaggerate one element in this individualistic type of education, viz., the purely intellectual element, or the side of mere instruction. Against each

of these exaggerations, influential sections of English opinion have always maintained a sturdy protest and never an unavailing one. Against exaggerated individualism in educational aims, Anglicanism protested (rather confusedly but stubbornly) on the one hand, and Robert Owen and the Socialists (with too little feeling for historical and spiritual continuity) protested on the other. Against exaggerated intellectualism in educational aims, S. T. Coleridge, Wordsworth, Tractarian Oxford, and the leaders of English higher secondary education protested on the one hand, and the great mass of shrewd English opinion, with its tough prejudice against mere book-learning, on the other. The result of this conflict of educational ideals, which persisted for more than a century, was not quite a deadlock in English educational development, but painfully obstructed advance, each stage of which was marked by more or less untidy and illogical compromise.

4. The key to the history of English educational struggles, from the middle of the seventeenth century almost down to the present time, lies in this conflict between two disparate ideals. The one ideal was rather narrowly limited to a fervent belief in the intellectual and, as its upholders thought, the resultant moral efficacy of secular instruction of a more or less literary character, given in publicly organized day-schools. The other ideal maintained that "national education," in any worthy sense of the word, consists in the joint and often secret operation of many kinds of influence permeating the heart as well as the mind of the nation, and proceeding from historic institutions, spiritual traditions, ancient and familiar habits of life, intimacy with nature, social relationships, personal loyalties, economic activities, daring adventure, and free discussion. Those who incline to the first of these two views have, more frequently than the best of their opponents, been unconsciously one-sided in their conception of what the whole nation ought to be made to think and how it ought to be made to behave. Those who have inclined to the second view have often been lacking in the pertinacity of argument which comes from rather narrow convictions, have been apt to ignore the darker sides of the existing social order, have underrated the value of good school teaching, and have often been unable to express in words, either to themselves or to other people, what they really felt.

5. The school of thought which attached undue value to mere verbal instruction given to large classes in elementary day schools is now virtually bankrupt. On the other hand, the opposite school

of thought finds that the formulated doctrines upon which it implicitly relied have lost their earlier look of certainty, and that the old social order has nearly dissolved away under the influences of the Industrial Revolution. Hence there has been a deliquescence of prejudice and of conviction on both sides.

6. The result is, for the time being, a readiness for joint action in educational affairs which has no precedent in English history. This melting away of old educational prejudices has happened to coincide with three other important changes. The biologists have taught us to assign immense importance to the influences of environment upon the human organism. The effects of slum life in the "drift quarters" of great cities have shown themselves in perilous tendencies to physical and mental deterioration. And English political instinct, always sensitive to new dangers and opportunities, is driving us towards more stringent forms of collective organization in industry, in commerce, and in social regulation. Hence a movement in English educational thought not without its counterpart even in individualistic (America) towards modifications in our educational methods with a view to social unification and increased collective efficiency. For example, there is spreading a conviction that the time has come for dealing with the residual deposit which consists of the physically and mentally deteriorated, especially in the great centres of the population. What is wanted is a resolve to attack the slum problem under scientific guidance on a well-considered plan, with the help of great resources and with the thoroughness, the energy, and the persistence with are displayed in great works of modern engineering. In such a plan the labours of school teachers and the educational influence of a new type of elementary school would play an important part.

But social "rescue work" is only part of the problem which has to be faced in the organization of English elementary education. Only a small proportion of the elementary schools have to deal with the slum problem. The great increase of economic well-being among the artisan population has brought with it a need for a superior kind of elementary school with smaller classes, highly trained teachers, well equipped buildings, and spacious play-grounds, supplemented by higher courses of continuative instruction. Thus, in respect of elementary as well as of secondary schools, there is every sign that our progress will be in the direction of greater differentiation of type.

7. We are beginning to lay more stress upon

the social and corporate influences of education; upon the unconscious education which comes through the pressure of environment; upon the need for better food, better home surroundings and more healthy life conditions for the rising generation; and upon the value of those kinds of training which fit a child for the actual duties of life. As the power of individual initiative in danger or difficulty is one of the chief assets of empire, it is essential that, while encouraging the corporate influences of school life, we should develop through our education individuality of character combined with self-control.

In English education, however, we are apt to ignore the value of the imagination and to neglect the educational instruments which can stimulate and train it. We are prone to think that anybody is good enough for the work of school teaching. We miss our opportunities of making the best of the critical early years of a child's education. What is wanted is a combination of the zeal and venturesomeness of American educational effort and of German carefulness in methods of teaching with the English insight into the necessity of manual and corporate training as elements in education, and English preference for those kinds of education which, though not ecclesiastical or theologically dogmatic, make children sensitive to the sacred claims and deeper needs that lie behind the mask of merely mundane things, and are never long without a witness in the common experience of life.

TRUE UNIVERSITY IDEAL.

The following is the most important portion of the Convocation Address delivered on Tuesday, February 22nd, at Bombay, by the Vice-Chancellor, Dr. Mackichan:—

When I turn to view the present position of the University I feel deeply impressed with the greatness of the opportunity that is now presented for a forward movement. In the many controversies that have gathered round the Universities Act—controversies which it should be the aim of all of us to bury as we now endeavour resolutely to face the problems that confront us—attention has been concentrated on subsidiary, and sometimes trifling issues while the great problem of increasing and advancing to higher tasks, the teaching of our Indian Universities, has been overlooked. I must confess that to me the main significance of the Act has always lain in its relation to the influence it might be expected to exert on the teaching given in our Universities,

and I desire on this occasion to turn your thoughts away from all that divides or has divided opinion and to concentrate your attention on the central aim of this legislation, viz., the improvement of instruction in our University as a means to the realisation of a true University ideal. Remember that the danger to which every institution in India is exposed, cut off by distance in space as well as in outward conditions from the great intellectual centres of the modern world, is that of becoming stereotyped in the mould on which it was first cast. Such institutions and notably the Indian Universities have achieved results which no one dare disparage and I should be the last to disparage them. Still many of us have been conscious that with all this to our credit we have as Universities fallen very far short of a high University ideal and that it is to pay a poor compliment to India to regard this backwardness as inevitable under the conditions. I conceive that we have a higher duty to India than to ask her simply to acquiesce in the present conditions; it is ours to show that our Universities are progressive institutions, that they are not satisfied to remain doing for ever what they did for the last half-century, that they have laid the foundation of a new development and mean to see it realised.

INDIANS AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

I am not one of those who think that the people of India have had their opportunity in this matter of University education. I hold that the time has fully come when ampler means of culture than any now available should be within the reach of all who desire it, whether they be rich or poor. This does not mean that education should become a more costly thing to the Indian student. Be assured that there are many of us who would resist with our utmost effort any proposal which would intend to exclude from the highest benefits of the University those who are rich in mental power and intellectual ambition, though poor in the wealth of the world. No consideration of this kind should be permitted to obscure the real needs of the situation. Such education must, however, in the nature of things, be more costly, but it should not lay the burden of this increased cost upon the individual student. It was this conviction that led me to press in the Universities Commission for an emphatic deliverance on this point, the result of which has been that the Government of India has announced an annual contribution of Rs. 5,00,000 for a period of five years towards the improvement of the Universities and the colleges. Such a contribution should be a regularly recurring one and

should increase as the Universities show themselves equal to their high responsibilities. We desire to see attracted to our Indian Universities great teachers such as may be found now not only in the Universities of Great Britain and Europe, but also in some of our British Colonies. We want to see India provided with laboratories and other means of instruction such as are found to-day in several of the over-sea dominions of the King. Was it not this aspiration that underlay the ideals of the late Mr. Tata to whom I have made reference? As one conversant with the inner history of the Tata scheme I know that this was the fundamental idea of the entire project. Here too we may learn from one who while not an educationist knew better than most what was needed for the educational advancement of his country. I would only wish that he had taken the further step of linking his great idea to the University to which we here belong.

STUDY OF SCIENCE IN INDIA.

Gentlemen, it is always good for us to see ourselves as others see us. Ever since his visit to India to advise with reference to the Research Institute, Sir William Ramsay, the distinguished professor of Chemistry in the University of London, has had his critical eye upon us. In my last address I referred to some of his observations on the condition of Indian Universities. Permit me now to quote some of his later utterances. Speaking at the Allied Colonial Universities Conference he said:—"Another point I should like to make and which I feel some diffidence in mentioning is the fact that the question of Indian Universities has been entirely left out. I have no doubt this was deliberately done. I should like, however, to press upon the Council when appointed the very great importance of devoting a not inconsiderable proportion of their deliberations to this question. Any one who knows the Indian Universities will recognise in them an imitation of what the London University used to be in the year 1858; they have hardly grown with the times. There are five such Universities which are purely examining bodies. There is a number of affiliated colleges of all ranks of efficiency and the system is acknowledged to be a very bad one. The changes required are much more radical than those which had been suggested, viz., by the Universities Commission, and I hope the Council will approach the question of the Indian Universities in order to see if anything can be done to improve University education in India." Gentlemen, the picture drawn by Sir William Ramsay of our Universities is not a flattering one. There

are no doubt, several sides of our University work regarding which we would not accept Sir William Ramsay as a competent critic. He has not done justice to their contribution to literary scholarship, for example; but we must accept him as entitled to speak with some authority of the position of our Indian Universities in respect of purely scientific work. "Faithful are the wounds of a friend." It is good for us to be occasionally awakened out of our serenity by such a plain utterance the truth of which we must in some measure be prepared to admit. But I think you will agree with me when I say that it will be better for us to reform ourselves with the opportunities we now possess than to wait till that operation is performed upon us by a benevolent Universities Council in the British metropolis. But this was not the only statement made in that Conference that was fitted to arouse the interest of an Indian University placed in the position in which we now find ourselves. The object of that Conference was to co-ordinate and organize the University resources of the British Empire. From its programme, as we have been, India was absent as India has been absent from other programmes of Imperial organization. The Universities represented included some situated in the remotest parts of the British Dominions and the account which some of these were able to give of themselves was a revelation to many of those present as it may well be to us here.

COLONIAL UNIVERSITIES.

A professor from Australia was able to speak of the Physical Laboratory formerly under his direction as able to compare with any he had inspected in Great Britain except the great Cavendish Laboratory in Cambridge, while Montreal invited students of Great Britain to come to its University for post graduate courses in Mining, Engineering, a department in which it claimed to possess an equipment which no British University could boast. This had been made possible through the munificent gift of a citizen of Montreal, Sir William Macdonald, who had bestowed a gift of £700,000 on the University. This University has, further, the audacity to hold a Matriculation Examination in London for the convenience of the students whom it attracts away from Great Britain. I mention these things, not in order to suggest that this University should at once begin to imitate this daring or attempt such lofty flights, but in order, if possible, to arouse amongst us some generous aspirations after something better than that condition in which we have too long acquiesced. I mention them also to suggest the direction in which

prosperous men in this country can most advantageously lay out the wealth they have acquired. Seven lakhs of rupees, not to speak of pounds, would do great things for any Indian University and go far in raising the standard of University efficiency in this country. In this respect the history of British Universities is one long record of private munificence which has been so ample that the Government has not yet been able to acquire the habit of rightly estimating its own responsibility. And if we want a further example, let us look at the phenomenal growth of Universities in the United States. Into these Universities the wealth of the country is pouring and there is no feature in the life of that great country that promises more for its future than its enthusiasm for academic education. Its Universities are working as a leaven, infusing into a nation that enjoys unprecedented material success these higher ideals of social and political life that minister to abiding vitality. I trust that India which, notwithstanding its general poverty, has yet a large command of wealth for purposes that appeal to its imagination will listen to the appeal which its Universities now make to it through the clamant educational needs of the hour.

DUTIES OF A UNIVERSITY.

There can be no doubt that sound educationists in all advanced countries are now beginning to lay the chief stress not on examinations but on teaching and the means of teaching. A reaction from the excessive application of the examination process has set in and we are returning in some measure to the mediæval idea. In those early days of University history men sought out the great teachers and these have been in all ages the real strength of the University. We in India have hitherto laid stress far too much on the examination; we are now asked to have a first regard to the teaching and the College as an instrument of University instruction has had a new importance attached to it. In this connection the need of proper residence for students under the supervision of their Colleges has become an accepted truth in India and on the University has been laid the duty of giving effect to it so far as may be practicable. This is an object which must specially appeal to the people of India who have always abounded in works of benevolence analogous in nature to this. But if Colleges are to discharge their function worthily more than this is necessary. The University teacher must rise to the real sacredness of his high task. His work must not be regarded as simply that of an appointment that is valued according to the place

it occupies relatively to the other services in India. His is a service which stands apart, which when rightly entered on becomes invested with all the sacredness and influence that are associated in the mind of India with the position of the guru. As such it is a position of permanent influence such as scarcely belongs to any other service and the exercise of this influence is fraught with the most far-reaching results. Great teachers are the real University, but if great teachers are to be found for India the Universities must afford room for the exercise of their gifts. Mere examination on subjects specially prepared for an examination is after all a poor test of education and culture whatever function it may serve in relation to the bestowal of diplomas and other external University marks. Students must bear upon them the marks of a great teacher; the examination must never be permitted to overshadow the independence or originality of the Professor. I esteem it the greatest privilege of my own University life to have been thus brought into contact with a great master who was yet conspicuously ignorant of the art of rapidly preparing his students for a University examination. In this respect the student world regarded him as a failure, yet as the most inspiring teacher and the unrivalled master of his subject he was the peculiar glory of his University. Shall we not desire for India some teachers of this higher type and should we not see that our University of the future provides scope for such student-creating men by advancing the standards and character of our University studies? I cannot help thinking as I look back on our University history in Bombay that such ideals entered more largely into the academic spirit of this place in the earlier days of the University. We seem to see this both in the men who gathered in sympathetic co-operation around the University, and in the character and career of its earlier graduates. The University has great memories which it would do well to cherish and revive. If we feel richer in memories than in present attainments our condition is in this respect not unlike that of many other great institutions of learning in the land. The pressure of modern life is so urgent that leisure and also inclination to its pursuit is less conspicuous to-day than it was a generation ago. There is such a power to be reckoned with as the spirit of the age; the Zeitgeist is no unreal phantom, but an ever-present power. It forms part of every man's spiritual environment and if we are to be emancipated from those influences in the spirit of our time that hinder true intellectual development a powerful counter-active lies near

us in the atmosphere of University life. I can recall the days in which the leading men of culture in this city found an attractive sphere for their intellectual activities in the work of this University. We are distinctly poorer to-day through the diminution of this interest. And not we alone suffer, India is suffering through the change. Then the University was a great connecting link between East and West. In the calm region of this academic home, into which no disturbing influences from the outer world of conflict can fitly enter, a bond was formed between Indian and Briton which resulted in a mutual understanding and sympathy that has not been achieved in the same degree by any other association. I devoutly desire to see a return to that earlier condition. It will be found, I am persuaded, to provide the fittest meeting ground for the various races that live side by side in this variegated community, for the commonwealth of intellect is one throughout the world. Speaking as a member of one of those communities I would say that the main interest and the real usefulness of our lives in India is to be found in associating ourselves in community of interest with the people among whom we live. And there is no sphere of activity in which this can be more happily accomplished by educated men than in that which is provided in the common work of the University. We want men fresh from the academic atmosphere of the most progressive countries to come amongst us in order to prevent us from sinking into a torpid contentment with our actual conditions, we want the breath of a new and fresh air upon our parched life in order that we also may live worthily of our age.

ADVICE TO INDIAN STUDENTS.

And to you, who as graduates and students of this University must ever be its chief concern, I would say, seek to prove your title to rank as members of commonwealth to which you have been admitted by the breadth of the judgment which you bring to bear on the movements of your time. From these it is no part of the duty of educated men to hold aloof; but it is expected of them that they shall exercise in regard to them a judgment that shall be at once just and patriotic. May I be permitted to warn you against a tendency common to our humanity and from which during a long contact with you, I have found that you are not exempt, a tendency to form opinions and judgments rather as the result of a particular view or a particular experience than of a calm survey of the whole of a question. Now if you have at all profited by your academic discipline you ought to have

acquired something of the critical faculty, the power to look around the whole and to estimate rightly the significance of the past. Momentary feeling and impulse will be sure to lead you astray unless they are corrected by this habit of true criticism. If you neglect to cultivate this habit, your judgments will soon lose all weight with thoughtful men and your influence which might be helpful to men and your country's interests will count for little. I am glad to say that there is a great deal of such thoughtful criticism to be met with, but there is also much of an opposite kind. Individuals and policies are often criticised in a manner which suggests that a long course of action based on principle counts for little in the moment of a passing experience. We expect that in the emotional untrained mind, but not in men of broad culture whose mental sweep should be more comprehensive. Let me ask you to pause in all such cases to inquire whether a wider survey will not more than counteract the impression of a particular disappointment. Train your memories to remember the good and be not overhasty in condemning as evil the present limited part which calls forth your opposition. I would urge you to cultivate this spirit especially in regard to all academic matters. Do not imagine that there is, or can be, any change in the policy which has given to India the blessings of higher education. That is a policy on which Britain never will, and never can, go back. But may she not go forward? I ask you all to judge of the meaning of our present position not in the dim light of your groundless fears but in the clear light of your knowledge of a past in relation to education of which British rule is not ashamed. Do not put into the intentions of your rulers thoughts which you may hear whispered even by irresponsible representatives of the British nation, for in every great community men will be found who do not reflect the mind of their nation. Look at the whole and not at the part merely and believe that your heritage in respect of educational privilege is something that cannot be taken from you but will grow richer with the growing years. If I did not believe this in my inmost heart I should bid farewell to all the hopes which have sustained me during years of happy toil among you. And this leads me in conclusion, to speak to you of that sense of hopefulness that should inspire every one who has breathed the refreshing breath of the age into which most of you young men look out. Does it not inspire you with the conviction of the resistlessness of the onward march of knowledge? The India on which I look to-day is not the India which I first looked upon with

fresh and hopeful eye nearly a generation ago. Each year has seemed to bring little visible change, but a vast resultant change can be discerned to-day. Every man who has toiled amid seeming discouragement feels refreshed by the wider hope that opens up before him as the years pass into decades and the decades into a generation. The India of to-day is such a scene of hope to all who love this land and its people. On a still wider scale we see the same process at work. We who were impressed by the wondrous scientific advances of the Victorian age were no doubt often disposed to feel that we had reached the culmination of possible progress in many directions. But a new century opens and we find as in a moment all our fundamental conceptions of physical things shaken as by some great earthquake. The ultimate and unresolvable entities are analysed and dissolved by advancing knowledge and the language of 19th Century sciences suddenly becomes antiquated and obsolete. Such surprises have always been in store for the mind of man. Knowledge is of all human things the most surely progressive; it has within it the secret of a perpetual renewal. Young men, it is a great thing to live in such a time of widening thought and discovery, a greater thing to be able to participate intelligently in its expanding possessions and the greatest thing of all to know that behind all this changing and growing expanse there is a realm of eternal and unchangeable truth and reality which can satisfy and fill the soul and which is ever present to the pure in heart and life, to those "who do justice and love mercy and walk humbly with their God."

A CONSCIENCE CLAUSE FOR INDIANS.*

A conscience clause, speaking generally, is a clause in an act or law relieving persons who object on religious grounds to do something enjoined in the act or law from any penalty to which they would otherwise be liable. In Education Codes, the conscience clause allows a pupil of a State-managed or State-aided institution to be withdrawn by his guardian from any religious instruction to which he has conscientious objections without forfeiting the other benefits of the institution. In England till recently the Church had nearly the whole field of education to itself, and the Non-conformist community felt it unjust that Church Schools which were aided by grants from the public treasury

should be allowed by the State to force on their children religious doctrines repugnant to them. It was in 1853 that the Education Department for the first time took up the question of a conscience clause and proposed that it be inserted in the trust deeds of all aided schools. The Church party stoutly resisted it, saying that while they might of their own free will respect the feelings of Non-conformist parents, the power of withdrawing pupils from religious instruction should not be made a legal right. The Department did not feel strong enough at that time to carry its point and was content to give its moral support to the conscience clause. It was in 1864 that grants were definitely refused on the cost of school-buildings if the trust deeds did not include a conscience clause. Statutory recognition was given for the first time in the famous Education Act of 1870. This Act further provided that religious instruction should be given either at the beginning or at the end of school time so that children could be conveniently withdrawn, and that inspectors should not examine the religious teaching of any school.

The conscience clause in education has become, as it were, part of the Englishman's birthright, and without the slightest fuss or agitation, has been incorporated into the Grant-in-aid Codes of the different provinces of India, but only in schools for Europeans. For the information of the general reader it will be useful to reproduce here in full this conscience clause for Europeans as it appears in the latest issue of the Madras Code:

"In schools for Europeans it shall not be required, as a condition of any pupil being admitted into or continuing in the school, that he shall attend, or abstain from attending, any Sunday School or any place of religious worship; or that he shall attend any religious observance or any instruction in religious subjects in the school or elsewhere, to which his parent or guardian objects; or that he shall, if his parent or guardian wishes to withdraw him, attend the school on any day exclusively set apart for religious observance by the religious body to which his parent or guardian belongs.

The time or times during which any religious observance is practised, or instruction in religious subjects is given at any meeting of the school, shall be either at the beginning, or at the end, or at the beginning and the end of such meeting. The time or times for such observances or instruction shall be inserted in a time-table to be approved by the Director, and to be kept permanently and conspicuously affixed in the school-room. Any pupil may be withdrawn by his

* Contributed by Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri, B.A., L.T., to the January issue of the *Indian Review*.

parent or guardian from such observance or instruction without forfeiting any of the other benefits of the school.

On application from the manager, the Director may, for good and sufficient reasons, and after duly notifying in the *Fort St. George Gazette* that such application has been made, exempt a school from the operation of the conscience clause, or may cancel such exemption."

With the single exception of the above clause, schools are aided by the Government of India solely in view of the secular instruction which they afford, the system being based, as the Despatch of 1854 directed, "on an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the schools assisted." Let us see how the thing works out in practice. A large number of institutions throughout the country, larger perhaps in Madras than elsewhere, are conducted by foreign Christian missions which see in the education of Indian youth a necessary preliminary to, and an indirect means of, the extension of the kingdom of Christ. In most of these institutions systematic instruction in Christianity is given, and there being no conscience clause for the benefit of Indians, the mission authorities are enabled to compel the attendance of Hindus and Muhammadans at the religious classes. It cannot be pretended that these communities are willing to have their children indoctrinated in Christianity for its own sake; they only put up with this state of things as a necessary evil and undergo its risks either because the absence of other institutions leaves them no alternative, or because the mission institutions offer substantial advantages of a non-religious kind which are not available elsewhere. It is true the unwillingness of Indian parents to send their boys to mission schools is not at the present time sufficient to stand even the smallest temptation. But about twenty years ago it appeared to the Education Commission that it might act as an obstacle to the spread of education in localities where the only schools were missionary schools. Increased proselytising activity on the part of missionaries in the future may strengthen the dormant sentiment against missionary schools, though we fancy that in that case the effect will not be a check on the spread of education, but an intense desire on the part of the Indian communities to take into their own hands more and more of the education of their children. To some people this may appear a desirable end; but the establishment of new institutions is at all times a difficult and costly enterprise and involves some disturbance in the

machinery of education, while with powerful rivals already in possession of the field and a departmental regulation inimical to the growth of new schools, indigenous effort will find itself heavily handicapped in the struggle, as the history of the Negapatam movement, not yet concluded, shows in a palpable manner.

It is also urged against compulsory religious instruction in mission institutions that it is inconsistent with the formation of an absolutely straightforward type of character. The participation in prayer with the body, but not with the heart, which is enforced on non-Christian pupils has often been characterised as direct fostering of hypocrisy. Dr. Duncan, formerly Principal of the Presidency College, wrote in 1888: "The special temptation (in mission schools) is insincerity. Is it, I ask, reasonable to expect habits of reverence and sincerity to grow up in a school in which the pupils are compelled to begin the work of the day by an outward participation in the worship of a faith alien to the majority of them and utterly distasteful to many of them? * * * The religious instruction which the orthodox Hindu youth receives in a mission school contradicts in numerous ways the thoughts and feelings of his family and his society. In school he is compelled, as a condition of his receiving secular instruction, to participate in, and show reverence for, a worship which in his heart he does not believe, which outside school he is accustomed to hear spoken of, it may be with despite, and conversion to which would be regarded by his parents as the greatest calamity that could befall them and him. Is this the way to foster reverence for things sacred? Is it thus that habits of sincerity and truthfulness are acquired? Are the Hindus so little ready to sacrifice their convictions to their interests that we must catch them young and begin betimes to train them to tread this path of doubtful morality? Would not the introduction of a conscience clause into mission schools be to the advantage of religion as well as of morality? Were attendance at religious exercises optional, there would probably grow up more reverence for those exercises, while the young would be less exposed to temptation from their besetting sin of insincerity." The missionary, however, hopes that one day in one case, it may be, out of a thousand, the outward observance may lead to the inward faith, and this hope is enough justification to him for the coercion that he employs.

An ingenious attempt has been made to ascribe the readiness of the Hindu to submit to such coercion to his essentially tolerant and cosmopo-

litan nature. This explanation surely gives more credit to the Hindu than is his due. It would be an error on the other side to assert that he is naturally indifferent to his religion. The truth is that his love of religion, strong as it is, is overborne by his hereditary bias towards education and the advantages that it brings. His subtle mind, which during long ages of subjection has mastered the arts of compromise and accommodation, quickly differentiates in its own way between the essential and the non-essential and thinks nothing of a surrender of the latter which is mostly of the body, while holding fast at the same time by the former which belongs to the inner sanctuary of the heart. True erectness and manly dignity of bearing have lost their value and meaning to him. The same quality which has made of him perhaps the most humble clerk and willing drudge to be found in the world, which prompts him to pay social compliments without any expectation of their being returned, and which accepts his own subservience as a law of nature which it is idle to regret and foolish to think of changing,—this same quality renders it possible for missionary educationists to treat the whole nation as if it had no conscience in religious matters and fills the benches of mission schools with the children of families which do not hesitate in other matters to pose as bulwarks of orthodoxy. To this quality the name hypocrisy may appear too harsh and a softer word like opportunism may be applicable; but it would be a false reading of the facts that calls it a spirit of cosmopolitanism. It is not intolerance or narrowness of spirit that demanded the introduction of the conscience clause in England and that inspires the present plea for its introduction in India. It is a sense of justice and fair play to which the newly awakened consciousness of national self-respect gives an added keenness.

For it is above all on the ground of justice that we ask for the Indian student the right of profiting by the secular instruction imparted in State-aided mission schools without being compelled against his will to learn the Bible or join the Christian prayer. To make the justness of this claim apparent we have only to suppose that the Native College of Madura, for example, should introduce to-morrow a scheme of instruction in Hinduism to which Christians and Muhammadan pupils were compelled to submit. In fairness to indigenous managers, it must be added that such a contingency is extremely improbable, for though they may decide on imitating missionaries in imparting religious instruction, they are not likely to imitate them in mak-

ing it obligatory on all. But if it happened, would not the Native Christians and Muhammadans seek, and justly too, the protection of Government against such abuse of power? And would not Government readily interpose its strong arm which is always uplifted for the protection of minorities? Surely it cannot be right for the majority to suffer what the minority will resent. Nor will it be contended by any one whose opinion is entitled to consideration that the conscience of the Hindu or the Muhammadan is not sufficiently developed to be treated with tenderness and respect.

Strange to say, this elementary requirement of justice is deemed to have been abrogated by one of the cardinal principles of the Government in this country, the principle of religious neutrality. It would, indeed, be one of the saddest ironies of fate if this principle founded on justice should require the perpetuation of a grave injustice to the followers of an old and venerable religion. Such, however, is not the case. The words of the Despatch of 1854 already quoted are "an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the schools assisted." The words of the latest Madras Code are "without reference to any religious instruction." These words simply mean that grants are to be given solely for secular instruction, and Inspectors shall not have the right of examining the religious doctrines taught or the text-books used. The Education Commission of 1882 strained the language somewhat to mean that it enjoined an abstinence from all inquiry whether religion is or is not taught. In any case it does not preclude the Government from insisting that religious instruction shall not be forced on pupils whose guardians object to it. A conscience clause has been held to be no violation of the non-religious character of His Majesty's Government in England. A conscience clause has also been enacted in favour of Europeans in India. We want it to be extended to all subjects of the Emperor in India. If it be a violation of the religious neutrality of the Indian Government, which it surely is not, it is a violation that has already been made and is now required to be followed up to its necessary conclusion.

But this is not all. Looked at from the viewpoint of fact, not of mere words, the Government of India is not at present strictly neutral in religious instruction. It gives a considerable part of its education grant to mission bodies which force religious instruction on Hindu and Muhammadan pupils with a view to convert them to Christ-

ianity. Is it not indirectly employing the people's money to undermine their own religion? It matters nothing whether the effect is intended or not. The intention cannot alter the fact. It may be said that the State grant is given solely for the secular education, and not for the religious instruction conveyed in mission schools and that, therefore, the Government cannot be blamed as being partial to Christianity. But the religious instruction is part of the compulsory course in mission schools, and aid which is given to secular is given by reason of that fact also to religious teaching. As Mr. Telang put it, the contention would have weight only "in the case where the secular and the religious results are plainly severable one from the other. They are severable, when the pupils are allowed to withdraw from the religious lessons, if they please, in the manner provided by Section 7 of the Education Act of 1870. They are not severable, if the pupils are not allowed to do so." Besides in determining salary grants in the case of mission schools, the State allows grants on the entire salaries of the teachers employed partly in the teaching of religion, and not alone on the proportion of their salaries which would correspond with the proportion of their secular work.

It has been said against this demand of a conscience clause for the benefit of Indians that it savours of ingratitude to the mission bodies from whom the country has received the main part of its education, not to speak of other benefits. All Indians will emphatically repudiate this charge of ingratitude. We are sensible almost to a man of the immense obligations that we owe to the philanthropic work of the missionary in India. A large part of what is progressive and promising in modern Indian life, whether spiritual or material, is the result, unintended perhaps in certain cases, of the missionary's effort. He started the press. He lighted the torch of education. He brought the blessing of health to many that had been stricken with disease. He was the first to raise his voice for the enlightenment of the women of the land. He began the work of *Pariah* amelioration. He showed the way for social reform and religious upheaval. He stimulated thought and directed aspiration into higher channels. Dull would he be of soul who could think of this enormous service and not feel eternally grateful. But is it part of this feeling of gratitude that we should stand in perpetual need of this service? Is it not true gratitude to show that he has not laboured in vain, but that we have learned from him the lesson of self-help? Should he not rejoice that, thanks to his noble example, we are at last

endeavouring to give to our own improvement something of that energy and sacrifice which he has so liberally bestowed on the improvement of others? Without doubt the better type of missionary will view with favour, if not with satisfaction, this desire on the part of the Indian communities that their religions should, in their own land, be treated with as much consideration as any foreign religion. Nor will he forget that in India he has so often received exceptional kindness and hospitality from native princes. Several mission institutions may be named which owe their success in part at least to the donations of Indian gentlemen. At the present day we contribute in the shape of fees a substantial part of the expenditure in mission colleges and schools. And what is the State grant if not the money of the Indian tax-payer? Surely then it is not extravagant to ask that in these institutions some regard be paid to the sentiments of love and veneration with which we have from a time anterior to the dawn of history cherished a religion which by intrinsic merit is superior to most and inferior to none that command the homage of mankind.

Another objection raised against the granting of a conscience clause to us is that it would have the effect of emptying the religious classes in mission institutions, and as the value of educational work to the missions lies in the opportunities that it gives of teaching the truths of Christianity to young men, they will cease to maintain schools and colleges. Considering how large a share of the present educational work of the country is in the hands of missionaries, this result would be nothing short of a disaster. This argument, however, makes several assumptions. In the first place it takes for granted that the conscience clause, as soon as introduced, will be taken advantage of by all those persons who now patronize mission establishments. One cannot be so sure of this when one considers how largely lectures to educated Hindus are attended, how a clever missionary preacher is able to draw a crowd around him, and how eagerly philosophical expositions of Christianity by such men as Dr. Barrows or Professor Fairbairn are followed by thoughtful Hindus. Another assumption is that Hindus form the entire clientele of mission institutions. There are large numbers of Native Christians who will continue to attend and profit by the religious classes. A third assumption is that all mission bodies teach the Bible to non-Christians. In point of fact a great proportion of these are Roman Catholic Societies and will remain indifferent to the question of the conscience clause. Lastly it is highly improbable that Protestant bodies will shut up their institu-

tions if they be not permitted to force religious instruction on non-Christian pupils. I believe many missionary gentlemen will resent the imputation that they do not care enough for the work of education for its own sake. To them relieving the poor, healing the sick, and educating the ignorant are as much Christ's work as preaching. Mr. Telang has put on record the opinion of the missionary member of the Education Commission that the introduction of the conscience clause will not have the effect of killing missionary effort in education. So that there is no reason to dread this bogey of missionary withdrawal. At all events the number of missionary societies that will withdraw on account of the conscience clause cannot be large, and India need not regret the departure of those who are so keen on conversion.

The need of a conscience clause has never engaged the serious attention of the Indian public. The Education Commission of 1882 was of opinion that the Indian parent ought to have the option of withdrawing his boy from religious instruction. In places where a school was within easy reach which did not make such instruction compulsory it thought the parent had a practical option and required no relief. Where, however, such practical option did not exist, the Commission recommended that a legal option should be provided by the Government. For this purpose it proposed the following modified conscience clause: "When the only institution of any particular grade existing in any town or village is an institution in which religious instruction forms a part of the ordinary course, it shall be open to parents to withdraw their children from attendance at such instruction without forfeiting any of the benefits of the institution." The Government of India approved of the proposal, but the Secretary of State refused his sanction on the ground that no practical difficulty had arisen from the absence of such a clause. This decision was probably owing to the influence of missionary bodies whose help in the work of education was then even more indispensable than it now is. Since that time the educated men of the land have begun to feel a new pride in their ancient civilisation, and see in the compulsory religious teaching of mission schools a degradation of their faith and a slur on their conscience. The recent action of the Travancore State in enacting a conscience clause is the herald, let us hope, of the approaching emancipation throughout India of the non-Christian pupils of mission schools. The desire that native managers are showing to impart instruction in Hinduism to Hindu pupils may also give rise to different schools of thought which will require to be protected from each other by the conscience clause. There is

reason to believe that the Department of Education will be as a whole favourable to the introduction of the conscience clause. As *The Indian Social Reformer* said some time ago, the Government will not grant any considerable concession simply because it is just on abstract grounds or flows logically from accepted premises. The people must make it clear in the usual constitutional manner that they feel strongly on the matter, and are thoroughly in earnest about it.

OUR ENGLISH LETTER.

CAMBRIDGE, February 1905.

If things go on as they are doing, the old tag will no longer be true—"when Greek meets Greek, then comes the tug of war." Greek has at last met science and modern languages, and the conflict is more vigorous than any since the 'Battle of the Books' in which Boyle and Bentley met so valorously. Some months ago a Syndicate was appointed to discuss the revision of the 'Little-Go.' After a thorough discussion, they have issued their proposals, which amount substantially to this. Greek and Latin are to be made slightly harder; but, in place of one of them, candidates are to be allowed to take either French or German (or in certain cases a modicum of both). It is this that has set the educational world by the ears; and I have already referred to the stir that has been made by similar proposals (which failed) at Oxford. Theoretically, of course, the attack is as much upon Latin as upon Greek; but, whatever may happen in the future, it is recognised, and rightly, that Greek alone is seriously threatened, and the phrase used everywhere is 'abolition of compulsory Greek.' It is safe to say that the weight of professional opinion is in favour of the change. Many Headmasters of Secondary Schools agree, and those who do not are not the most distinguished. Some speak very strongly: Mr. Glazebrook of Clifton says that 'pass Greek at Cambridge is an unmitigated evil'; Dr. Wood of Harrow that 'the present amount of Greek required for a pass degree is of no educational value and a waste of time'; Mr. Sanderson of that rising school, Oundle, that 'compulsory Greek sacrifices the many for the benefit of the few.' Among assistant-masters, who on such a point are far better judges than their chiefs, opinion is still stronger and almost unanimous. At the general meeting of the Incorporated Association of Assistant-Masters the voting in favour of the recommendations of the Syndicate was overwhelming.

It is to be feared, however, that the recommendations will be rejected; and thus schools will be compelled to go on teaching, to boys whose minds are not fitted to receive it, a subject which necessarily takes up a vast amount of time, and which is inevitably forgotten when once the 'Little-Go' is past. If it is asked, why do not the schools decide the question for themselves? the answer is that in these days no school of importance can afford to neglect the curricula of Oxford or Cambridge. What they require, it has to supply: and this will go on until the younger Universities acquire, by process of time, some of the prestige which belongs to the older. But that time will come all the sooner in consequence of the obscurantist policy of the older ones. If, as is likely, Cambridge rejects the scheme, it will be largely because Oxford has led the way, and it is felt that the two should move (either backwards or forwards) together. Meanwhile the air is thick with fly-sheets from the advocates of both sides, and the *Times* can hardly find room in its columns for the daily splutterings of pens.

The Greek question naturally dwarfed all others at the recent meeting of the Incorporated Association of Headmasters—a body which, as I have often pointed out, must on no account be confused with the more exclusive and aristocratic Headmasters' Conference, but which shows a business capacity that is often absent from the deliberations of its rival. On this occasion it met at the Guildhall, under the presidency of the Rev. James Went of Leicester. The resolution on the subject of Greek was moved by Mr. Swallin of Chigwell, and came to this, that candidates for honours in mathematics and science should be able to substitute a modern language for Greek in the 'Little-Go'; and that a new degree in mathematics and science should be instituted, with a different title from degrees in arts. To this last proposal we feel the strongest objection; for, whatever might be the intention, the result would be that these degrees would be regarded as inferior to the others—and it is precisely this inequality which it is the whole object of the present agitation to remove. But for this inequality, science men could easily get a degree at London or Birmingham: but what they want is the prestige of degrees at Oxford or Cambridge. It will be noticed—and this is an important point—that this resolution (which was carried) does not excuse Greek to *pass-men* but only to certain classes of honour-men: i.e., a modicum of Greek is to be required from all these who do not prove the possession of considerable talent in something else. This will involve a special hardship for those who try for honours

in these subjects and fail. If they wish a degree at all, they will have to take up Greek, often after having never done any, and often after having renounced it for years.

Mr. Went's opening address was also interesting for its review of the present condition of Secondary Schools. He said with truth that the equipment of many of them—their class-rooms, scientific apparatus, and the like—would not be tolerated in Elementary Schools. But he hoped for an improvement in the near future, partly in consequence of the Education Act, and partly by the natural operation of public opinion. Others spoke of the assistant master. Mr. Daniel mentioned a school at which, of the thirty-two assistants only six are permitted to marry, and they only by a kind of special license. Many other schools could be named where something of the same sort prevails. While this lasts, one of the chief weaknesses of public schools—the absence of refining feminine influence—will continue to be felt: yet, until assistant masters are paid better, it is difficult to see what can be done. As long as there is no regular advance in salary, and as long as the teacher is paid no better than a carpenter, so long will this compulsory celibacy endure.

There is an interesting article in the current '*Strand Magazine*' on the alleged deterioration of the public schoolboy of to-day as compared with his predecessor of forty or fifty years ago. Several of the best known Headmasters give their views on this question—and it is curious to observe how—of course without collusion—they give utterance to the same ideas, and even use the same stock quotations. In fact, if two schoolboys sent in to them papers so similar, they would probably suspect 'cribbing.' But they are all optimistic, and all deny any great or general falling-off. So far as the fear is justified, they ascribe the degeneracy to the curse of examinations—a very striking and important agreement of opinion. Canon Lyttelton of Haileybury believes there is less 'grit' and strength of character, and he also thinks that the reading of magazines, which is almost universal, tends to sap mental power. But the most remarkable point of agreement is as to the mental injury done by the vast number of over-annotated texts. So much is done in the way of explanation in the notes to classical works that the boy has no thinking to do. On this point Dr. Warre of Eton is corroborated by Dr. Wood of Harrow; and everyone who knows anything of schools knows that what they say is true. What with the help given by masters and the help given by notes, the boy no longer exerts his brain

as his predecessor did; and the result is, not an alert and active intellect, but a head stuffed with a mass of shoddy and useless knowledge. In this one respect we might do a little of the 'wise letting-alone' of our ancestors; and aim rather at training our pupils than at cramming them with ill-digested facts acquired at no end of mental exertion.

Cambridge has recently been a perfect home of sudden death. Constantly we are hearing of the unexpected loss of some man of eminence; and the last loss is the most serious of all. Few people indeed knew of the illness of the Rev. Austen Leigh, Provost of King's, when they heard of his death. He had been a member of that college for over forty years, and had seen it advance from a mere appanage of Eton into one of the very chiefest colleges in the kingdom. During the last eighteen or twenty years he had been its Head; and it is safe to say that no one could have guided it better through the period of change and stress. He never made an enemy; he was known and respected throughout the University; and, though his college has more able men in proportion to its size than any other, his place will indeed be hard to fill.

Reviews and Notices.

THE ARCTIC HOME IN THE VEDAS, BY MR. BAL GANGADHAR TILAK. Price Rs. 4.

We owe an apology to Mr. Tilak for such a late review of his valuable book. But the delay was due to circumstances beyond the control of the editor or the reviewer, and the book, we are happy to state, is such that it will not lose its value or usefulness by the efflux of time.

It will be wrong to view the above book as adding one more theoretical speculation to the several divergent opinions already existing regarding the original home of the Indo-Aryan race. In our opinion, its chief value consists in its having inaugurated a new era in the sphere of Vedic exegetics. The theory propounded herein by the author, namely, that our forefathers of the prehistoric past lived near and around the North Pole within the Arctic circle before they were forced to migrate southwards by a formidable glacial invasion, furnishes a wonderful and easy key to the interpretation of many Vedic passages whose explanation, as given by Sayana and others of the orthodox school,—nay, even by unfettered research-loving Orientalists like Professor Max Müller—has hitherto failed to satisfy

the fastidious student of antiquarian history. The origin of the book is an interesting episode. Mr. Tilak, not content with the antiquity (2400 B. C.) assigned by Western scholars to the oldest portions of the Vedas, began a few years ago a searching enquiry into the question, and showed in his *Orion* that this date must be thrown back to at least 4500 B. C. about which time the vernal equinox was in the constellation of Orion, as indicated by certain astronomical statements found in the Vedas. The spirit of research did not, however, find a resting place at this point, and the present work is the result of his further labours in the same field but in a different direction. The following is a brief summary of the more important arguments advanced in the book under review.

The special astronomical features of the Arctic region are too well-known to need reiteration. The year-day of six months' sunshine and six months' darkness at the Pole, nights of various duration ranging from one day to six months in the year, the long-protracted eagerly expected dawns during which the sun will be circling and circling along the horizon for days and days together, are to us mere food for the imagination, but are nevertheless unmistakable astronomical facts. Now, there are certain traditions and Vedic passages which seem to fit in rationally with these Arctic phenomena alone. The tradition about a day and night of the gods of six months each, corresponding to the division of our year into Devayāna and Pitriyāna is an instance in point. In the dawn-hymns of the Rig-Veda which have acquired a celebrity for the beauty and grandeur of their conceptions, there are passages wherein *Ushas* or the deity of the dawn is addressed in the plural. A dawn of such a long duration is hinted at, that, while it lasted, a thousand verses of the Rig-Veda had to be recited. An interval of several days is said to elapse between the first appearance of light and the actual sunrise. A band of thirty continuous dawns is also spoken of. That a dawn should be said to consist of several days must have been an inexplicable puzzle to our commentators which could be got rid of only by artificial explanations. The *Taittiriya Samhita* contains a tradition that in a former age the night was so long that men feared it would not dawn. There are prayers in the Rig-Veda to enable the worshipper to reach safely the end of the night, and it is highly improbable that such an anxious concern would be felt about the ordinary night of twelve hours we are acquainted with. The seven suns mentioned as born of Aditi are explained by Mr. Tilak as representing seven months of sunshine

on the analogy of the twelve *Adityas* presiding over the twelve months of the year in later literature. An important relic of the Arctic calendar is preserved in the sacrifices of the Navagvas and Dasagvas which are said to have lasted for nine and ten months respectively. The question arises why the sacrifice lasted for only ten months instead of one full year as in comparatively recent times, and the only possible answer that suggests itself is that the other two months were a period of continuous darkness. The mention of an ancient year of five seasons also tends to the same conclusion. According to the Aitareya Brahmana, the type of annual sacrifices, the *gavāmayanam* or Cow's Walk lasted for 10 or 12 months, which indicates an ancient sacrificial year of 10 months. Night sacrifices lasting for a hundred nights are mentioned and the reference is clearly to the long Arctic night. This also explains why Indra should be called *Sata-kratu* or the master of a hundred sacrifices. This chapter headed "Cow's Walk" is one of the most interesting in the book, more so as it gives incidentally a description of the origin and the history of the Soma sacrifice, and explains in detail how the ancient sacrificial system, which corresponded very closely with the ancient year, has in later times been adapted to suit the new calendar. The two following chapters are no less interesting. The *Nairukta* (the etymological or the naturalistic) school headed by Yaska, struck a new note in Vedic interpretation by maintaining that the Vedic deities represent certain cosmical and physical phenomena such as the appearance of the dawn or the breaking up of the storm clouds by the lightning or the triumph of spring over snow and winter. These three theories, known respectively as the Dawn theory, the Storm theory and the Vedic theory, have helped very much in unravelling several knotty points in Vedic tradition. But still there are a few legends which none of these three theories is able to explain fully, consistently and satisfactorily. One such instance is the myth about the struggle between Indra and Vritra and the final conquest of the former over the latter, resulting, it is said, in the simultaneous recovery of light and waters. The Dawn theory can explain the recovery of light and the Storm theory the recovery of the waters, but neither can singly account for the compound result, which can be explained away only by the Arctic theory. The exact date of commencement of Indra's fight with *Sambara* (another name of Vritra) is given as the "fortieth in autumn," which means the 10th day of the eighth month when the sun disappeared below

the horizon. Scholars, who have till now missed the clue, have been interpreting the phrase to mean "the fortieth autumn," not knowing what it exactly signified. We next come to the legend of the *Asvins* which has hitherto been explained on the Vernal theory as referring to the restoration in spring of the powers of the winter sun. There are however references in the legend to blindness and darkness which make it intelligible only on the Arctic theory. The author makes a little diversion from his appointed track and points out that the name of Rama's father (*Dasaratha* or ten-carred) and the ten heads of *Ravana* in the *Ramayana* must have some significance and suggests that they might possibly have reference to the ten bright months of the ancient year.

This in brief is the gist of Mr. Tilak's arguments for an 'Arctic home in the Vedas.' With his interpretation of individual passages here and there, it is easy to find fault. It may perhaps be said that the several passages which speak of dawns in the plural are equally explicable on the supposition of a number of successive, instead of continuous dawns, or that the meaning of 'month' assigned to the word *yuga* in the legend of *Dirghatamas* is a little strained. But Mr. Tilak does not make the assertion that he is infallible. The reader must judge the huge mass of evidence adduced herein as a connected whole, and any one who does this impartially must perforce admit that the Arctic theory has been sufficiently established. The evidence, though mostly circumstantial, is enough to make out a *prima facie* case. To quote the author's own words, "it is not to be expected that the evidence on each and every one of these points will be equally conclusive, especially as we are dealing with facts which existed thousands of years ago. But if we bear in mind that the facts are astronomically connected in such a way that if one of them is firmly established all the others follow from it as a matter of course, the cumulative effect of the evidence discussed in the previous chapters cannot fail to be convincing. It is true that many of the passages quoted in support of the Arctic theory, are interpreted, in the way I have done, for the first time; but I have already pointed out that this is due to the fact that the real key to the interpretation of these passages was discovered only during the last 30 or 40 years." This also reveals the real attitude of Mr. Tilak towards the orthodox school of which he does not utter one disparaging word.

Corroboration is not wanting in the literature of other nations. The last month of the Roman

year being called December or the tenth month points to an ancient year of ten months. But the most important corroboration is to be found in the *Zend-Avesta* of the Zoroastrians which speaks of an *Airyana Vaejo*, the first created land representing the Paradise of the Iranians. *Angra Mamiyu*, hostile to *Ahura Mazdao*, introduced winter and snow into this beautiful land and under the altered conditions "ten months of winter are there and two months of summer," apparently in the place of the former ten months of summer and two of winter. It is said that the sun, moon and stars "rose but once a year" and that "a year seemed only as a day" to the inhabitants thereof. What corroborative testimony can be stronger than the above?

After all the doubt may arise in lay minds how the bleak icy regions around the North Pole can be dreamt of as having been once inhabited by the ancestors of the Aryan race. But geology comes to the rescue. It has recently been proved that there were alternations of glacial and inter-glacial periods, and that during the last of these inter-glacial periods at least the Arctic regions were as good as the temperate zone and were only rendered unfit for human habitation by the mighty cataclysm of a glacial invasion. We cannot pose as expert in this field and must accept what is pronounced by the "learned doctors." It is this geological discovery which, Mr. Tilak says, rendered possible at all the enunciation of an Arctic theory.

There are of course a few admittedly weak points in the Arctic theory. Dr. Croll and others maintain that about 80,000 years must have elapsed since the end of the last inter-glacial and the commencement of the post-glacial period, while the American view, supported to some extent by no less an authority than Prof. Geikie, fixes this date at 8,000 B. C. at the best. This vast divergence of opinion about such a vital question must affect to a large extent our progress in the Arctic theory. For it is not asserted that the several Vedic passages cited in evidence are direct statements of actually perceived phenomena. They can only be interpreted as containing relics of ancient and inexplicable traditions. Now, if the interval between the inter-glacial period and the earliest date assigned to the oldest portion of the Vedas be anything enormously large, these traditions could not have been preserved and handed down to posterity in spite of the wonderful memory-training system of old to which we owe the preservation of so much that is valuable in our literature. This is a difficulty which remains

yet to be solved. Another matter of doubt is the absence of any allusion in the Vedas to the *aurora borealis* which is a special phenomenon of the Arctic circle. This too awaits further investigation.

Neither space nor the interest of the general reader would allow us to quote and explain more from this valuable book. We think we have sufficiently indicated the general nature of what is undisputedly an epoch making work in Indology, which not only does credit to Mr. Tilak—for that goes without saying—but also proves the mighty possibilities of an Indian mind imbued with the best culture of both the East and the West.

S. VENKATARAMANA AITAR.

SCOTT'S ROKEBY, CANTOS I AND II, EDITED BY PROF.

R. SCOTT, M.A. (K. AND J. COOPER, BOMBAY).

Do. PARAPHRASE OF, BY J. DYMOND, (K. AND J. COOPER, BOMBAY).

Do. EDITED BY A. C. SHUTIE, B.A. (SELVAN & CO., MADRAS).

Do. EDITED BY W. E. HOARE, M. A. (SRINIVASA, VARADACHARI & CO., MADRAS).

Do. EDITED BY E. WINCKLER, B.A. (THOMPSON & CO., MADRAS).

It is certainly hard enough to be driven by the University authorities to teach Scott's poems: but to prepare annotated editions of the rapid stuff! Truly the gentlemen who have devoted their energy to the preparation of the editions noted above are worthy of pity. For it appears on an examination of these books that the Indian student requires elaborate critical introductions, full notes, explanatory paraphrase, &c. The labour of elaborating it all must be nauseating. We find that the Indian student is so enfeebled by his previous educational treatment that, in the F.A. classes, he needs notes—not etymological or semantic, but feebly synonymous—on such words as 'stout,' 'passing sight,' 'air,' 'magic.' An edition—if such there were of Rokeby—that led the way into literature with parallel quotations from this and other poets, that gave the history of words of importance in English literature,—would, we imagine, find no sale. What is wanted by the bazaar publishers and the student purchasers is a book that will cram with deleterious paraphrase and synonyms, that will serve

the private candidate's need and make vain all good teaching and all first-hand work on the part of the student.

Of these editions that by Mr. Hoare is to our mind the best: next, that of Mr. Scott. Candidly our reason is that the notes they give—though far too many—are less ‘*informe, horrendum*’ than the others. They contain no paraphrase. More, they seem less hastily compiled than the editions of Messrs. Winckler and Shutie.

Is it really necessary that the Indian student should be so provided? Should he not think for himself? Use a dictionary for himself? These and all editions of the type do his thinking and his dictionary-hunting vicariously. We would that all pedagogues of conviction would unite into “a League of Mercy to the Indian student,” wherein the oath of membership should be to refuse the writing or encouragement of the use of such editions as these. Mind, we say nothing serious against the latter, if their necessity for cramming purposes be allowed. We do, however, deny their educational value: nay, we condemn them as educationally valueless.

[We learn that the purchaser of the first gets the second of the books noticed above for nothing. The books are by the same publishers. Comment is needless].

INTERMEDIATE F.A. PSYCHOLOGY CONTAINING AN ANALYSIS OF LADD'S PRIMER OF PSYCHOLOGY, &c., BY KISHAN SINGH, B.A., M.R. A.S. (CHUSMA-I-NOOR PRESS), AMRITSAR. Price Re. 1, as. 4.

Mr. Kishan Singh's earnest endeavour to help the students of the Punjab University in the study of Psychology is much to be commended, and we are inclined to think that his analysis must prove of very great use to such of the students as study the original very carefully. We should, however, advise these students to attempt an analysis themselves as this would afford good training to the mind.

Every analysis ought to combine clearness with brevity of statement. In the Introduction which is perhaps the author's own, Psychology as a branch of Mental Science is defined as the science of the states of mind, and is distinguished from what our author calls Nomology (he means Nomology of Mind) as the science of the laws of mind. But immediately below, a definition of Psychology is given which covers the ground of Nomological Psychology as well. This

is apt to puzzle the young reader and certainly requires explanation.

In answering the question, what is Psychology? our author introduces the example which Prof. Ladd introduces, but does not make use of it to explain the psychological point of view in the way in which Prof. Ladd does. The example not being made to serve the purpose for which it is intended, the logical sequence between that and what follows is not clear.

We are told on page 5 that “like all other sciences there are two principal ways of studying the mental processes;” and these are stated to be (a) by *describing or ascertaining* the facts of consciousness, for which Psychology employs *Introspection*, and (b) by *explaining* the facts of consciousness, for which Psychology employs the method of *Objective Observation*. How Mr. Singh distinguishes between (a) and (b) and what he means by “explaining” we do not understand. Explaining a phenomenon is stating the conditions of its occurrence. But we suspect he means by “explaining” “describing by language.” In whatever sense he might have used it, it is impossible to know how Objective Observation affords special facilities for gaining the end sought. Introspection and Objective Observation are both useful for gathering the facts of consciousness.

Our ambitious author discerns three steps in the method described by Ladd of arriving at the laws of Psychology. “Making hypothesis” is mentioned as the first step, and “deriving laws from great numbers of facts” is mentioned as the second step. This is utterly unintelligible. We are further told that “testing these laws by experiment” is a deductive process, which it is not. It is the inductive process *par excellence*.

As the first objection against the pleasure-pain theory of feelings, Mr. Singh says, “Feeling being an elementary form of mental life can never be resolved into mere pleasure and pain.” This means probably that an elementary form of mental life ought to be more numerous in kind than pleasure and pain can embrace. Why it should be more numerous, we fail to see. But the language employed is even susceptible of being absurdly construed, *i.e.*, feeling, being elementary, is not susceptible of further resolution, &c. It must be noted that Prof. Ladd merely says that “feeling as an aspect of all conscious life is never to be resolved into mere pleasure and pain.”

In page 111, “fear of telling lies” is given as an example of immoral sentiments. In the same

page, writers who hold that conscience as a separate mental faculty is of the nature of emotion, are represented as holding that its function is to reveal what is right and wrong in the conduct of men. This is an unfortunate mistake not certainly to be found in the original. Again, in arguing that conscience as Judgment is not a separate faculty, our author says, "Judgment about matters of right and wrong, is a special kind of judgment, and is also like other judgments in certain respects." This is a total perversion of Ladd who says that it is *not* a special kind of judgment, and is *precisely* similar to judgment about all other matters.

In page 119, Prof. Ladd is represented as saying "Weakness of Will consists in calmly viewing all the consequences of an action and in readily coming to a conclusion." But Prof. Ladd himself says "Weakness of Will may consist in 'getting stuck fast' in one's feelings and emotions and to deliberating indefinitely without any power to decide 'for one's self.' How Mr. Singh got his meaning out of this expression, we are unable to say. There are also loose modes of expression, such as, "examples of mental work done in the brain," which a good Psychologist would certainly avoid. Many orthographical errors have also crept in, such as, "seperate" which occurs in three different places in the same page, "Experientialists," "Nativeism," &c.

A HAND-BOOK OF THE ORDINARY DIALECT OF THE
TAMIL LANGUAGE, BY THE REV. G. Ū. POPE,
M.A., D.D. PART II. KEY TO THE EXERCISES
WITH NOTES OF ANALYSIS (CLARENDON PRESS).
Price 5s. net.

We had the pleasure of reviewing some months back the revised (7th Edition) of Dr. Pope's Hand-book. The second part which is before us gives generally accurate renderings in English and Tamil of the Tamil and English passages given in the Hand-book for translation practice. But there are some renderings which puzzle one, as in page 37 (Exercise 28) இவன் சென்னைப்பயனுக்குத் திறந்திருந்த கதவு is given as equivalent to *The door which he had opened for the little boy.* இவன் may come with advantage after சென்னைப்பயனுக்கு. It would remove then the ambiguity in the Tamil rendering. இவன் may mean இவனுடைய. In 59 (Exercise 45) 4. அப்பங்கள் இருக்கையில் எங்களுக்குப்போதும் is the rendering of *While there are rice-cakes there is enough for us.* The Tamil rendering by itself will not convey

any sense to a Tamilian ignorant of English. Again in 58, Dr. Pope supposes that அடா and அடி are corrupt forms of அடா, அடி (*ami, amie*). We are doubtful of the suggested connection. There is a great deal to be said in favour of the popular etymology which would connect the word with அடிமை, அடியான். There is little else we find in the book to find fault with. As we said before, the Translation master would be able to do his work more satisfactorily than now if he should put himself under the guidance of this veteran Tamil Scholar.

THE GOLDEN TREASURY, BY F. T. PALGRAVE, REVISED AND ENLARGED (MACMILLAN & CO.)
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It would be difficult to estimate the service that Palgrave's Golden Treasury has rendered towards the formation of a healthy taste for what is best in English poetry. There may be difference among critics as to what is poetry and what is not. But of this there can be no question--that the poems selected by F. T. Palgrave and read by so many thousands of readers are among the most cherished possessions of the English language. And the republication of the book in a cheap form is a public good in as much as it is making it accessible to thousands to whom 2s. 6d. would have been too big an amount to spare. The get up of the book is above all praise. Except for the cover, the book differs in no way from the original 1s. 6d. edition, or from the reduced price edition for 2s. 6d. net. There is the frontispiece of the shepherd boy piping as though he should never be old, and there are the notes and the introductions to the several books which the discerning reader will prize as they deserve.

VIVEKA CHANDRIKA, BY T. A. SWAMINATHA AIYAR,
(SATAKOPACHARI & CO, MADRAS) Price 8 as.

Viveka Chandrika is a collection of choice parables culled mainly from the great Hindu Epics and Purans by Mr. T. A. Swaminatha Aiyar, Editor of the "Arya," Madras. The book is edited by Mr. M. S. Purnalingam Pillai, B.A., with an Introduction in Tamil by Mr. S. Radhakrishna Aiyar, B.A., Principal, Maharaja's College, Pudukottai. The collection is on the whole a happy one and may be read with interest by boys and girls in the Lower Secondary Schools. With the exception of some classical Tamil and

Sanskrit words (most of which are parenthetically explained) the lessons are written in readable Tamil, most of them ending with an apt quotation from the Kural. Among the contents are to be found Early Habits, Sweet Words, Pride, Patience, Perseverance, Keeping up Promises, Temperance, Honoring parents and elders, Helping friends, Loving brothers and sisters, &c., &c., the number of lessons coming up to sixty. Messrs. Satakopachari & Co., deserve credit for the neat get-up of the book.

ÉMILE ET HÉLÈNE, A FRENCH PRIMER, BY MRS. J. G. FRAZER (MACMILLAN & CO.) Price 1s.

SIEPMANN'S PRIMARY FRENCH COURSE, SECOND PART, (MACMILLAN & CO.) Price 2s. 6d.

The first of the books consists of a number of delightfully simple narratives pleasingly written so as to interest the children. The Grammar and the exercises are easy enough for beginners, and based on the Reader. The language teacher must be more than ordinarily dull who can make a mess of the lesson with such a book to go on with.

Mr. Siepmann's book opens with an introduction on French pronunciation. An elaborate phonetic system is employed. The introduction is followed by a reader with foot-notes drawing attention to the pages in the phrase book, Grammar and exercises portion. The book is planned in an eminently practical and useful manner and it may be safely commended for class use.

BELA'S CONCISE LATIN COURSE, BY E. C. MARCHANT, M.A., AND J. G. SPENCER, B.A. (BELL AND SONS). Price 2s.

The first 53 pages give the student a summary of the elementary principles of Latin Grammar. Then follow exercises bearing on the grammatical portion. The subject-matter of the exercises is made interesting and amusing. The pedagogic principle of leading the student from the known to the unknown, from the concrete to the abstract is recognised in the arrangement of the book. There are useful vocabularies and word-lists at the end.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

DEPARTMENTAL NOTIFICATIONS.

Lieutenant-Colonel, W. B. Browning M.D., C.I.E., I.M.S., is appointed to act as Principal, Medical College, Madras, during the absence of Lieutenant-Colonel J. Maitland, I.M.S., on leave, or until further orders.

Mr. S. Swaminadha Aiyar, is appointed Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Srivaikuntam range.

Mr. T. N. Sadagopachari, B.A., is appointed Sub-Inspector of Schools, Tuticorin range, in the probationary class, *vice* Mr. S. Swaminadha Aiyar, transferred.

Mr. P. Ramanujachari, is posted Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Jammalmadugu range To join on relief.

The Hon'ble Sir C. A. White, Kt., resigns his office of Vice-Chancellor of the Madras University.

Lieutenant-Colonel Henry Thomson, I.M.S., is appointed to act as Superintendent, Reformatory School, Chingleput, during the absence of Captain T. H. Foulkes, I.M.S., on leave, or until further orders.

The Hon'ble Mr. R. S. Benson, is appointed Vice-Chancellor of the University of Madras.

Major C. Donovan, M.D., I.M.S., is appointed to act as Professor of Medical Jurisprudence, Medical College, Madras, during the employment of Lieutenant-Colonel W. B. Browning, M.D., C.I.E., I.M.S., on other duty or until further orders.

Dr. S. Sathianadhan M.A., LL.D., has furlough for eight months in continuation of the ensuing summer vacation of the Presidency College.

Mr. C. E. Odgers, M.A., B.C.L., Barrister-at-Law, Junior Professor, Law College, Madras, is to act as Principal and Senior Professor in the same College, during the absence of Mr. R. A. Nelson, on leave or until further orders.

Mr. S. Swaminathan, Barrister-at-Law, is to act as Junior Professor, Law College, Madras, *vice* Mr. C. E. Odgers on other duty or until further orders.

The appointment of Mr. Odgers to have effect from the 22nd February, 1905, and the appointment of Mr. Swaminathan, from the date of joining.

We are glad to announce that Mr. R. Venkataratnam, Principal of the Pittapur Rajah's College, Cocanada, has been made an *ex-officio* member of the College Council.

THE Jubilee anniversary of the Doveton Protestant College was celebrated on the 6th March, with H.E. The Governor of Madras in the chair. Mr. W. E. Hoare referred in his report to the lack of trained Europeans and Eurasians to take up educational work, the reason being that education was not as properly valued as it should be by the community. With regard to the strength of the School, Mr. Hoare said:—

The number of pupils in 1904 was 160 against 143 in 1903. I am sorry to say that at present (March) our numbers are down again to 144. No fewer than

thirty-five boys were refused promotion. Of these 18 were removed from the school, either to be put to a trade, in which case the removal was judicious and was in many cases advised by me, or in order to be sent to another school, a course which was of doubtful expediency. In some cases the boys would have been kept with us, if we had agreed to promote them.

H. E. Lord Ampthill in the course of his speech, referred very favourably to the scheme of religious instruction that was in vogue at the College.

A MEETING of the Madras Teachers' Guild was held on the 2nd instant, at Pachaiyappa's College, for the purpose of considering the following motion, of which notice had been given by Mr. C. K. Govinda Rao:—"That it is desirable that the University should, on receipt of a fee, forward to the heads of institutions the answer books of a candidate, together with the instructions of the Chief Examiners to their Assistants, if any."

In opening the proceedings the Chairman read a letter from Mr. J. A. Yates, Principal, Pachaiyappa's College, in the course of which he expressed the opinion that, as the proposition stood, it was altogether impracticable, and would, if carried out, be detrimental to the interests of education. He meant to have attended the Meeting and spoken very strongly against it. He was in favour of a right of appeal but one limited by a payment of a heavy fee, say Rs. 10, so as to prevent the possibility of a frivolous appeal. He added that the confidential instructions issued by the Chief to the Assistant Examiners ought never to be published; even in the most democratic countries they were not and could not be. But he was in favour of brief and useful Reports by the Examiners on the typical errors both of the Examinees and the teachers.

Mr. GOVINDA RAO then moved the proposition of which he had given notice. He referred to the growing dissatisfaction with the results of the Matriculation Examination during the last twelve years. These results left the teachers more and more puzzled as to what sort of work was expected of them. He was of opinion that the evil was due to the fact that Examiners did not know the capacity of the examinees, a fact which need not surprise them when they recollected that the Examiners were Europeans who were in no way connected with High School education. He contrasted the method of examinations for the Matriculation and the F.A. and the B.A. In the F.A., for instance, the minimum in one subject was lowered, which had the effect of making more candidates pass than was possible or ever attained in the Matriculation. What, again, was meant by the proposing of alternative questions in the Science paper for the B.A.? His point was that safeguards which were found necessary to provide against failure in the higher University Examinations were not thought necessary for the Matriculation. His main contention was that if such safeguards were necessary for the B.A., the

Examiners for which were familiar with the examinees, they were at any rate equally necessary for the Matriculation, the Examiners of which were not conversant with their examinees. He quoted the figures showing the results of the last ten years' Matriculation Examination in each single subject, and commented upon the disparity in the number of failures year after year. These failures might possibly be due to the unscrupulous method of heads of institutions in admitting pupils into the VIth form and presenting them for the examination; but they were also attributable to the vagaries of the Examiners and their ignorance of the standard to which the pupils were worked up. Dealing with the second part of his motion, he emphasised the need for scrutiny of the answer books, and gave instances of deserving boys being put in the failure list, who, on a scrutiny of the answer books, had had to be placed on the pass list. After all, the aim of the teacher was to secure as many passes as he could; that was the goal of his ambition and the result which the Education Department expected of him. So long as efficiency was tested by the percentage of passes, the complaint was not unreasonable that, as matters at present stood, there was no check whatsoever upon the vagaries of Examiners.

Mr. POLLARD remarked that he was not convinced that the change proposed was desirable. The figures quoted by the mover proved not that the change he proposed should be introduced, but that the Matriculation Examination should be carried on in a different way. His opinion was that one-half the candidates presented for the Matriculation ought not to be presented. He said nothing against the character, industry or desire for work of the boys; but he must say that this Examination-going was a great waste of young life; and what they needed in India was another outlet for this young energy finding suitable occupation. He was of opinion that on the Examination Boards there were those who had experience of High School education. The existing checks were quite sufficient to make the Examiners conform to the standard for which the examinees were worked up. The proposal to have the answer books of candidates scrutinised by Headmasters would constitute an unwarrantable interference with the privileges and the discretion of the Chief Examiners whose decision should be final.

Mr. SRINIVASA SASTRI was for a separation of the Board of Examiners for the different University Examinations. He failed to understand what harm would result from the publication of the instructions which the Chief Examiners gave to their Assistants. If such a thing had been done this year with regard to the Science paper, startling revelations would have been made. He expressed himself averse to the change advocated in the former part of the proposition.

Mr. LAKSHMI NARASU NAIDU observed that Examiners were more exacting in valuing Matriculation

papers than they were in valuing the F. A. and B. A. papers. For instance, the Examiner added a few marks in the case of candidates who failed in "D. T. M." to enable them to pass. He failed to see why such a course should not be followed in the case of Matriculation candidates. They should agitate for a division of the Boards of Examiners. He believed Dr. Duncan once proposed such a division but the Senate rejected the scheme.

Mr. GOVINDA RAO, in reply, said he would not press for the scrutiny of the answer books of candidates. As regards the second part of his proposition the consensus of opinion undoubtedly was in favour of the change.

After a few remarks from the Chairman the meeting terminated, without a division being taken on the motion, it being understood that the motion so far as it related to the latter part of the proposition should be brought before another meeting of the Guild.

A MEETING of the Senate of the University of Madras was held on the 8th March commencing at 4.30 o'clock. There were about sixty Fellows present.

In the unavoidable absence of the Vice-Chancellor, the Hon'ble Sir Arnold White, the Hon'ble Justice Sir S. Subramania Aiyar proposed and Mr. C. Sankaran Nair, seconded, that Mr. Justice Benson do occupy the chair.

FACULTIES.

The Hon'ble Dr. A. G. Bourne moved the first proposition on the agenda, that the recommendations of the Syndicate in regard to the provisional constitution of the Faculties be proceeded with. He moved that the Senate, for the present be divided into four Faculties, *vis.*, Arts, Law, Medicine, and Engineering.

In moving the proposition, Dr. Bourne said that the Syndicate had recommended four Faculties as only four Faculties existed till now. It was a matter for consideration later on, he thought, whether other Faculties could not be started, for instance Faculties of Commerce, Teaching, Science, &c., but of all the Faculties to be started later on, Science was no doubt the subject requiring their immediate and best consideration. Under the present circumstances, under which Science and Arts were so mixed up with each other, it was impossible to have a Faculty of Science; but when the time came for it, the matter could be looked into.

Surgeon-General W. R. Browne seconded the proposition.

Dr. Bourne then proposed that the several Faculties be constituted in the following manner:—

ARTS.

Right Rev. H. Whitehead, M.A., D.D.; Hon'ble Sir J. Thomson, M.A., K.C.S.I.; Hon'ble Mr. G. Stokes, B.A., C.S.I.; Hon'ble Mr. A. G. Bourne, D. Sc., F.R.S.; Rev. W. Miller, M.A., LL.D., D.D., C.I.E.; Rev. Canon Sell, D.D.; Mr. John Cook, M.A.; Most Rev. Archbi-

shop Colgan, D.D.; Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck, M.A.; Rev. J. Cooling, B.A.; Mr. John Adam, M.A.; Mr. J. R. Henderson, M.B., F.L.S.; Rev. J. D. W. Sewell, S.J.; Mr. J. H. Stone, M.A.; F.R.H.S.; Mr. A. C. Mitchell, D. Sc., F.R.S.E.; Nawab Imad-ul-Mulk Syed Hussain Bilgrami, B.A.; Mr. A. J. Bhabha, M.A.; Mr. Rao Bahadur K. Nagoji Rao Pantulu, B.A.; Mr. R. L. Jones, M.A., F.R.A.S.; Mr. K. Ramanujachariyar, M.A., B.L.; Rev. W. Skinner, M.A.; Mr. S. Sathyanathan, M.A., LL.D.; Mr. L. C. Williams Pillai, B.A.; Muhammad Aziz-ud-din Husain Sahib Bahadur, Khan Sahib; Mr. Rao Bahadur M. Rangachariyar, M.A.; Rev. M. Phillips, Ph. D.; Mr. A. W. Bishop Ph. D.; Mr. J. P. Kotilingam, M.A.; Rev. J. M. Russell, M.A.; Sir P. N. Krishnamurthi, B.L., K.C.I.E.; Mr. S. Venkobachariyar, B.A.; Mr. S. Mangesha Row, B.A.; Mr. A. Periyaswami Mudaliar, B.A.; Mr. J. M. Velu Pillai; Mr. H. J. Allen, M.A.; Mr. L. D. Swamikannu Pillai, M.A., LL.B.; Mr. P. S. Ganapathi Aiyar, B.A.; Hon'ble Mr. A. Castlestuart Stuart, F.L.S., F.G.S., F.R.G.S.; Ven'ble Archdeacon Hyde, M.A.; Mr. J. A. Yates, M.A.; Mr. J. G. Tait, M.A.; Mr. P. T. Srinivasa Aiyangar, M.A.; Mr. R. Littlehales, B.A.; Mr. K. B. Ramanathan, M.A., B.L., LL.T.; Mr. S. Subramaniya Aiyar, B.A.; Dewan Bahadur the Hon'ble R. V. Srinivasa Aiyer, B.A.; Mr. S. Rangayya Chetti, B.A.; Rev. L. B. Wolf, M.A., D.D.; Mr. A. A. Hall, M.A.; Rev. G. Pittendrigh, M.A.; Mr. M. Viraraghavachariyar, B.A.; Rev. C. W. A. Clarke, M.A.; Mr. T. R. Scott, B.A.; Mr. H. K. Beauchamp, C.I.E.; Mr. W. E. Hoare, M.A.; Rev. E. M. Macphail, M.A., B.D.; Rev. W. I. Chamberlain, Ph. D.; Mr. H. S. Duncan, M.A.; and Nawab Muhammad Raza Khan Bahadur.

In moving the proposition, the Honourable mover said that the main principle adopted in recommending Fellows for the Faculties had been based with special reference to the subject in which the Fellow was the greatest authority.

Surgeon-General Browne seconded the proposition.

Dr. Bourne then proposed the following Fellows to be members of the Faculties of Law, Medicine and Engineering. Certain amendments were proposed and these were not accepted and in the end the following Faculties were constituted, as originally proposed by Dr. Bourne:—

LAW.

Hon'ble Sir C. Arnold White; Sir V. Bhashyam Aiyangar, B.A., B.L., C.I.E.; Mr. John Adam, M.A.; Hon'ble Sir S. Subramania Aiyar, B.L., K.C.I.E.; Mr. C. Sankaran Nair, B.A., B.L., C.I.E.; Mr. B. A. Nelson, M.A., LL.M.; Hon'ble Mr. Justice Benson, M.A., LL.B.; Mr. M. R. Ramakrishna Aiyer, B.A., B.L.; Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Aiyar, B.A., B.L.; Hon'ble Mr. Justice Boddam; Hon'ble Mr. J. E. P. Wallis; Hon'ble Mr. V. C. Desikachariyar, B.A., B.L.; Dewan Bahadur C. Ramachandra Rau Sahib, B.L.; Dewan Bahadur N. Subrahmanyam, B.A., B.L.; Mr. V. Krishnaswami Aiyar, B.A., B.L.; Mr. C. Krishnan, B.A., Bart.-at-Law; Mr. J. Satya Nadar, M.A., M.L.;

Mr. T. V. Seshagiri Aiyar, B.A., B.L.; and Mr. V. C. Seshachariar, B.A., B.L.

MEDICINE.

Surg.-Gen. W. R. Browne, M.D., I.M.S.; Lieut.-Col. J. Maitland, M.D., I. M. S.; Lieut.-Col. A. J. Sturmer, I.M.S.; Lieut.-Col. J. L. VanGeyzel, M.B., I.M.S.; Lieut.-Col. W. G. King M.B., C.M., D.Ph., I.M.S., C.I.E.; and Mr. H. Rangappa, B.A., M.B., C. M.

ENGINEERING.

Mr. B. Hanumantha Rau, B.A.; Mr. F. J. E. Spring, M.A.I., C.I.E.; Mr. W. B. DeWinton; Mr. F. J. Wilson, A.M.I.C.E.; Mr. H. T. Keeling, A.M.I.C.E.; and Mr. W. H. James, B. Sc.

PRESIDENTS OF FACULTIES.

Dr. Bourne then moved that the Faculties be constituted do proceed to elect their representative presidents. He said that in view of the coming convocation, the election of the presidents at an early date was a necessity.

The proposition was seconded by Mr. J. P. Kotilingam, M.A.

The election by ballot of the presidents was then proceeded with, with the following results:—

Arts.—The Hon'ble Dr. A. G. Bourne.

Law.—Sir V. Bhashyam Aiyangar.

Medicine.—Surgeon-General W. R. Browne, M.D., I.M.S.

Engineering.—Mr. F. J. E. Spring, M.A.I., C.I.E.

BOARDS OF STUDIES.

Mr. C. Sankaran Nair next proposed

1. That for the present the Boards of Studies be those indicated in Bye-law 105 of the existing Bye-laws.

2. That Bye-law 107 be annulled.

3. That the Syndicate be authorized to appoint the members of the respective Boards.

The propositions were duly seconded and carried.

REGISTER OF GRADUATES.

Sir S. Subramania Aiyar next moved that the initial fee payable for registration under Section VII (2), of the Act be Rs. 5.

The proposition was seconded by Father Sewell.

Mr. Ganapathy Aiyer proposed and Mr. M. Veeraraghava Chariyar, the Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Aiyar and Mr. K. B. Ramanathan seconded that the amount be reduced from Rs. 5 to Rs. 2. The speakers in general said, that the graduates who were competent to elect and to be elected were poor, and that the payment of Rs. 5 took off a large slice of their bread. The University Commission did not contemplate such a charge, and the Government of India proposed a fee of two rupees. At the time of the consideration of the bill in the local Legislative Council a fee of two rupees had been proposed and this was also strongly objected to: and eventually the Government left the matter in the hands of the Senate. Even the

expenses that would be incurred by the Senate in maintaining the register would easily be met by the fee of Rs. 2.

The proposition as amended was put to the vote and carried.

In connection with the same subject the same speaker moved the next two resolutions, *vis.*, that when a graduate who is entitled to have his name on the register submits his application for registration after the expiry of the period prescribed in Section VII, (2), he shall be required to pay in addition to the initial fee a sum of Rs. 2 for every completed year that may have elapsed since the expiry of the prescribed period, provided that in no such case shall a graduate be called upon to pay more than Rs. 10 in addition to the initial fee of Rs. 2.

2. That the annual fee payable under Section VII, (3), of the Act be Rs. 2, but that a graduate whose name has been entered on the register may at any time compound for all subsequent payments by paying the sum of Rs. 10.

The propositions were duly seconded and carried.

SCHOOLS IN CEYLON.

Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck then moved, and Messrs. C. Sankaran Nair and the Rev. J. Cooling seconded the following propositions:—Carried.

(1) That as a provisional arrangement and notwithstanding anything contained in Bye-laws 129 and 130 (1) Ceylon schools be treated as *recognised* schools, provided that the managers are able to produce certificates, signed by the Director of Public Instruction, Ceylon, to the effect that they are organised and conducted so as to ensure efficient training up to the standard of the Matriculation Examination of the University of Madras; (2) that a pupil from a school so certified be allowed to present himself for examination for Matriculation, provided that he is able to submit a certificate, signed by the head of his school, to the effect that he has attended the school for the greater part of the current school year, that he has received suitable instruction and is qualified to enter upon a University course and that his conduct has been satisfactory.

(2) That, as a provisional regulation under Section XIX of Act VIII of 1904, a candidate for the First Examination in Arts of the University of Madras, who has studied in any of the colleges in Ceylon which before the Act came into force were affiliated to the University of Calcutta, shall be exempted from producing the certificates of attendance required under Bye-law 141, provided he is able to produce a certificate, signed by the head of his college, to the effect that he has studied for a period of two years for the First Examination in Arts in a college in Ceylon which before the Act came into force was affiliated to the University of Calcutta, that he has completed the course of instruction prescribed for the examination, and that his progress and conduct have been satisfactory. (b) That as a provisional regulation under

Section xix. of Act VIII of 1904, a candidate for the B.A. degree examination of the University of Madras, who has studied in any of the colleges in Ceylon which before the Act came into force were affiliated to the University of Calcutta up to the B.A. standard, shall be exempted from producing the certificates of attendance required under Bye-law 150, provided that he is able to produce a certificate, signed by the head of his college, to the effect that he has studied for a period of two years for the B.A. degree examination in a college in Ceylon which before the Act came into force was affiliated to the University of Calcutta, that he has completed the course of instruction prescribed for the examination, and that his progress and conduct have been satisfactory.

ADMINISTRATIVE POWERS.

The Hon'ble Dr. A. G. Bourne then moved that a Committee be appointed to consider and report to the Senate as to the action that should be taken in regard to the powers conferred upon the University by Section 3 of the Indian Universities Act, 1904.

He observed that there had been a considerable amount of discussion both before and after the Act had been passed as regards the administrative details of the University. He had no doubt that they must have an efficient administration. Under the new Act, they had opportunities of making the administration fully efficient. The opportunity had come when they could fully discuss and see what they could do in the matter. Speaking at a Conference of the Universities of the Empire, Sir William Ramsay said that the Indian Universities had not been well represented and that recently even the Commission that had been instructed to find out if any reform could be introduced had failed to do so. In that sense so far as the University Commission was concerned, Sir William Ramsay was not wrong. In proposing the Committee he said he did not wish to have a large number of members on the rolls. In his proposal he was careful of including gentlemen belonging to colleges and other gentlemen of independent views. In conclusion he recommended a Committee consisting of the following gentlemen:—The Vice-Chancellor, the Bishop of Madras, Mr. John Cook, M.A., Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck, M.A., Mr. Sewell, the Rev. Mr. Skinner, Professor M. Rangachariyar, M.A., Mr. J. A. Yates, M.A., the Honorable Mr. R. V. Srinivasa Aiyer, Sir V. Bhashyam Aiyangar, Mr. Justice Sir S. Subramania Aiyar, the Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Aiyar and the mover (Dr. Bourne.) An amendment to add two more names to the list was made, but it fell through.

The original proposition was then put to the vote and carried.

The proceedings then terminated.

BENGAL.

Mr. Boothe, Director of Public Instruction, Assam, reverts shortly to the Bengal Education Service, from which he has been absent nearly eight years.

Rs. 1,19,800 have so far been subscribed to the Ranchi Model College, Maharaja-Dhiraj Bijay Chand Mahatab Bahadur, of Burdwan and the Hon'ble Maharaja Sir Rameshwar Singh Bahadur, K.C.I.E., of Dharbanga, each leading off with Rs. 40,000.

THE annual distribution of prizes to the pupils of Bishop's College School was held on 7th March at the institution premises. The Lord Bishop of Calcutta presided, while Mrs. Copleston distributed the prizes. The Report, which was read by Mr. Chowdry, the Headmaster, showed a very satisfactory state of affairs. The number of boys at the beginning of the year was 48 boarders, 29 day scholars, and 42 boys from the Oxford Mission School, making a total of 108 boys, and the year closed with 104 boys. This year the school started with 117 boys, made up of 49 boarders, 29 day scholars and 39 boys from the Oxford Mission School. As all the boys were Christians and no free boys were admitted, except a few who held scholarships, the school authorities had nothing to complain of under this head. In the last Entrance Examination three boys were successful out of seven students, one in each division.

THE annual prize distribution of La. Martiniere College, was held on the 1st instant in the School Hall. The event also marked the sixty-ninth anniversary of the opening of the school. The Bishop of Calcutta presided. From the Report read by Mr. Alden Wood, we learn that the average monthly strength of the School during 1904 was 154 as against 168 during 1903. The numbers on December 31st, 1904, were 144 as against 160 on December 31st, 1903. The number of boarders increased by five during the year, and the principal falling off was in the number of day boys, of whom fifteen left during the year to go to the hills. The chairman in the course of his remarks said:

A parent must postpone sending his son out to work and give him more time in school. Indeed it was often the case that a boy was sent out into the world too soon. Then to look at the other side, namely, the cost to the school. The more thorough the education was the greater would be the cost to the school. More room would be required, better desks, better pens, better paper, and so on. Then there would also be a demand for apparatus for drill and gymnasiums; and so the greater the completeness and many-sidedness of an institution, so much more was the expenditure required. He was able to give them a few statistics as to the expenditure of schools which the Principal had been kind enough to furnish him with. In 1864 a first grade school in England cost from £12 to £25 a head per year, while a 2nd grade school cost from £6 to £12 a year, the expenditure averaging £15. In 1894, the actual cost of the Grammar School at Birmingham was £28 a head. The Chairman of the Incorporated Association of Headmasters had given the cost of £20 with an average of £28, while the late Mr. Anthony had fixed it at £28 a head. So that they

would see that in 40 years the cost had risen from £15 to £20, or taking the minimum from £6 to £15. The expenses of staff and apparatus had also increased by more than a third, and he thought that as the demand for increased expenditure was felt in England it would be felt in India also.

THE annual distribution of prizes to the pupils of the Calcutta Madrasah was held on the 28th February. The proceedings began with a few comments by the Principal, Dr. Denison Ross, on the annual Report, from which the following extract is taken:—

The average number of pupils on the rolls of the Calcutta Madrasah throughout the school year, namely, March 1903, to March, 1904, was 832, against 827 in the preceding year. Of the 832 pupils above mentioned, 397 were English and 435 Oriental students. It is to be noted, in addition, that 218 students of the Arabic Department attended special classes for instruction in English. The number of Shiah students in the Anglo-Persian Department was 14. There were no Shiah students in the Arabic Department. The total expenditure of the Madrasah from the 1st April 1903, to the 31st March 1904, was as follows:—College Department, Rs. 10,691; Arabic Department, Rs. 16,818; Anglo-Persian Department, Rs. 21,778; total Rs. 49,288. The amount of fees collected during the year was as follows:—College Department, Rs. 1,366; Arabic Department, Rs. 2,343; Anglo-Persian Department, Rs. 4,389; total Rs. 8,099. Lord Kitchener who presided on the occasion referred to the good work that is being done in the Gordon College at Khartoum of which he is the founder.

THE Elliott Prize for Scientific Research will be given this year to the author of the best original essay composed during the year 1905 giving results of original research or investigation by the essayist on Mathematics. Any native of Bengal, including any Eurasian or domiciled European residing in Bengal, may compete for the prize. The essays of competitors must be sent in to the President of the Bengal Asiatic Society, 57, Park Street, Calcutta, by the end of December, 1905. The prize will be adjudged to the best competitor, and awarded publicly at the Annual General meeting of the Asiatic Society in February, 1906. Preference will be given to researches leading to discoveries likely to develop the industrial resources of Bengal. In the case of no essay being deemed by the Trustees to be of sufficient merit, no prize is to be awarded, but the amount is to be retained so that, in future years, two or more prizes may be given, or the prize may be enhanced in the case of an exceptionally good essay.

In a letter to the Government of Bengal now under consideration by the Calcutta Corporation, the Director of Public Instruction calls attention to the smallness of the annual contribution made by the Municipality of Calcutta in the matter of education. About nine years ago, in 1895-96, the contribution to education by the Calcutta Municipal-

ity was only Rs. 4,335, whereas that by the Bombay Municipality was Rs. 67,103. Again in the year 1902-03 the Calcutta Municipality spent Rs. 9,236 out of an allotment of Rs. 10,000, while the Bombay Municipality spent Rs. 1,10,474. In 1903-04 also, the Calcutta Municipality, spent Rs. 14,283 out of Rs. 15,000 sanctioned for educational purposes. Some improvement, no doubt, says the Director, is "traceable in the expenditure for education by the Calcutta Municipality, but when compared with that of the Bombay Municipality the amount seems to be disproportionately small. The principle of making an annual saving out of the very small grant for education made by the Calcutta Municipality also seems to me to be very undesirable in the matter of education when there are so many pressing wants in Calcutta and its neighbourhood." Mr. Pedler goes on to emphasize the very unsatisfactory condition of the Primary Schools in the Presidency Division and to urge that the annual contribution of the Calcutta Municipality should be increased and that the full amount allotted should be spent.

THE *Bengalee* of Feb. 22, calls the attention of the public to a recent circular issued by the D.P.I. of Bengal to Headmasters of Schools. Among the instructions are the following:—

The Admission-Book of a school should accordingly contain the following columns:—

1. Serial number.
2. Name of a boy.
3. Father's name, occupation and income
4. Recognised guardian's name, occupation and income.
5. Place of residence.
6. Condition of residence; whether the boy is living with; (a) parent or (b) guardian, or (c) in a hostel, or (d) in a mess, and in case of (c) or (d) if these are duly recognised.
7. Date of birth (the day, the month and the year must invariably be given.)
8. Age according to the English method in completed years, months and days on the day of admission into the school.
9. Whether the boy has a horoscope, and, if so, whether the age given agrees with it.
10. Signature of father or guardian, if it is a case of first admission to any school and not merely transfer from one school to another.
11. Signature of another respectable gentleman, if it is a case of first admission and not merely transfer from one school to another.
12. School from which the boy comes.
13. Class in which he was reading.
14. Class in which he is admitted.
15. Number and date of transfer certificate.
16. Date of admission.
17. Further information (if any) required by the Inspector of Schools.
18. Remarks.
19. Headmaster's signature.

Rule No. 9 would seem to require that every school should have a collection of old almanacks (difficult of procuring) and also an expert, to verify.

No. 10 is harsh as well as impracticable especially in the case of Mofussil parents or guardians who will be put to much worry and expense. Still more so in the case of No. 11 which requires the signature of a respectable gentleman in the Admission-Book. Under these circumstances our contemporary urges the necessity of a conference of experts and those interested when all these rules can be fully discussed.

THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH AND SEVENTH MEETING OF THE CALCUTTA TEACHERS' CONFERENCE.

The sixth meeting of the Teachers' Conference was held on Saturday at 1 p.m., the 17th December, 1904, in the gallery room of the Hindu School, 136 Teachers, Pundits, &c., representing thirty-two schools attended the Conference.

Babu Sasadhar Sen, Asst. Headmaster, Calcutta Training School, delivered his second lecture on "Object Lessons." The lecturer had brought with him a good number of apparatus from the laboratory of the Training School for the purpose and the students of the 7th class were admitted in the conference room to receive lessons. The lecturer there explained and illustrated by experiments things in a very interesting way.

A discussion followed in which Baboos Hem Chandra Roy, Devendra Nath Ghose, Phani Bhusan Bose, Ishan Chandra Ghose, Brojendra Lal Mukerji, Ashutosh Bhattacharya, Ramaprasad Chandra and Nokari Ghose took part.

The Secretary then read the D. P. I. S. letter of the 9th December, 1904, relating to the publication of lectures and discussions of the Teachers' Conference and proposed that they be published in the *Education Gazette* as desired by the D. P. I. After discussion it was resolved "That the D. P. I. be requested to ask the proprietor of the *Education Gazette* to appoint a competent reporter for taking down the lectures and debates of the Conference with the view of their publication in that paper. The Secretary announced that the next meeting of the Conference will be held on January 7, 1905, and Babu Phani Bhusan Bose, Asst. Inspector of Schools, will deliver a lecture on "How to maintain discipline." The meeting then separated.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SEVENTH MEETING.

The Seventh Meeting of the Teachers' Conference, was held on Saturday, at 1 p.m., the 7th January, 1905, in the Gallery Room of the Hindoo School 177 Teachers, Pundits, &c., representing 47 Schools attended the Conference.

The Secretary expressed regret at the serious illness of Babu Nokari Ghose, Headmaster, Seal's Free College, who was one of the most regular speakers of our Conference and offered prayer for his speedy recovery on behalf of the Conference. He then invited Babu Phani Bhusan Bose, Assistant-Inspector of Schools to deliver his lecture on Discipline in Schools.

Babu Phani Bhusan Bose said that during his twenty years' service in the Bengal Education Department he had worked as a School Master for a few months only, and therefore he could not speak

with the authority of one who had long experience in maintaining Discipline in Schools. However he had excellent opportunities of closely studying the subject as an inspecting officer. Discipline, he said, should begin at home. Discipline in childhood and youth led to the formation of character. In ancient India the pupil used to live with the teacher and was completely under his guidance and influence. Similar arrangements were made in Boarding Schools in Europe. Ours were day schools and consequently teachers could only exert partial control over their pupils. The greater part of the work lay with the guardians at home. There should be a hearty and effective co-operation between the teacher and the parents or guardians. But now-a-days it was not as active as was desirable.

We had a few boarding houses and hostels which removed but a part of our difficulty. The more we had of them the better. The first essential thing in keeping Discipline was order. Order and Discipline were closely related. To maintain order the teacher must have certain qualities himself. Those qualities were:—love of children; hopefulness; interest in work; patience; decision of character; study of child nature, tact; and good moral character. The teacher must pay particular attention to details. He must see that the boys come to school furnished with the necessary books and writing materials. The movements in the class must be well ordered and without noise.

In this connection Drill was very useful. The second essential in keeping order was the concentration of attention on the part of the boys. The attention of children is easily diverted. The teacher should therefore, endeavour to draw the attention of the pupil to his lessons. Lessons should be made interesting with illustrations and experiments. The Kindergarten System was well adapted for that end. The time table should be so arranged that different faculties might be taken up at different hours. Mathematics should be taken in the first part of the day. There should be recreation after a continuous work of three hours. The class should be so arranged that the teacher may see all the pupils face to face. Children should not be allowed to sit in such a posture as will help indolence and inattention. The third essential in keeping Discipline was the encouragement of the formation of good habits. Habits were acquired by doing repeatedly. Repetition of the action conquered disinclination. The pupils should be taught to be truthful both in word and in deed. Dishonesty in reading-cram was a form of lie. The teacher himself should be truthful and frank, and should acknowledge his inability to help the pupil, if in any case he found that he really could not help.

Anecdotes and stories of truthful and honest men should be told or read in the class. Good will among children should be encouraged as much as possible. Habits of cleanliness, sitting and standing properly, punctuality in attendance should be cultivated. Among the motives for good action, the teachers enumerated emulation, approbation of parents and teachers punishment or reward, desire

to please parents and teachers, and the sense of duty. Corporal punishment should, as far as possible, be avoided, and when inflicting punishment, the boy must be given to understand the nature and magnitude of his own guilt. Prize-giving was not an unmixed good. The lecturer concluded with the exhortation that the teachers should always bear in mind that the future of the society depended upon them.

A discussion followed in which the Sub-Inspector of Schools, Santhal Parganas, Baboos Ishan Chandra Basu, Arabinda Prakash Ghose, Pyari Mohan De, Surya Kumar Chakravarti, Ramsay Mitra and Tulsindra Mitra took part.

Babu Purna Chandra Goswami, M. A., Headmaster Ripon College School said that the Teacher's Conference was holding its meetings for the last five months and the time had come to form an estimate of the value of the work done by it. He had no hesitation in saying that the Conference had done excellent work during the past five months and he now proposed a hearty vote of thanks to the D. P. I. on behalf of the private schools of Calcutta for founding it at a time when so many changes and reforms of a far-reaching character were being introduced into our educational system. He hoped that the teachers of the private schools would, in future, attend the meetings of the conference in greater and greater numbers.

Babu Surya Kumar Chakravarti, Assistant Master, City Collegiate School, seconded the proposal.

The Secretary announced that the next meeting of the Conference would be held on January 21, and Babu Sasadhar Sen would deliver his concluding lecture on "Object Lessons." The meeting then separated.

PUNJAB.

In presenting prizes at the Government College, Lahore, Mr. W. Bell, C.I.E., Director of Public Instruction, Punjab, discussed the question of educational progress in its larger aspects, and said the organisation and co-ordination, not merely of teaching in Colleges, but of all that education which in the life of the student leads up to, and culminates in, his University career, is the true aim and ideal of the University as it should be. Internal efficiency might be secured by co-operation and division of labour among Colleges, a scheme which, if properly managed, would enable students to obtain the most efficient teaching with the minimum of expenditure in labour and money.—*The Madras Mail*.

THE Report on the Lahore Government College states that, for the Intermediate Examination of the Arts Faculty, 48 were sent up and 28 passed; for the Science Faculty, two were sent up and both passed; for the B. A., 32 were sent up and 18 passed; for the M. A., 21 were sent up and 11 passed. Twenty-eight students joined the M. A. class. For Post Graduate studies there are inter-Collegiate lectures in M. A. English and M. A. Mathematics by Mr. Forman of the Christian College and Government College. The conduct of the

resident students was good. In the tutorial system each tutor is expected to be personally well acquainted with the students of his group, watch over their progress in study and the development of their character; consider their application, visit them in illness or trouble, and generally to stand by them. The prize fund, started in 1899, was intended to raise Rs. 10,000, the permanently invested interest where of is to provide prizes for various subjects of the curriculum. Many gentlemen have subscribed generously.

The Trustees of the Aligarh College gave a farewell dinner at Aligarh, on the 27th February, to Mr. Theodore Morison in the Strachey Hall. Besides the Trustees and the students a great number of the old boys were present. Khan Bahadur Mohammad Muzammullah Khan, proposing the toast of Mr. and Mrs. Morison on behalf of the Trustees, eulogised Mr. Morison for his valuable services to the College and the Mussulman community.

Mr. Morison, after thanking the Trustees for their kindness, addressed the students urging them in very strong terms to keep up the traditions and the fame of their College. He remarked that during his long stay at Aligarh he had seen not only the buildings of the College rising up every year, but also the traditions, the fame, and the public opinion of the College. He urged the students to follow the example of their founder, Sir Syed Ahmad Khan, and to maintain the tone of the institution, and set the reputation of the College as an ideal before them, and always to behave with manliness, sincerity, and obedience to authority, which had become the characteristic of the Aligarh type. He said that it pained him very much to leave Aligarh, where he had spent most happily the best years of his life, and that it would give him the greatest pleasure in England to hear that the Aligarh boys kept up the traditions of the College to-day.

After a poem had been recited, the Nawab Mohsin-ul-Mulk enumerated the services of Mr. Morison and expressed regret at his departure. Mr. Morison replied. Khan Bahadur Muzammullah Khan then announced his determination to found two Annual Medals to commemorate Mr. and Mrs. Morison. Mr. Aftab Ahmed Khan announced the foundation of a Medal by old boys for Economics, which was the favourite subject of Mr. Morison.

We drew the attention of our readers, last month, to the remarks of the *Mahratta* about a school-boys' quarrel between the D. A. V. College and F. C. College teams. We hear that on the recommendation of the Sub-Committee of the University Sports and Tournament Committee, the Syndicate of the Punjab University have disqualified Kushab Ram and Khan Chand, students of the D. A. V. College, from taking part in any tournament hereafter, have debarred Khu Shabi Ram and Khan Chand of the same college from appearing for 2 years for any University Examination, have excluded the D. A. V. College from the remainder of the present tournament and from that of 1906, and have appointed a Sub-Committee

to report on the conduct of Mr. Sala Gokul Chand, a professor in the D. A. V. College, in the affray and have even threatened to take away the degree of the last named gentleman or to make it a condition of affiliation that he may not be on the staff of the D. A. V. College.

THE UNITED PROVINCES.

SIR JAMES DIGGES LA TOUCHE presided at the annual Class Day of the Isabella Thoburn College and Normal School, on Saturday, the 18th February. There were also present Mr. Orange, Director-General of Education in India, and the Provincial Director of Public Instruction, Mr. de la Fosse.

There were 29 students at the beginning of the year. About a year ago the curriculum of the Normal School was sanctioned by the Education Department. There are now eleven students and three will take the junior examination in April. Special training is given in Kindergarten methods in connection with the normal work, and the demand for teachers and the applications from students show that this department is meeting a real need.

Foreign Notes.

THE late Dr. Fowler, President of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, bequeathed £1,000 to Merton College (where he was an undergraduate), £1,500 to Lincoln College (where he was Fellow and Tutor), £1,500 to Corpus Christi College, and £1,000 to Ling William's College, Isle of Man.

A CIRCULAR has been sent to the principal teachers of the Leeds Public Elementary Schools (says the *St. James's Gazette*) calling attention to the fact that "any teacher other than a head-teacher who is found guilty of inflicting corporal punishment imperils his engagement, to say nothing of destroying his prospects of promotion and advance of salary." The boxing of the ears, slapping, pushing and "stimulating nudges" are included in the irregular punishment complained of.

"HAS the modern school-boy deteriorated?" was the question put by the *Strand Magazine* to eight eminent headmasters, whose replies and portraits embellish the February number. On the whole they are optimistic, but they have several causes of complaint—notably the increased luxury of the public schoolboy's home life. Dr. Wood, of Harrow, speaks of the "loss of free development." He declares that the boys of the present generation "know more but use their minds less" than their predecessors.—*The University Correspondent*.

THE following communication appears in the *Times*:

With the idea of commemorating the work of the late Miss Frances Power Cobbe in those fields of religious thought where she was a helpful and inspiring guide to many men and women of our time, a committee has been formed to collect a fund and found a memorial prize. Miss Cobbe's writings on

religion were devoted to the preaching of that natural religion which is embodied in every form of creed. All those who recognize a Divine life and order in the world may join in honouring her name. The evidence of a Divine will and purpose in nature and in man, the testimonies of conscience and experience to the realities of the spiritual life: it is on these great matters that her books turn, and through two generations of English people she did much to deepen faith and to uphold the standard of truth. The committee aim at the collection of a fund sufficient to supply an annual prize, open to all students and members under six years' standing in the colleges for women connected with the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge and Trinity College, Dublin; the prize to be given to the best essay on any subject—ethical, psychological, or philosophical—bearing on the evidence of natural religion. Such a prize open to such candidates would, the committee believe, be an appropriate means of continuing the work as well as perpetuating the memory of a representative woman, distinguished for her wise advocacy of the right of women to equal treatment in higher education, as well as in the broad field of civic life.

CONSTANCE BATTERSEA, Hon. Secretary and Treasurer;

Mary H. L. Bunting.

Millicent Garrett Fawcett.

Anne Thackeray Ritchie.

Mary A. Ward (Mrs. Humphry Ward).

G. W. Kitchen, D. D., F. S. A., Deanery, Durham, Warden of the University, Durham.

J. W. Leigh, Dean of Hereford.

Basil Wilberforce, Archdeacon of Westminster.

J. Estlin Carpenter, Case Lecturer, Comparative Religion, Manchester College, Oxford.

John Verschoyle.

Donations will be received by the Lady Battersea, Surrey House, 7, Marble Arch, W., London, or by the London Joint Stock Bank, Limited, Princes Street, E. C. Cheques and P. O.'s to be crossed London Joint Stock Bank, Limited.

THE SCHOOL TEACHER'S CREED.

I believe in boys and girls, the men and women of a great to-morrow; that whatsoever the boy soweth the man shall reap. I believe in the curse of ignorance, in the efficacy of schools, in the dignity of teaching, and in the joy of serving others. I believe in wisdom as revealed in human lives as well as in the pages of a printed book, in lessons taught, not so much by precept as by example, in ability to work with the hands as well as to think with the head, in everything that makes life large and lovely. I believe in beauty in the schoolroom, in the home, in daily life and in out of doors. I believe in laughter, in love, in faith, in all ideals and distant hopes that lure us on. I believe that every hour of every day we receive a just reward for all we are and all we do. I believe in the present and its opportunities, in the future and its promises and in the divine joy of living. Amen.

Edwin Osgood Brover
(from the *American School Journal*.)

The Educational Review.

The controversy respecting the Universities Act not having died out, The Bombay Convocation Address. the Vice-Chancellor's Convocation Speech was in part an *apologia* for the measure. Except perhaps towards the end where Dr. Mackichan warns the young graduates against following the lead of certain Englishmen who have not commended themselves to him, there is nothing in the speech which any friend of education or of India for that matter can take exception to.

Dr. Mackichan evinces great sympathy for the Indian community and regretfully recalls the earlier days when the Indian and the European worked for the spread of culture forgetful of their nationalities. "I can recall the days in which the leading men of culture in this city found an attractive sphere for their intellectual activities in the work of this University." We are distinctly poorer to-day he complains, through the diminution of this interest. The fault is not altogether on one side. The recent working of the Universities Act, strengthened by the Validation Act, is not calculated to make the leading men of Bombay take greater interest in University matters.

One of the worst effects anticipated from the working of the new Act is its tendency to make education costly and hence to place it above the reach of the poor. On this point Dr. Mackichan has no fears. He recognises that the time has fully come when ampler means of culture should be within the reach of all who desire it, whether rich or poor. He assured the convo-

cation he was one of those who would resist with their utmost effort any proposal intended to exclude from the highest benefits of the University those that are rich in mental power and intellectual ambition, though poor in the wealth of the world. Though the improved system of education the act contemplates is sure to be more costly, Dr. Mackichan is not for laying the additional burden upon the student. How is the increase in expenditure to be met? The Government of India's contribution—promised when the act was passed—is to be utilised for the purpose. Such a contribution should be, Dr. Mackichan thinks, a regularly recurring one and should increase as the needs of the University increase. We should be glad to think that in this matter he reflects the views of the Government of India and of all who pushed the act through and that he is not merely giving out his individual opinion.

Our one grave fear has been about this matter. The multiplication of hostels means money, the provision of laboratories means money, getting professors who would be really an acquisition to India means money. Is the Government going to provide the Universities handsomely with funds to meet their demands of the colleges? Dr. Mackichan has no misgivings on this point.

If money cannot be had for elaborating the hostel system, for the improvement of the laboratories and other appliances of colleges, we can even forego improvements in these directions and direct our energies to where improvement is really wanted, the teaching of the colleges. Dr. Mackichan emphasises the need. As he says truly enough great teachers form the real University. In spite of the abundance and cheapness of printed books

there is still work to be done by the teacher. He can never be replaced by books. He exercises an influence out of all proportion to the positive information and instruction he is able to impart. He must be a personality, one whom it would be wholesome to come in contact with, one who by his moral elevation and earnestness could evoke the best that is in the pupil. It is such teachers we want. We must get the best European, the best Indian teachers possible. That the European teachers are not the best possible we have heard complaints in Bengal. Prof. Bilderbeck of the Presidency College, Madras, in the course of a debate in the Imperial Legislative Council complained that the best selection is not always made by the Secretary of State for India and that the teaching profession gets comparatively inferior men. In this he was simply voicing the opinions of those who are best entitled to form a judgment on this question. With regard to the falling off in the quality of Indian teachers there can be no question. The best men resort to other professions as being on the whole more remunerative and more looked up to than teaching. The insisting on the preliminary training has had the tendency to keep out the best men from commencing their career as teachers. In the earlier days of greater freedom there was just the chance that some of the more talented beginning to teach from necessity might get to love the profession and settle down for life as teachers. Believing as we do that it is more important to get a good man as a teacher, even though he should not have undergone the requisite training, than an inferior man completely trained, we should like to see the policy of Col. Macdonald adopted of encouraging the best talents of the day. Once you get the proper men training may be arranged for and the quality of the profession will be

raised. What is suggested after all is only the adaptation of Mrs. Glasse's receipt as to how to dress the hare. Get the hare first, said the wise lady. You want worthy, talented men, men who would impress their personalities on their pupils. Begin therefore with the most hopeful materials that by experience and training can be made into great teachers. The profession must scorn, as 'the immortal armies,' in Heaven will, according to Matthew Arnold.

The world's poor, routed leavings.

Of such can never great teachers be made. Are the educational agencies in India going to do anything to enlist men who would influence their pupils as Dr. Mackichan says his teacher influenced him in his early days? "I esteem it the greatest privilege of my own University life to have been thus brought into contact with a great master who was yet *conspicuously ignorant of the art of rapidly preparing his students for a University Examination.*"* What chance has such a teacher or professor of being entertained for long in any mission or native college? Of course in Government colleges any teacher may be put to do any sort of work, and, thanks to the disciplinary powers of the colleges and the University, no complaints will be made or, if made, listened to.

Of the three educational agencies referred to above, we think that on the whole the missionary bodies have the best arrangements for ensuring a succession of able and earnest men who would devote themselves to the task of educating the young men of India and impressing their personalities on them. The attraction of a selfless devotion to a good cause—of elevating the heathen—brings in good and able men. Those who read Dr. Miller's evidence before Lord Elgin (referred

* The italics are ours.

to in our February number) will have seen what an effective organization there is to ensure among other things a supply from the youth of the Scottish Church a sufficiency of men of high training and Christian purpose. The success of the local Christian College is partly due to the work of such men. The Government colleges can ensure getting perhaps able men but the tendency on the part of the professors to assume an official attitude makes against their effectiveness as teachers. We hope the new residential system will do something to lessen this tendency and bring the professors of the colleges and the students nearer together and will not merely have the effect of making life easier for some favourites in the educational service. The native colleges suffer most from the lack of proper professors and teachers. The service in private institutions being less remunerative and more precarious the men are comparatively inferior. It may be thought that the mere chance of doing good work and of making some appreciable degree of self-sacrifice must prove attractive enough for bringing in able Indians to man the schools and colleges. Are we taking too pessimistic a view when we say that we do not find enough of such men coming forward? All things considered, the teachers of an earlier period were less hard to please.

Cannot something be done to bring in good men to all the agencies mentioned? The Government and the Mission organisations, aided by their ample resources and the efficient supervision of the rejuvenated Universities, must be able to secure for their colleges a body of professors of high attainments and high ideals. The native colleges, poor and resourceless as they are, will be in a bad way and unable to compete on equal terms with the other colleges. Indian patriots interested in their work must bestir themselves

and add to their resources in every possible way. We suggest that activity in the following directions will be helpful:

(i) Influential and cultured gentlemen should everywhere promote educational bequests and charities on behalf of native schools and colleges.

(ii) The large body of free scholars sent out by schools and colleges should, as soon as they are in a position to do so, set apart at least the amount of fees they have been excused from paying during their school career, and send the amount to the respective schools or colleges to serve as a nucleus for a poor scholar's fund. If systematically done, this will come to much.

(iii) A union should be brought about among the existing native institutions and a common plan of work must be adopted by the whole body and arrangements should be made to better the prospects of the teachers engaged in such schools. We may ask the Council of Native Education in this connection to make itself thoroughly representative by bringing all the managers of native schools and colleges to join it and to set about the task of federating the native institutions.

(iv) There must be an agency to give the most promising teachers a European training which might enable them to fill high and responsible positions on their return. Even the most fastidious University authorities cannot object to young men like Mr. Paranjpye presiding over colleges or being employed as chief professors. In consideration for the chance thus given the young men may be justly expected to serve for something less than what the average European Professor or Principal gets for his work in native colleges.

We think that Mr. Shymaji Krishna Varma's scholarships seem to be eminently calculated to serve the purpose of the suggested foreign training.

One of the conditions of such scholarships is that no holder of the same shall on his return to India accept service or emoluments under the British Government. We do not know if Mr. Shymaji Krishna Varma contemplated the training of Indian Teachers in England as one of the objects to be encouraged. We expect the founder would have no objection to such a utilisation of one or two of the scholarships. Are any young teachers already engaged in work or any promising young men actuated by an earnest desire to do good educational work, going to avail themselves of Mr. Shymaji Krishna Varma's beneficence? Another chance for the European training of Indian teachers is mentioned elsewhere.

Even those most favourably disposed towards the new Senate must have had some disquieting thoughts on finding how the most harmless and unexceptionable amendments were lost.

The last Senate Meeting of the Madras University. Among such we consider that of adding some more names to the Faculty of Arts. Mr. V. Krishnaaswami Aiyar's amendment if carried would have satisfied the wishes of all, and there would have been as little breach as possible of continuity with the old Senate. Against passing the amendment it was suggested that the Syndicate had decided that each Fellow should be on a single Faculty and no more: the inconvenience was not perfectly made out of acting according to the provisions of the old Bye-law 82 which says: 'Every Fellow shall belong to one Faculty at least and any Fellow may belong to more than

one Faculty.' The inconvenience of the new ruling of the Syndicate is perfectly clear. There are not on the Faculty of Arts as now constituted native gentlemen independent and influential enough to serve on the Syndicate. Except in the Faculty of Law there are no members of the Indian community having any fair chance of rising to the dignity of Syndics. Unless this prospect of some Indians—at least two or three getting into the Syndicate should have been considered a calamity to be averted, there was no reason to abrogate the rule even temporarily. We take it the rule is not of the Mede and Persian variety.

Even accepting the principle laid down by the Syndicate, there was nothing against the acceptance of the amendments that would have removed Mr. B. Hanumanta Rao from the Faculty of Engineering, and Sir S. Subramania Aiyar and the Hon. Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Aiyar from the Faculty of Law and put them on the Faculty of Arts. Those that made such modest amendments must have anticipated a grudging spirit in the temper of the new Senate. But even these modest amendments failed. The three gentlemen would have been an acquisition to the Faculty of Arts and with all respect to the members of the existing Syndicate, they might find in them efficient substitutes or co-adjutors.

As regards the addition of a new Faculty—suggested and cogently supported by Mr. Viraraghavachari, that must have been welcomed, we should have thought, by Dr. Bourne, who was so keen on developing the Science side. We imagine when the Senate passes the transitory stage, and when the scheme of Science studies is maturer, and the bifurcation of the literary and the Science studies has been effected, the Faculty of Science will be constituted.

There was one thing done however, which must rejoice the whole body of graduates—the reduction of the registration fee initial and annual, from Rs. 5, to Rs. 2 and of Rs. 25 the compounding fee, to Rs. 10.

The most important provision of the new Universities Act is Section 3 and great changes of the most beneficial sort are expected from it, and the last thing the Senate did was the appointment of a committee to consider and report to the Senate as to the action that should be taken in regard to the powers conferred upon the University by the section.

When the changes suggested or measures advocated are not detrimental to the interests of the University, there can be no harm in graceful concessions and such concessions would promote a spirit of cordiality and make the efforts of the University to raise the level of culture a success. We regret to find there was too little of such a conciliatory spirit shown at the last meeting on the part of the influential members of the Senate.

We have the long waited for Resolution of the Government of India at last on the Tata Institute. The Tata Research Institute.

The delay, perhaps inevitable when so many complicated questions as valuation of properties, scheme of management, &c., had to be settled, has been made up for by the generous help the Government is now prepared to accord to the scheme. The annual grant (without any time limit) is to be 77,500 Rs. (i.e., half of the annual income of the Research Fund together with the 30,000 Rs. grant of the Maisur Durbar). The building grant is fixed at half of what the Maisur State gives, i.e., 2½ lacs. So the available funds for constructing buildings come to 7,50,000 Rs. and the annual income

comes to 2,32,500 Rs. The original estimates for buildings and annual establishment and other charges came respectively to 6,57,000 Rs. and 1,75,000 Rs. With such sums, 'the governing body will be in a position to procure the most competent teachers of the subjects to be dealt with in the Institute, to retain their services for long periods, and to found research scholarships for the encouragement of students. They will in fact be able to carry on their operations on a scale commensurate with the high aims which the founder of the endowment is believed to have had in view.'

There is a note of warning at the end, and it is to be hoped that the warning will be laid to heart by the *alumni* of the new Institute: "The results of the experiment that is now about to be tried will depend less upon the conditions of the project itself than upon the character and energy of those who may come forward to take advantage of the facilities for advanced study which it will offer."

If the Governor-General should intimately associate himself with the actual administration of the Institute or claim a voice in determining the lines of research, the responsible authorities might feel embarrassed and we are glad to find that there is an express disclaimer on these points. Lord Curzon has laid the public under great obligation by the generous help he has extended to make the cherished project of the Parsi philanthropist a success.

The papers have published criticisms of this proposed Fund of which the Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Aiyar is Secretary. His statement, setting forth the objects and scope of the Fund, puts the movement in its true light. It is a small affair providing, when in full swing, for the education abroad

of three persons a year,—a number no doubt inappreciably small when we consider the population of the Presidency. But it is only a beginning, and when the results of the first few years shall have established the success of the experiment, may be expected to enlarge both its scope and extent. We think it should be judged at present by its moral, rather than by its strictly utilitarian, value. The organisers of the Fund seek to make it self-sustaining by recovering from the benefited students the sums advanced for their foreign training and protecting it from the risks of casualty by holding as security insurance policies on the lives of those students. These provisions are good, so far as they go; but what is to become of the Fund if the first two or three batches, or for that matter any two or three consecutive batches of the selected candidates fail wholly or partially and are not able to replenish the Fund? Competitive examinations for the Civil Service or for other branches of the Public Service are not easy to pass, and there are other circumstances connected with life in England which make it not impossible that Indian candidates fail for two or three years in succession. Even greater risk attends the cases of students who undergo courses of technical education in England, America, or Japan. Whether these students turn out well or ill on their return depends altogether on the opportunities that our country offers for the exercise of their special skill and talent. Is Indian capital ready yet to utilise their services? Ought we not rather, following the example of Bengal, prepare ourselves to provide the capital also for these specialists to start industrial enterprises? Will the Madras Landholders' Association undertake to employ these men on their return in the numerous experiments that the Zamindars collectively and individually may make with every prospect

of success towards the development of the mineral and other resources of the country? There is a whisper abroad that they have begun to feel the need for the services of such experts, and are considering schemes for securing them. Why should not the two bodies co-ordinate their efforts? Such co-ordination of effort on the part of native agencies will vastly multiply their efficiency, but it requires extraordinary sanguineness to hope for it under present conditions of public life in this country.

Perhaps, however, the organisers of this new Fund mean by 'a course of technical education' only a training in such subjects as Medicine and Engineering which can be trusted to command always a fairly high money value. In that case we confess the whole scheme seems to dwindle into a very small compass. Nothing can be said against its principle or its utility in a restricted sphere. But we doubt whether it will command large popular support. The prospect of having two or three of our countrymen entering the higher ranks of Government service every year does not evoke any great enthusiasm in our hearts. The time has been when official preferment had its glamour. Educated India, at any rate that section of it that is permeated by the patriotic sentiment, has ceased to regard the service of Government as affording the best opportunities for rendering service to the country. It is now largely recognised that the salvation of India must be sought elsewhere. In Bengal the native civilian would appear to have become distinctly unpopular. We are not prepared to assert that the service of Government is incompatible with the true patriotic spirit. But the task of serving two masters, always difficult, has now become more than ever impossible. Without doubt it is a sound instinct that ha

transferred the homage of young India to the man of true enterprise, to the man who has fruitful ideas of industrial and commercial progress. Judged by this test, the Madras Hindu Foreign Education Fund must be held to embody an aspiration somewhat out of date.

We will now make a suggestion to the promoters of this Fund which, in our humble opinion, has less risk than their present scheme, and far more promise of ultimate good to the country. The students selected for the scholarships may be directed to undergo a course of training for the profession of teaching in one of the chief training colleges of England, and to study on the spot the educational systems and methods of Germany, America, and Japan. There is plenty of room for the services of these men in the indigenous institutions of the land, and we have no doubt as the feeling of solidarity among these institutions, now only nascent, gains strength, more room will be found for the services of educational experts. An indigenous University and a national system of education are yet but dreams, though the ideas have been put forward in right earnest. But a system of colleges and schools, supported and manned mainly, if not entirely, by natives of the land, is quite within the 'domain of practical politics.' If the officialisation of Indian Universities is really a great evil, the only effective reply to it on the part of the native community is to get control over the inner life and work of the colleges. The leaders must realise in practice as well as in theory that their day must soon end, and that their greatest duty is to try and take into their own hands the only machinery that shapes the thoughts and moulds the characters of the coming generation. The cause of national advancement will receive an accession of strength truly incalculable when the centres

of young India's life are pervaded by an atmosphere of true national sentiment. And what can achieve this consummation sooner than a study at first hand by competent young men of the way in which the most advanced nations of the world have endeavoured to adapt their systems of education to their ideals and aspirations? The idea may appear novel and even quixotic to our men of light and leading, who own to plenty of theoretical faith in education, but have little or none in the educationist. To befriend and elevate him and make him subserve the grand destiny of the nation,—is this not a purpose entitled to a share of the patriot's attention? We are not confident of the answer. We feel somewhat like the naughty student who dared descry unknown regions and snatched a fearful joy.

Sir Arnold White having left India on leave, the Government has appointed Mr. Justice Benson, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Madras. While welcoming him to office, we cannot refrain from expressing a sense of disappointment that Sir S. Subramania Aiyar is not to occupy that exalted position. We had fully expected, and we believe the public had fully expected, that Government would not miss this occasion to honour the worthy knight and the University. It is just possible, however, though it has not yet transpired, that the offer was first made to him, but was declined owing to ill-health or his characteristic desire to withdraw as much as possible from public attention. We learn also that he has resigned his place on the Syndicate. There is the more reason to regret his retirement from the active counsels of the University, as his influence has always been on the side of charity, progress and freedom.

On another page will be seen the decision of the Syndicate of the Punjab University with regard to an affray between the students of the D.A.V. and F.C. College football teams. Without going to the question of the legality or otherwise of their interference, we shall be content with the remark that the punishments are altogether disproportionate to the alleged offences and also commend to that body the remark made by Sneer in Sheridan's 'Critic.' "These little things, my dear Sir, will happen"

We have to acknowledge receipt of the prospectus of Christmas Vacation classes for teachers in training schools which were held last December-January at the Teachers' College, Saidapet. A course of vacation lectures is a new feature in South Indian Education and may be extended to a wider circle. The profession of teaching in general will certainly not be the worse for carefully designed holiday courses of this kind delivered under the auspices of the Madras Teachers' Guild, the Education Department or the University. The following is the course of lectures delivered:—

1. The Study of Animals—by Mr. J. R. Henderson.
2. The Study of Plants—by Mr. K. Rangachariar, M.A.
3. Physiography and Physical Geography—by Mr. S. Lakshmana Aiyar, B.A., L.T.
4. Blackboard Drawing—by Messrs. J. H. Stone and C. Narayanaswami Naidu.
5. Kindergarten—by Miss Gillingham.
6. Horticulture—by Agricultural instructors.

We had occasion in a former number to protest against certain aspersions cast on Head-masters by the Syndicate and repeated in strong language by the *Madras Mail*. At a recent meeting the Syndicate went into the question thoroughly and practically absolved Head-masters from blame. The *Madras Mail* too has withdrawn its remarks and made amends to the injured parties in right gentlemanly fashion. It only remains for us to congratulate the Registrar of our University on the termination of an ugly episode, for we feel sure it leaves him a wiser, if somewhat sadder, man.

It is likewise a matter of some gratification to us that the two suggestions that we made in the beginning of last year have found favour with the authorities concerned. In several schools Head-masters take care to obtain statements of age in writing from the guardians of boys who seek admission, and in a few cases they have even begun to enter in the leaving certificate the age of a pupil who leaves. We likewise understand that the Educational Rules, in their next re-issue, will provide for an 'age' column in the leaving certificate, so that, as we remarked at the time of making the suggestion, the pupils will be protected against their own carelessness, ignorance, or 'fraudulent' desire to appear before their time for University examinations.

The *Wednesday Review*, published at Trichinopoly, is a weekly as its name implies and, so far as we can judge at present, has placed great models before it. The articles are excellent and, what is comparatively rare among Indian periodicals, include literary matter. The editorial notes take a wide range of topics and, while being brightly

written, are marked by great moderation and fairness of tone. The venture deserves success, and we hope it will attain it.

The *Mysore Review* is a new monthly which has just made its third appearance from the historic city whose name it bears. It is, as it claims to be, a high-class English monthly devoted to Science, Industry, Religion, Literature, &c. In the current number the reader will find an article devoted to "Some Neglected Industries of Mysore" from the pen of that competent authority Mr. E. W. Wetherell, A.R.C.S., F.G.S., two devoted to Literature, one Western, and the other Eastern, and a fourth devoted to historical research by Mr. S. Krishnaswami Aiyangar, M.A., F.R.H.S., &c. An European Educationist contributes a study of the educated Hindu, which exposes some of his well-known weaknesses. The principal Editorial Note deals with Lord Curzon's Convocation Address, endeavouring to take a less impassioned view of it than most Indian newspapers and periodicals have done. We are not able to congratulate the editor on his success in trying to hold the balance evenly, his estimate of the educated Indian's character being, in our opinion, far too pessimistic. However he does make several points, one of which, touching the Brahmin, is a good home-thrust, the justness of which is not seriously marred by the harshness of its tone.

A question of importance is being debated in connexion with the excellent scheme of Primary Education put forward some time ago by the Bengal Government. It has been decided that, in the rural schools meant for the children of agriculturists not expected to proceed beyond the primary stage of education, the text-books should be written, and the instruction conveyed, in six different

dialects of the Bengali according to local needs. We do not know to what extent these dialects differ from the literary language and from each other. But we know that in this Presidency Tamil School-books are often objected to on the ground of their containing Jaffnèse or Brahmin Tamil. Godavari Telugu differs sensibly from Madras Telugu, and it is quite common to notice the good-humoured laugh with which the Andhra of the North listens to the Tamilised speech of his Southern brethren. If the authorities listened only to the counsels of those who make much of these differences, we should perhaps be speaking by this time of different dialects of Tamil and Telugu, as if we were not divided enough already by Tamil, Telugu, Canarese, and Malayalam. If these Dravidian languages had not developed literatures of their own, we should have welcomed any accident that led to the adoption of one common speech in South India. Few people have sufficiently realised the extent to which this lack of a common language has kept back the political and social advancement of the Madrassi as compared with his more fortunately circumstanced compatriot of Bengal or Bombay. We should therefore strongly deprecate any tendency to emphasise local differences and make it difficult for the people to enter intelligently into the central life of the community which is bound by the common ties of one administration and one legislature. As we said before, we write in ignorance of the precise conditions of Bengal, but we hope the disruptive force of parochial patriotism will not be allowed to gain undue influence. It is gratifying to observe the Muhammadans of Bengal raising their voice against this retrograde measure.

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MICHEL DE MONTAIGNE ON
EDUCATION.

WHEN we consider the effects of the Renaissance upon Education, we are struck with the fact that these were different in different countries. Much attention has been turned lately towards the great Italian Education and Educational thinkers, to Vittorino da Feltre, Peter Paul Vergerius, to Æneas Sylvius, to Pellegrino Morato and the rest. In England, the Oxford Reformers, More and Colet, with that distinguished man Erasmus, the friend who completed their trio, are not likely to be forgotten. But less attention has been bestowed on the two great men who represent France. Yet in some ways, they are far more distinguished educationally than the rest: and they are so because they do not belong to a party: each of them depends on himself, is, in his own way, original.

A short account was given, by the present writer in a past number of this Review, of Rabelais. So it seems fitting to add some remarks on Montaigne.

But we must not fall into an error, to which the common practice of coupling these two writers together will invite us: because when we regard them as educationists, there is no such clear connexion between them as to justify us in speaking, in one breath, of "Rabelais and Montaigne."

They may happen to coincide in opinion in some respects, but that it is no more than a happening may be deduced from Montaigne's

remark in the X Essay of Book ii, where he classes Rabelais among those modern authors whom he finds "simplement plaisants."

So far as I know, he does not mention the author of Gargantua again.

It is not without interest to consider first the circumstances of Montaigne's life.

He was born on Feb. 28, 1553: he is careful to inform us that his birth occurred between "eleven o'clock and noon," at the Château de Montaigne on the borders of Perigord and Bordelais.

The Sieur de Montaigne esteems his own aristocracy as something a little above its real value. He speaks of Montaigne as the descendant of a long line of territorial nobles might, "C'est le lieu de ma naissance, et de la plupart de mes ancestres: ils y ont mis leur affection et leur nom."

Yet, as a matter of strict fact, his pedigree is only certainly known through three antecedent generations. The family from which he sprang was frankly bourgeois, though rich. It came from the village of Saint Macaire on the Garonne; it *did* give its name to one castle, a celebrated one, the Château d'Eyquem.

Michel's great-grandfather, born in 1402, was a merchant and banker at Bordeaux, his name was Ramon Eyquem. He managed by his business ability to consolidate the family fortunes, and he also acquired by purchase the small estate of Montaigne, situated in the barony of Montravel, but owing homage to the Archbishop of Eyquem's own town Bordeaux. His son and heir to

Montaigne, Grimon Eyquem, seems to have been undistinguished save by a capacity for business exceeding his father's. But Grimon's son Pierre was a person of another stamp. The first of the family born at the Chateau de Montaigne, he was also the first to set about the business of ennobling the family, which his forefathers had enriched. He renounced trade, and joining the army, fought in one of the French expeditions into Italy. On his return with the halo which military prowess confers, he married a young lady of Jewish extraction, Antoinette de Souppes, and fortified by the substantial wealth which more prosaic members of his family had gathered, he decided to live "en seigneur" at Montaigne. His son Michel, born in 1553, appears, by some undescribed process, with the noble *de*, Michel de Montaigne: the family patronymic Eyquem, only appearing occasionally as a kind of second Christian name. In a democratic age, devoted to hurry and forgetfulness, this may all seem of little moment; or it may even savour to some of petty vanity. As a matter of fact, it is nothing of the kind. The assumption of aristocracy, whether warranted or not, succeeded in this case, and it played an important part in Montaigne's life and work. The aristocratic tendency, mode of thought, or outlook on life are essential threads in the web of his existence. The most casual student of his marvellous essays can scarcely avoid noticing his detachment from ordinary everyday life; this deliberate and cherished individuality of thought, taste and opinion; his aloofness, for so harsh a word as superiority is not admissible, his leisurely attitude towards men and things: his philosophic doubt.

But all those things issue from his aristocracy: they are the marks of a man who has

never been dependent absolutely on other men, dependent in the sense of having to conciliate them first: dependent, not merely for such vulgar material things as daily bread and butter, the common means of subsistence, but for consideration, appreciation, deference of a kind. All those came to Montaigne naturally. Perhaps the point may be cleared by an illustration. Our own Locke, like Montaigne, was a "gentleman": both alike concern themselves with a gentleman's upbringing, in the main: both alike are thinking of pupils who, for the most part, will have a "tutor a piece." But Montaigne belongs to the governing classes, Locke to that which helps the governors to govern. There is a difference in fact: and if science has taught us anything, it is that we should observe facts whether they fall in or not with our private predilections.

With all the world before him, Montaigne eventually close a life of scholarly ease. There are consequently few definite actions to be recorded. One or two such decisive steps he took. His was the age when Catholics and Protestants first left their natural business to enter on an unprofitable struggle which has lasted to our own time; in 1562, having for a moment the ordinary tenour of his carefully "balanced" life, he made his profession of the Catholic Faith before the Parliament of Paris. Very soon after he followed the Dauphin, afterwards Charles IX, to the siege of Rouen. Yet a third time, he took definite action, when he became a Magistrate of Bordeaux. It is interestingly characteristic of him that the first record in the Court Registers against his name concerns a holiday which he took.

It was as a member of the Bordeaux Magistracy that Montaigne met his friend Etienne de Boëtius. Though the friendship has nothing

to do with education, a remark concerning it throws much light on Montaigne's general mental attitude. Asked once to account for this friendship, he said: "Parce que c'était lui, parce que c'était moi." That is a memorable instance of his usual habit of giving the reason which satisfies him. If you can make nothing of it, so much the worse no doubt for you: but he remains imperturbably content.

Even in so stirring an age as the 16th century, public affairs could not chain Montaigne to the State's chariot wheels; could not wean him from his desire to look on from afar as a detached philosopher, wholly spectator-wise, analysing the strange ways of men. And so, when on his father's death in 1568, he became the head of the family, he fancied he had a decent excuse for resigning his Magistracy, and betaking himself to his chosen way. Three years earlier, he had married Mademoiselle Françoise de la Chassaigne. Henceforth he lived the life of a scholar in the bosom of his family. Yet he made elaborate arrangements for his privacy. In a part of the castle, till now but little used, in a tower, Montaigne established himself. The ground-floor of the tower was a chapel: from this a winding staircase led to the first floor, containing two apartments, one of which became a large bed-room where Montaigne slept when he desired solitude, the other a small retreat where, sitting unseen, he could hear mass in the Chapel below. On the second floor was a room which he used as library and study combined: it was circular save that the circumference was cut across by the chimney and fire place. In this corner Montaigne placed a writing table and an arm chair.

On one of the walls, a tribute to Montaigne's leisurely interest in himself, the following legend was inscribed:—"In the year of

Christ 1571, at the age of 38, on the Vigil of the Kalends of March—the anniversary of his birth—Michel de Montaigne, weary long enough ago of his public duties, though feeling cheerful still, came aside here to rest on the bosom of the learned Muses, in quietness and in confidence: there, he will redeem his remaining days: in the hope that Fate may permit him to complete this dwelling, these sweet ancestral haunts: he has consecrated to them his freedom, his peace, his leisure."

He seems to have been fond of inscriptions, since he pencilled favourite quotations—from Ecclesiastes, the Pauline Epistles, from Stoebæus and Sextus Empiricus; mingling sacred and profane with true humanist catholicity—on the joists and beams of his chamber, where the curious visitor may read them to-day, still legible on the old and blackened wood.

It has been said, "Show me a man's friends, and I will tell his character." Perhaps it would be a truer test if "books" were substituted for "friends." Montaigne's library was considerable for that time; it contained 1000 volumes, bound, as became a seigneur so conscious of his high descent, in white vellum, for the most part. Some 60, with his name in them, still exist: but the copies of his favourite authors are not among these.—"Suddenly, as rare things will," they "vanished." In the original library, there were, among the Latins, Cicero, perhaps his best beloved, Seneca, Virgil, Lucretius, Catullus, Horace, Lucan, Juvenal, Martial and Persius. Among the Greeks were Plutarch, Xenophon and Diogenes Laertius. Among Historians were Livy, Quintus Curtius, Tacitus, Cæsar and Sallust. Nor did he neglect the modern poets among his own countrymen, Ronsard, Marot, Saint Gelais, du Bellay.

He himself lets us into the secret of his own

personal tastes:—"History is my chief study, Poetry my only delight, to which I am particularly affected." There is no doubt that he shared the regard shewn for history by many of the Italian humanist educators. Yet one feels that what in the Italians sprang from a sense of citizenship was in Montaigne a personal predilection. His affection for Italian writers was great: for poets, romancers, historians, moralists and letter writers. It is all easily explicable. Above and before all things Montaigne was curious concerning human nature. Where could he hope to glean more information about it than from the Italian writers on human affairs? When we consider the complicated web of life in the Italian States from the 13th century to Montaigne's time; when we reflect upon the crowded events, the changing fortunes, the mixed motives, the subtle policies, the daring speculations, the artistic aims and achievements, we cannot fail to appreciate the attraction of all that for this close and curious observer of men. It is interesting to observe that the study which we now call psychology interested Montaigne to the exclusion of metaphysics. In his eulogy upon Socrates (Bk. iii, Essay xii) he writes: "It was he who brought human wisdom down from the skies—where she was wasting her time—to restore it to man, for there her most just, her most toilsome work is to be done." ("C'est lui qui ramena d'usciel, on elle perdoit son temps, la sagesse humaine pour la rendre a l'homme, on est sa plus juste et plus laborieuse besongne.") And Montaigne adds: "He has done human nature a wonderful kindness in showing it what it can do by its own unaided efforts."

Yet though the Sieur de Montaigne was a great reader, and though his library contained 1000 volumes, he was in fact a man of few

books. He had a handful of favourite authors—Cicero, Seneca and Plutarch stand easily first—and to these he returned over and over again. Unfortunately his copies of these three authors do not remain to satisfy the curiosity of modern critics. But at Chantilly, his Caesar is still preserved. It numbers 336 pages, on the margins of which are to be seen about 600 notes in Montaigne's handwriting. A few spare leaves are bound up with the rest, and on these he has recorded his impressions, his general estimate of the book. Yet Caesar was not one of his favourite authors. Our hurrying superficial age might take a hint from the leisurely seigneur here.

In comparing Montaigne's Library with those of other humanists, notably with Grocyn's—a list of whose books was discovered in 1889 among the archives of Merton College, Oxford—or with that of Erasmus, we shall be struck by the absence of the Fathers. Yet when in Essay xxv, he speaks of "a man of birth, who follows letters not for gain (since so abject an end is unworthy of the Muses' grace and favour, and besides concerns and depends on entirely different causes) nor for external show, but rather for the enriching and adorning of his real self," we seem to catch an echo not only in thought but almost in word of S. Bernard's dictum:—"There are those who desire to know only in order that they may know, and this bears the taint of curiosity; to know that they may be known, and this is but vanity: to sell their knowledge, and this is a shameful trade: and some that they may be built up in the love and fear of God, and that is wisdom."

As we read the Essays of Montaigne, we of to-day are conscious of a different atmosphere from that which surrounds us daily. It is not that there is any "slackness" about him: perhaps indeed, he is more thorough than we

are; at any rate he will spend years in the study of an author. But the difference is that he is leisurely, and we are hurried. All the fuss and bustle, the noise and publicity of so many of our modern efforts are foreign to him, living as he did before the time when advertisement is the only thoroughly successful Fine Art. Yet he seems to tell us how foolish it is to pull up the plant so often by the roots: to demand such quick, such obvious, results, to watch with such ferocious zeal for

"Each little drop of wisdom as it falls
Into the dimpling cistern of the heart."

He seems to feel with the son of Sirach that "The wisdom of a learned man cometh by opportunity of leisure."

If Montaigne taught us nothing but the wisdom of going slowly, of taking time and quiet for thought and for thorough digestion of new knowledge, he might have taught us that lesson which the XXth Century requires most. What he did teach educators besides,—that must be left for a future time.

GERALDINE HODGSON.

THE VERNACULARS AS MEDIA OF INSTRUCTION.

IF some retired educationist from India should become a member of an English School Board and propose that in English Schools, object-lessons, nature-study, or English constitutional history should be taught by the French master and in his vernacular using text-books written in French, how would English school-masters receive the proposal? If further, the said educationist should argue that such a procedure would secure to the English student a knowledge of the subject taught and of French at the same time, would not the other members of the School Board immediately place the said eminent education-

ist under the observation of the nearest available lunacy-doctor? Yet this is exactly the system which has been followed in this Presidency for the past 30 years. Previous to 1875, when the Zillah Schools existed, when Government had not retired from the policy of having school books made and sold under its supervision, such subjects as Geometry, History of the World, Elements of National History were taught by means of the vernacular. Our earliest reminiscences as a school-boy are about க, ச, த, என்ஐற இரிதோணம் and the glories of Chenghiz Khan narrated in short stout Tamil volumes now nowhere to be found. Nay, our first acquaintance with the immortal Lear and Hamlet, our first hearty laughter over the Comedy of Errors was through Tamil books. About the year above mentioned, Government began to change its educational policy, left educational enterprise to the tender mercies of the struggle for existence and survival of the fittest. Mission Schools and in their wake ephemeral Native Schools rose. One result of this was, English became the medium of imparting knowledge to boys, who did not know any word of English and this irrational system became fashionable. The vernacular books published by Government died out and their place was taken by Morris' History of India and Todhunter's Elements of Euclid. A history lesson then became a lesson in the translation of the rounded, ornate sentences of that civilian historian, a Geometry lesson became an exercise in memorising the involved sentences in the 18th century English in which Euclid was clothed. We even remember that the vivid word-pictures of battles in Morris' History were used by the teachers as a means of teaching 'synonyms.' Is it surprising that young brains were ground down to the extremest dullness under this system, that the only ambition of schoolboys

became the acquisition of 'words, words, words' and the 'getting-by-heart' of pages of printed matter?

The Department of Education, i.e., the machinery of Inspection scientifically organized into a scheme of Inspectors, Assistants, Sub-assistants, and so on, 'orb within orb,' moved on under the impulse of this system and in time acquired such tremendous momentum that nothing can check it. Individual school-masters here and there revolted against it, but the grind of the educational machine was too much for them. The ignorance of parents reinforcing the ignorance, (no, an Educational officer is educated and cannot be ignorant,) the laziness then, the disinclination to think, of the inspecting hierarchy (a hierarchy is a machine and cannot think, you know), the machine grinds down the developing brains of children. Years ago, we attempted to teach Geometry and History of India to pupils of what are called the Lower Secondary classes, (little boys that cannot compose such sentences as "where do you come from?" "what are you trying to do?") without the medium of English, but the parents immediately threatened to withdraw their children from our incompetent hands and, what is worse, the departmental thunderbolt fell on us. All the same, we have been off and on running the blockade, and have succeeded, now and again, in smuggling a little knowledge of Indian History, of Physical Geography, of Natural History into the minds of children.

A few years ago an Educational Conference was held in the office of the Director of Public Instruction to discuss this very subject. We had almost got the Conference to pass that 'non-language subjects' should not be taught to boys in a language they did not at all under-

stand, but up rose a Missionary gentleman and argued that Eurasian, Tamil, Telugu and Muhammadan boys studied together in his school, and it would be inconvenient to engage four sets of school-masters to teach the same subject. The Conference then changed its resolution into a pious wish that where possible the vernaculars be made the media of instruction. In other words, the Department would not object to the classes being conducted in a language known to the boys, and the ignorant parents on whose bounty the poor school-master lived were left the sole arbiters in the question. Not that the Inspectorial hierarchy accepted the reform! In our foolish enthusiasm and ignorance of departmental inertia, we had persuaded some school-masters to adopt the method advocated, but a Philistine of an Assistant Inspector sent a thunderbolt of a circular to them ordering them to use English Text-books of History as otherwise the boys could not learn enough English. Herein lies the real difficulty. Every man out of a lunatic asylum admits that teaching should be conducted in a language the boys can understand. But who can resist the momentum acquired by the machinery of education during 30 years? Who else than its head? The chief Mandarin alone can turn the energies of the minor Mandarins to channels other than the accustomed ones.

A VOICE FROM VIZAG.

PACHAIYAPPA'S COLLEGE.*

Of the clerk of Oxford it is said he used, by way of showing his gratitude to his patrons, 'for the soules praye

Of hem that yaf him wherwith to scoleye.'

The scholars that Pachaiyappa has laid under a

* In response to the circular notice that appeared in the January Number of the *Review*, this account is given.

similar debt are a great many and innumerable prayers of 'Pachaiyappa boys' must be winging their way to the Throne of Grace to plead for the soul of him that had given them that greatest of gifts—'Vidya danam.'

The following account taken from the latest calendar of the College gives a sketch of Pachaiyappa's life and a history of the College.

PACHAIYAPPA: HIS LIFE.

Pachaiyappa Mudaliar, whose name the institutions bear, was born in the sacred city of Conjivaram in the year 1754. Visvanatha Mudaliar died a few months before the son was born, leaving the family in great distress. When Pachaiyappa was barely five years of age, his mother removed to Madras and sought the protection of Powney Narayana Pillay, a wealthy Dubash of that time. The kind-hearted gentleman took great interest in the bereaved family, had Pachaiyappa educated, and started him on his business career. Having acquired some knowledge of English, Pachaiyappa settled as a commercial agent in Madras, and by his zeal and efficiency, won the respect and esteem of everybody with whom he came into business relations. He soon rose to the influential position of a Dubash and engaged in business transactions as a Revenue farmer and a Commissariat contractor under the East India Company. He arranged also for payment of loans, taxes, and tributes, and carried on the general business of banking, finance and exchange. His shrewdness and capacity for business were of great service to him during the period of the Carnatic wars, when the relations between the Company and native rulers were extremely delicate and intricate. In 1788 he proceeded to Tanjore, at the joint request of the Madras Government and the Raja, to assume charge of the Revenue collections of that principality, and to ensure the regular payment of its annual tribute to the East India Company. In this Dewan-like position, he made himself useful to the Raja, and discharged, with conspicuous credit to himself, and to the great advantage of the principality,

the important duties with which he was entrusted.

Though eminently successful as a public man, Pachaiyappa was by no means happy in his domestic relations. He had two sisters, one of whom died childless soon after her marriage and the other was left a widow with an only daughter, who afterwards became the wife of Pachaiyappa. She bore him no children. He, therefore, married sometime after a second wife who presented him with a daughter. This was indeed a sore disappointment to Pachaiyappa who, as a pious Hindu, yearned for a son as essential to his salvation. Pachaiyappa was naturally of a religious turn of mind, and his tendency to look down upon the pleasures of the world was deepened and intensified by his domestic afflictions. Throughout his life he had been inspired by feelings of charity and philanthropy, and when he saw that his end was approaching, it was but natural that he, being without male issue, should desire that, after his death, the bulk of his property should be devoted to useful, charitable and religious objects. During his stay at Kumbakonam he made a will on the 22nd March 1794, dedicating all his wealth to the sacred services of Siva and Vishnu, and to certain charities at various temples and places of pilgrimage, to the erection of religious edifices, to bounties to the poor, to seminaries of Sanskrit learning, and to other objects of general benevolence. A few days after the will was made, Pachaiyappa Mudaliar breathed his last at Tiruvaiyar in the Tanjore District, on the 31st of March 1794. No words can adequately describe the greatness of a man who, born in troublous times, won his way up from obscurity and want to wealth and power, and who devoted his immense property not to selfish indulgence, but to works of beneficence and charity. "His reputation," to quote the words of his well-known biographer, "is that of a simple, kind-hearted, God-fearing man, with wide sympathies and large affections, ever inclined to pity the poor and to give a portion of his time, money, and influence to works of charity

and mercy for their relief and lasting welfare. His was a sweet and benevolent disposition, delighting above all things in human society. His popularity was amazing, and his name has ever been on men's lips by reason of his fixed resolution to lead a useful life for the benefit of his fellow creatures, high and low, rich and poor. In short he was not held back by the cold iron chain of selfishness, but was thoughtful of others and felt that it is more blessed to give than to receive."

HIS CHARITIES.

After this brief notice of the illustrious Pachaiyappa, it now remains to trace the growth of his charities, which have, for over sixty years, spread far and wide throughout this Presidency the blessings of education and enlightenment. In the early days of British supremacy in this country, wills were almost unknown, and their validity could scarcely be said to have been recognized. The consequence was that for many years, successive executors neglected the provisions of Pachaiyappa's will and misappropriated the funds therein settled. Fortunately the matter came to the notice of Sir Herbert Compton, then Advocate-General, who thereupon filed an information in the Supreme Court, and obtained a decree against the person finally liable for the performance of the charities and also for an account of the funds with accumulated interest amounting to many lacs of Rupees. As the person against whom the decree was passed could only pay up a small portion of the money due, Mr. George Norton, who was the successor of Sir Herbert Compton in the office of Advocate-General, and who, by his life-long devotion to the cause of education in Southern India, is entitled to the eternal gratitude of every educated native of this country, prosecuted the suit with vigour, and succeeded in recovering a large quantity of jewels and realizing in other ways from the party liable a total sum of about eight lacs of rupees. Thereupon the Supreme Court

in the exercise of its equitable jurisdiction, in a further decree passed in 1841, prepared a scheme whereby, in due harmony with provisions of the will, and without trenching upon any specific religious or benevolent bequests therein mentioned it was directed that all accumulations beyond one lac of pagodas amounting to four and half lacs of rupees, should be devoted to educational establishments in various parts of the Presidency and particularly at Madras. As regards the mofussil, the control of these endowments became vested by law in the Board of Revenue who, under instruction from Lord Elphinstone's Government, embodied the Supreme Court's scheme in a sort of letters patent, and created a body of Hindu Trustees to administer the whole of the charities and carry out the benevolent intentions of the Testator.

PACHAIYAPPA'S CENTRAL INSTITUTION.

A school in the town of Madras was accordingly established, in January 1842, under the name of "Pachaiyappa's Central Institution," for the purpose of affording gratuitous education to the poorer classes of the Hindu community in the elementary branches of English Literature and Science, coupled with instruction in Telugu and Tamil. The founding of this institution marks indeed an era in the educational history of Southern India, as it is the first example of native munificence and enterprise being directed to the cause of popular instruction. The Government High School of Madras was then in its infancy, and according to the rules of that institution it was not possible for anybody to get admission into it who did not possess a decent knowledge of the three R's. Hence the establishment of a school of this primary nature supplied a want that was urgently felt by the community. At first instruction was given gratis to every Hindu that presented himself for admission. This rendered the school very popular, and attracted large numbers of students, but in a short time the numbers became so unmanageable that the

Trustees found themselves compelled, though unwillingly, to adopt means to restrict the rapid influx of pupils. They accordingly resolved that the institution having been established for the benefit of the poor, a monthly fee might justly be demanded from all such parents as could afford to pay for the tuition of their children, and that the amount of such fees might be appropriated to extend the benefits of the institution to more deserving objects of charity. This rule about the payment of school-fee was first put in force in 1849, and has since been extended to meet the requirements of Government School Fee Notifications. On the 20th March 1850, the school was removed to the present building specially erected for the purpose.

The Hall attached to the building was designed on the model of the temple of Theseus. It has been of great service not only for the immediate purposes of the institution and for school anniversaries and lectures, but also for public meetings of the native community in connection with objects of political and national interest. The foundation stone of the buildings was laid by Mr. George Norton, on the 2nd October 1846, and the edifice was formally opened by the then Governor, Sir Henry Pottinger, in 1850.

[The accommodation, ample as it once was, needs being added to. There is no common room worth the name for the school-staff. The reading room and the whole length of rooms on the eastern side of the ground floor are very disagreeable to sit and do work in because of the adjoining street being practically used as a public urinal. The box makers who have established themselves over against these rooms at times make it impossible to proceed with the work of the school either on the ground floor or the upper rooms.]

The institution has had a steady and ever-widening career of usefulness. From the year 1858 pupils were sent up to what was then called the Entrance Examination of the University, but only in small numbers at first, the usual course being for the more advanced students to be transferred to what was originally the Government High School, which afterwards developed into the Presidency College, where they were enabled to prosecute their studies by the scholarships granted them by the Trustees. In 1865, the institution was re-organised and the Junior Department was made into a distinct school under the name of Govinda Naicker's Primary School. It was about this time that Mr. Basil Lavery rendered eminent services as the first Principal of Pachaiyappa's High School. The usefulness of

this institution has been publicly acknowledged by the various Directors of Public Instruction, and especially by Mr. E. B. Powell, C. S. I., who as a pioneer of education in Southern India, assisted in the first organization of the School, and subsequently commended it as "a purely Hindu School which has contributed in no small degree to the spread of enlightenment in Madras." In 1880 when Mr. D. M. Cruickshank, M. A., was at its head, it was raised to the rank of a Second Grade College to meet the want of a conveniently situated institution, conducted on a purely secular basis, where Hindu youths could avail themselves of the advantages of higher education without any sacrifice of their religious principles. The standard of the institution was further raised in 1889 when Mr. John Adam was its Principal, to that of the B. A. Degree Examination with Biology and Animal Physiology, History and Philosophy as Optional branches. In the year 1890-91, the first set of students was presented for the B. A. Degree and the success achieved on this occasion was indeed very encouraging. Out of the 22 sent up, 19 were successful, taking high places on the list. In the History Branch especially the results were remarkably good. Eight students were sent up, and all of them passed. In the whole Presidency, only three students passed in the First Class in this branch and the first two of these were students of Pachaiyappa's College. The results of the succeeding years have also been encouraging.

In 1892, the Biology chair was abolished. Nothing came of a subsequent attempt to revive the chair a few years back; and the only memento we have of the attempt is a collection of a few biological specimens kept in a few cases upstairs. In 1904, a Mathematics chair was opened, the Government and the University having duly sanctioned the application therefor, and it is hoped that this widening of the scope of the College will add to its popularity and extend its usefulness.

BRANCH INSTITUTIONS.

The fruits of Pachaiyappa's munificence were not confined to Madras. It was the original intention of the Trustees to establish a few schools in the Mofussil contemporaneously with the central institution at Madras, but want of experience of the educational requirements of the mofussil towns deterred them from giving effect to their wishes immediately. Encouraged, however, by the success of the experiment in Madras, the Trustees established in 1846 on a limited scale to be extended in case it should work to their satis-

faction, a branch school in the historic town of Conjivaram. At the outset free scholars abounded and the instruction imparted was of an elementary character. But twenty years after its establishment, it was raised to the standard of a High School preparing pupils for the Matriculation Examination and brought under the operation of the Government Fee Notifications. It is now the most flourishing High School in the Chingleput District affording both Middle and High School education to large numbers of native youths. In 1850, another branch school of an eleemosynary and primary nature was established in the sacred town of Chidambaram. It developed into a High School in 1869, and has since contributed in no small measure to the enlightenment of the South Arcot District.

AUXILIARY BENEFACTIONS.

The usefulness of Pachaiyappa's benefactions was immensely increased by the liberality of some enlightened members of the native community, who put the Trustees in charge of large funds to be utilized for educational objects. In the year 1846, a rich native of Madras, named Arnergy Govindu Naicker, appointed the Trustees executors to his estate with a direction that the income from such estate should be devoted to the maintenance of certain educational and religious endowments. Accordingly the Trustees took charge of these Charities and in the year 1856 they founded certain scholarships to be given in the name of Govindu Naicker at Pachaiyappa's High School. Later on in the year 1864, from his trust funds, a separate Primary School was opened, which has since then continued to be an important feeder to Pachaiyappa's High School. Subsequently it was raised to the standard of a Middle School, and was strengthened by the transfer to it of the corresponding department of Pachaiyappa's High School. It has now an average strength of 800, and maintains a high place among the Middle Schools of this city.

Another valuable bequest that came into the hands of the Trustees is that of P. T. Lee Chengalroya Naicker. "The son of a Subadar in the native army and educated in the early days of the late Government High School, now called the Presidency College, Chengalroya Naicker by his power of work, faculty for organization, and independence of character, raised himself to the leadership of the Vanniya Community in this city. His great aim through life was to work for the good of the community and the improvement of humanity." The princely endowment of

this noble-hearted gentleman enabled the Trustees in the year 1886 to develop the short-hand class, formed in 1884, as a tentative measure in connexion with Pachaiyappa's College, into a regular Commercial School, bearing the name of Chengalroya Naicker, in which youths are given such practical instruction in technical arts as is necessary to prepare them for taking part in those commercial enterprises on which the progress and prosperity of a nation so much depend. The school owes its present efficient condition to the exertions of Mr John Adam, who may justly be called the pioneer of Commercial and Technical Education in Southern India. It now consists of day and evening classes, and trains students for the Government Technical Examinations.

Thus the endowments of these benefactors, coupled with those of Pachaiyappa, are advancing the progress and enlightenment of the community in all directions, and may be expected to do more in the years yet to come.

PACHAIYAPPA MUDALIAR'S CHARITIES.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES:

W.S. Venkataramanujulu Nayudu, *President*.
S. Appaswami Chetty.
Dewan Bahadur V. Krishnama Chariar.
P. Theagaraya Chetty, B.A.
Dewan Bahadur P. Rajaratna Mudaliyar, C.I.E.
Rajah Sir S. Ramaswami Mudaliyar, Kt., C.I.E.
Rao Bahadur C. Jambulinga Mudaliyar, B.A., M.L., C.I.E.

SECRETARY:

R. S. Ramanujulu Naidu, B.A.

PACHAIYAPPA'S COLLEGE, MADRAS.

(Established in 1842.)

COLLEGE DEPARTMENT.

J. A. Yates, M.A., (Oxon) Principal and Professor of English and History.
Eric Drew, M.A., (Oxon) Professor of Mental and Moral Science.
K. Ramanujachariar, B.A., Lecturer in History and Political Economy.
K. B. Ramanatha Aiyer, M.A., L.T., B.L., Lecturer in English.
S. P. Singaravelu Mudaliyar, B.A., L.T., Professor of Mathematics.
N. Ramanujachariar, M.A., L.T., Assistant Professor of Mathematics and English Tutor.
T. M. Krishnamachariar, B.A., Assistant Professor of History and English Tutor.

B. G. Dorasawmy Pillai, B.A., L.T., Lecturer in Physiology and English Tutor.
M. Krishna Sastriar, Sanskrit Pandit.
T. Chelvakesavaraya Mudaliyar, M.A., Tamil Pandit.
S. Thennarangiah, Telugu Pandit.
Mohammud Sheriff, Gymnastic Instructor.

SUCCESSION LIST OF PRINCIPALS.

G. T. McNamee...	...	...	1842.
R. Ewing	...	...	1844.
Basil Lavery, Knight of the Order St. Gregory the Great	...	...	1851.
D. M. Cruickshank, M.A.	...	...	1878.
John Adam, M.A.	...	...	1884.
M. T. Quinn, M.A.	...	...	1894.
A. J. Cooper-Oakley, M.A.	...	(Acting)	
R. S. Lepper, M.A., L.L.M.	...	...	1896.
W. J. Goodrich, M.A.	...	(Acting)	
J. A. Yates, M.A.	...	...	1901.

Among the Trustees were gentlemen like the late C. Ranganatha Sastriar, P. Ranganada Mudaliar, Salem Ramaswami Mudaliar. Of late there has been rarely the full complement of 9 members on the Board of Trustees. The principle of co-optation adopted for filling vacancies in the Trust Board ensures something like a continuity of policy of management. There is no fear of any violent overthrow of the existing order of things so long as elections are made on the present plan.

We learn that as regards the *School-staff* there are no rules clearly laying down how appointments are to be made. Sometimes the Principal is allowed to make the appointments and sometimes the Board of Management make the appointments without consulting the Principal. Sometimes again the Principal recommends candidates for vacancies as they arise. The Managers accept or reject his recommendations as they please. It may be said that the Managers alone have the privilege of making appointments, there being no rules giving any voice in such matters to the Principal.

As regards the *qualifications and pay of the present High School Staff* the following information has been placed at our disposal:—

Pay—Fourth Form Grade	...	Rs. 35 to 40.
" Fifth Form Grade	...	Rs. 40 to 50.
" Sixth Form Grade	...	Rs. 50 to 65.
" "	...	Rs. 70 to 80.
" "	...	Rs. 80 to 100.
" Head Master	...	Rs. 100 to 125.

Changes are frequent in the lower grades. The pay does not attract any but unqualified men. These continually and of necessity try to get better posts.

The School Fee Concessions:—According to recent rules every concession regarding the College students is directly made by the Principal subject to ratification by the Board of Management. Rules are being framed with regard to the High School Fee Concessions. Hitherto there has been no uniformity of practice. The Principals have at one time had the grant of concessions and at another have been deprived of the grant.

Government Grants:—Only furniture and library grants are given for the High School and salary grants are given for the College.

Furniture and Appliances:—An account of the Library is given elsewhere. The Science laboratory of the High School department is in a satisfactory condition. The furniture will be soon added to and made adequate to the requirements of the College.

Discipline:—Fines, imposition, standing on the bench and discipline. Corporal punishment is rarely resorted to. In the Principal's opinion it has a distinctly salutary effect.

Promotions have hitherto been determined by examinations:—In future term marks will be taken into account. The examinations are conducted by the staff. The Managers do not interfere in the matter of promotions of boys from one class to another.

Marks:—Fixed marks and place marks are both given. In Arithmetic, Algebra and such subjects, each sum successfully worked out will carry fixed marks. In *viva voce* questioning in certain subjects, (Geography, History, &c.) place marks will be the rule. The tendency has been towards the fixed marks system. In the College department, each professor is provided with a register in which he is expected to note the progress of each student.

Devices to secure co-operation of the parents:—Monthly progress reports on printed forms are sent to the parents or guardians of students.

Literary Societies, &c.—The latest Calendar gives the following information regarding the Pachaiyappa Library and Societies and Clubs.

THE PACHAIYAPPA'S LIBRARY.

This is a very important adjunct of the college and it has been very largely increased in recent years. Among the donors to the Library may be mentioned the late Hon'ble V. Rama Aiyangar,

c.s.i., H. H. the Maharajah of Travancore, Justice A. Ramachandra Aiyer, H. H. the Maharajah of Mysore, Mr. S. Rangiah Chettyar, A. J. Cooper-Oakley, Esq. and Mr. G. R. Subbaramiah. The number of volumes on the 31st December 1904 was 5500. Great care is taken to keep the Library up to date in the special subjects for the B. A. Degree Examination and at the same time representative of what is best in general literature, ancient and modern, so that teachers and students may have every opportunity of acquiring the latest knowledge in the special branches of study as well as a liberal general culture. Care is also taken to provide well-illustrated books and magazines, so as to secure greater reality in the teaching of such subjects as *History* and *Geography** and to develop refinement and good taste. Pachaiyappa's Library is certainly "magnificent" and is "very well used." The number of volumes lent to students during 1904 was 7360 and that to the members of the staff, 715. Free temporary lending (books from the special library lent on a certain evening and returned the next morning) was tried as an experiment in 1903 and as it has considerably added to the popularity of the library the system is continued at present. In 1903 a small teachers' Reference Library was started and a number of very valuable books specially intended for teachers were got during the last two years.

PACHAIYAPPA'S READING ROOM.

The Reading Room is attached to the Library and is open to all students and the members of the staff of the Institution.

The "Madras Mail," The "Hindu," The Madras Times," The Indian Journal of Education, The Educational Review, The Indian Review, The Nineteenth Century and After, The Review of Reviews, The Fortnightly, The Asiatic Quarterly, The Spectator, The London Times (weekly edition), The Graphic, The Practical Teacher, The Strand Magazine, The Pall Mall Magazine, The Mind, Sandows' Magazine, The Cricket, The Captain, Tit-bits, The Book-Man, Harper's Magazine, The Economic Journal, are among the journals subscribed.

SOCIETIES AND CLUBS.

THE PACHAIYAPPA'S CLUB

The Pachaiyappa Commemoration Committee started in 1892, the Pachaiyappa Sports Association started in 1902 and the Pachaiyappa-Shakespeare Society started in 1903 were amalgamated

* A specialty of the High School teaching. Another noticeable feature is the attempt to improve English teaching in the lower forms by the adoption of the 'natural method' and by the use of special readers.

in February 1904 under the name of the Pachaiyappa Club. The object of the Club is to rally its old pupils and friends round Pachaiyappa's institutions so that they may be associated in organized efforts for its gradual development into a national college worthy of the best and highest traditions of the people. Membership in this Club is open to all past and present pupils and friends of the Institution. The minimum subscription for life membership is Rs. 15, for old pupils and friends one rupee per annum, and for present students eight annas per annum. Arrangements are made for the present for the meeting of the members at the annual sports, dramatic performances and similar occasions in connection with the College and also for special meetings called to commemorate the name of Pachaiyappa. In 1904, the Club gain a free performance of Shakespeare's "As You Like it" for the members and a paid performance of the same in aid of the Pachaiyappa Hostels. The Pachaiyappa Commemoration was celebrated in October and Mr. V. Krishnaswami Aiyer Avl., B. A., B. L., High Court Vakil, delivered the Commemoration Address.

PACHAIYAPPA'S COLLEGE LITERARY SOCIETY.

This Society was started in 1888 by Mr. John Adam, the then Principal of the College. It has for its object the mental and moral improvement of its members and is open to all the students of the College. The object of the Society is attained by the reading of essays and the holding of debates. Questions of present-day politics are avoided. The Society is managed by a Committee consisting of a President, a Secretary and four other members. The Trustees make a special annual grant of Rs. 30 to cover the ordinary charges of the society. The meetings of the society are held generally every Friday between 4-30 P.M. and 8 P.M..

PACHAIYAPPA'S PHILOSOPHICAL ASSOCIATION.

This Association was founded in 1895 by the late Mr. A. J. Cooper-Oakley. Membership is confined to the students of the Philosophy section of the B. A. Classes. The object of the Association is to encourage the study of Philosophy among its members and the means adopted to attain the object are the reading of essays and the holding of debates on Philosophical subjects. The Association meets every Wednesday between 4-30 P.M. and 8 P.M.

PACHAIYAPPA'S HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

This Association was started in 1894 for special study of Historical subjects and writing essays

and holding discussions thereon. The membership is confined to the History students of the B. A. Classes. The members meet generally every Monday evening, between 4-30 P.M. and 8 P.M.

PACHAIYAPPA'S ATHLETIC CLUB.

This Club makes provision for the regulation and development of athletics and physical exercise among the students of the College and the High School. Membership in the Club is open to the present and past pupils of the institution and its staff. The Club is divided into three branches:—(1) the Cricket Branch, (2) the Tennis Branch and (3) the Foot-ball Branch. The affairs of the Club are managed by the Committees of the different branches with the Principal as the President of each of them. Besides the subscriptions paid by the members, the Trustees allow a substantial grant for its upkeep.

PACHAIYAPPA'S HOSTEL.

The Vaishnava section known by the name of Sri Ramanuja Hostel was started in March 1899, by R. S. Lepper, Esq., M.A., LL.M. the then Principal of the College. Mr. Lepper has spent considerable sums from his pocket for the starting and maintenance of the Hostel and his interest in the institution is so unbounded that even after he left this College, he has been rendering it help financially and otherwise. This

Hostel is at present located in a rented house in Iralappen Street and there is accommodation in it for 30 students. It is worked economically on the principle of self-help and provides good food on reasonable terms, healthy surroundings and proper supervision for its inmates. The Government gives a third rent—grant.

The Pachaiyappa's Club has among its objects the support of the Hostels and has given a donation of Rs. 600 in 1904, with which the Saivite section of the Hostel will be started in July next, and furniture necessary for the two Hostels will be purchased as soon as the Government grant for the same is sanctioned. The Saivite Hostel will be located in Bander Street adjoining the College and will be worked on the same lines as the Vaishnava section.

Manager :

J. A. Yates, Esq.

Tutor :

M. R. Ry. K. Ramanujachariar.

Superintendent :

M. R. Ry. K. A. Vitaraghavachari.

Asst. Superintendent :

M. R. Ry. W. Doraswamy Iyengar.

COLLEGE Time Table, 1905.

Day and Hours.	Senior B.A. Class.	Junior B.A. Class.	Senior F.A. Class.	Junior F.A. Class.
Monday.	10-11 English Prose ...	Science Branches ...	Physiology ...	Mathematics.
	11-12 English Poetry ...	Science Branches ...	English Prose ...	Second Language.
	12-1 Second Language ...	English Prose ...	Mathematics ...	English Poetry.
	2-3 Science Branches ...	Second Language ...	Mathematics ...	History.
Tuesday.	3-4 Science Branches ...	English ...	Second Language ...	English Language.
	10-11 English Composition ...	Science Branches ...	English Language ...	Mathematics.
	11-12 English Composition ...	Science Branches ...	English Poetry ...	Second Language.
	12-1 Second Language ...	Science Branches ...	Mathematics ...	English Prose.
Wednesday.	2-3 Science Branches ...	Second Language ...	Mathematics ...	English Composition.
	3-4 Science Branches ...	English Literature ...	Second Language ...	English Composition.
	10-11 English Literature ...	Science Branches ...	History ...	Mathematics.
	11-12 English Poetry ...	Science Branches ...	English Prose ...	Second Language.
Thursday.	12-1 Second Language ...	English Prose ...	History ...	English Poetry.
	2-3 Science Branches ...	Second Language ...	Mathematics ...	History.
	3-4 Science Branches ...	English ...	Second Language ...	English Language.
	10-11 English Prose ...	English Composition ...	Physiology ...	Mathematics.
Friday.	11-12 English ...	English Composition ...	English Language ...	Second Language.
	12-1 Second Language ...	Science Branches ...	Mathematics ...	Physiology.
	2-3 Science Branches ...	Second Language ...	English Poetry ...	English Prose.
	3-4 Science Branches ...	English Literature ...	Second Language ...	Mathematics.
	10-11 English Literature ...	Science Branches ...	English Composition ...	Mathematics.
	11-12 English ...	Science Branches ...	English Composition ...	Second Language.
	12-1 Second Language ...	English Prose ...	Mathematics ...	Physiology.
	2-3 Science Branches ...	Second Language ...	History ...	English Prose.
	3-4 Science Branches ...	English ...	Second Language ...	Mathematics.

SCHOLARSHIPS.

THE JOHN BRUCE NORTON SCHOLARSHIP.

This scholarship was instituted in 1884 in connection with Pachaiyappa's College in pursuance of a resolution passed at a meeting of the Hindu elite of Madras held in the late Rajah Sir T. Madhava Row's house, on 21st August 1884, with the late Sir T. Muthuswamy Aiyer in the chair. H. H. the Maharajahs of Travancore and Cochin and their Dewans, the Trustees of Pachaiyappa's Charities and other friends and admirers of John Bruce Norton, the distinguished Patron of Pachaiyappa's Educational Charities, raised a sum of Rs. 3,000 to commemorate in connection with this institution his invaluable services in promoting the great cause of education among natives on a sound secular basis. The money is invested in Government securities. This Scholarship amounting to Rs. 10 a month is awarded under such rules and conditions as the Trustees may lay down from time to time to a student who passes the F. A. Examination from this College and undertakes to study for the B. A. Degree Examination of the Madras University.

THE AMIRTHAMMAL SCHOLARSHIPS.

These Scholarships were founded in 1893 by Athiyur Kanakammal and Gummadiyudi Amirthammal, two pious Hindu ladies, who left in the hands of the Trustees amount to the extent of Rs. 7000 and 4000 respectively, for certain educational and religious objects. From the interest thereon the Trustees award a Scholarship in the F. A. Classes of Rs. 50 a year tenable for two years, to the Beri Chetty caste boys.

THE KAPILESWARAPURAM SCHOLARSHIPS.

The Zemindar of Kapileswarapuram, an old pupil of this institution, instituted in 1896, the following Scholarships in the College Department:—

- (1) One at Rs. 75 per annum for a poor student studying for B. A. Examination.
- (2) One at Rs. 60 per annum for a Sanskrit student of the F. A. Class.

THE SRI GODAY VARI SANSKRIT SCHOLARSHIP.

This Scholarship of Rs. 100 a year was instituted in 1893 by Sri Rajah G. N. Gajapathi Rau, C.I.E. It is awarded every alternate year on the results of a competitive Examination among such students of this College reading in the Junior B.A. Class as shall take up and study Sanskrit as the second language for the B.A. Degree Examination of the University of Madras.

V. RAMA AIYANGAR SCHOLARSHIP.

This Scholarship was founded by the late Mr. V. Rama Aiyangar, C.S.I. The scholarship is of the value of Rs. 10 per mensem, being the interest of Rs. 3,000 vested in $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Government securities and is awarded until some provision is made at this College for preparing candidates for the B.A. Degree Examination in some Natural or Physical Science Branch, to that student of the College who having secured the highest place at the University F.A. Examination immediately preceding, desires to pursue his studies at the Presidency College as far as the Degree in the subjects above specified. The Scholarship is awarded by the Syndicate every alternate year.

ENDOWED PRIZES.

THE MACDONALD GOLD MEDAL.

This Medal was founded in 1893 in memory of the late General R. M. Macdonald, formerly Director of Public Instruction, Madras, who always took a warm interest in this College. The endowment consists of Rs. 2,500 received from the Macdonald Memorial Committee, and on the interest of this sum a Gold Medal is annually awarded to the student of this College who passes highest in any branch of the Science Division of the B. A. Degree Examination which may be determined upon by the Trustees from time to time provided that when a chair for physical science is founded in the College, the Medal shall be awarded preferentially for that branch of Science.

THE KAPILESWARAPURAM PRIZES.

These are three in number instituted by the Zemindar of Kapileswarapuram, two of these are awarded to the College students, one to the student standing first in English Language Division of the B. A. Degree Examination and the other to the student of the F. A. Senior Class, who obtains the highest marks in Sanskrit.

THE JAYARAM CHETTI GOLD MEDAL.

This Medal was founded in 1870 by the friends and admirers of the late S. Jayaram Chetti for many years a Trustee of Pachaiyappa's Charities and was from its foundation upto the end of 1893, awarded annually to that pupil of Pachaiyappa's High School, Madras, who stood highest at the Matriculation Examination of the University of Madras. Beginning with 1894 the medal is awarded to that student of the College Department who stands highest at the F. A. Examination of the University of Madras.

THE SESHIAH SASTRIAR (1) ENGLISH ESSAY;
(2) ELOCUTION PRIZES.

These prizes were founded in 1892, the Jubilee year, by the late A. Seshiah Sastriar, C.S.I., one of the earliest of Pachaiyappa's Stipendary scholars. Each of these is of the annual value of Rs. 40. The donor in 1894 made permanent arrangements for the award of these prizes. The first of these is awarded to that student of the College Department who writes the best off-hand English Essay and the second, to one who stands first in English Elocution at an annual competition. The prizes consist of books suited to the special requirements of the winner.

THE GAEKWAR OF BARODA PRIZE.

His Highness the Gaekwar of Baroda during his short stay in Madras in September 1901 paid a visit to the College and gave a donation of Rs. 500 to the institution. The Trustees have resolved to institute an annual prize in his name in the Senior B.A. Class. The prize was awarded in 1903 to C.R. Krishnamachari.

THE SRIRANGAM CHETTIAR GOLD MEDAL.

Mr. P. S. Thaivasigamany Chettiar, an old Pachaiyappa boy, signalled the year of the Diamond Jubilee by a munificent donation of Rs. 1,000 for founding in memory of his father, Srirangam Chettiar, a gold medal to be awarded annually to the student of Pachaiyappa's College, who comes out first in English at the B.A. Degree Examination of the Madras University. The medal was awarded in 1903 to C. R. Krishnamachari.

THE RAJAH SIR S. RAMASWAMI MUDALIAR
GOLD MEDAL.

This Medal was founded by Rajah Sir S. Ramaswami Mudaliar on the occasion of his son being put to school on 15th February 1888. The endowment consists of Rs. 1200, the interest upon which is applied to the purchase of a gold medal, and this was annually awarded to the best student in the highest class of the Chengalvaraya Naiker's Commercial School. Owing to the abolition of the day classes of this school from 1897, it is conferred on the student of the college passing highest in branch IV (Philosophy) of the Science Division of the B.A. Degree Examination.

THE PANDI THORAI GOLD MEDAL.

This was instituted in 1900 by M.R. Ry. Pandi Thorai Devar Avergal, the enlightened Zemindar of Polavanattam in Ramnad. The endowment

consists of Rs. 600 the interest on which amount is the value of the medal. It is open to Tamil Students of the Senior B.A. Class who have obtained not less than 50 % in Tamil in the preceding half-yearly Examination and all others who have passed the Tamil Branch of the B.A. Examination from the College not more than 5 years previous to the announcement of the subject and is awarded alternately for the best Tamil Essay on any useful subject or the best free Translation or exposition in Tamil of a standard English work.

THE JOHN ADAM PRIZE.

This Prize was instituted in 1896 by Mr. P. Doraiswami Aiyangar, an old Pachaiyappa boy, and a Provincial Civil Servant, to commemorate the invaluable services to this institution of John Adam, Esq., as Principal from 1884 to 1894.

TERMS AND HOLIDAYS (1905.)

January.

12th Th. Bogi Pandigai; 13th F. Pongal; 16th M. College and High School reopen. First Term to the Senior Classes begins; 21st S. New Moon. Half-holiday for College.

February.

4th S. New Moon (Thai Amavasya).

March.

4th S. Mahasivaratri; 6th M. New Moon. 20th M. Aruvathinuvar at Mylapore (Holiday for the School Dep.); 27th M. VI Form Fortnightly Examination. (Arithmetic.); 31st F. Pachaiyappa died 1794. Half-holiday. Madras University Convocation 1905.

April.

4th Tu. New Moon. Half-holiday for College; 5th W. Telugu New Year's day. Holiday. 13th Th. Tamil New Year's day, Holiday; 14th F. Sri Rama Navami. Holiday; 21st F. Good Friday. Garudotsavam at Triplicane. Easter Holidays begin; 25th Tu. Easter Holidays end.

May.

2nd Tu. High School Half-yearly Examination begins; 4th Th. New Moon; 8th M. College Half-yearly Examination begins; 12th F. First term ends; 15th M. Midsummer vacation begins.

July.

1st S. Latest date for sending in High School Half-yearly Examination Marks and Examiners

reports; 8th S. Latest date for sending in College Half-yearly Examination Marks; 10th M. The High School Department reopens; 17th M. The College reopens. The Second Term begins; 31st M. New Moon.

August.

14th M. Asvalayana and Apasthamba Upakarama. Holiday; 15th Tu. Gayatri Japam. Holiday; 16th W. Sixth Form Selection Examination begins; 22nd Tu. Krishna Jayanti, Holiday; 23rd W. College Senior Classes Selection Examination begins. 24 Th. Sri Jayanti. Holiday; 26th S. Last day of the College Selection Examinations; 30th W. New Moon. Half-holiday.

September.

6th W. Latest date for sending in College Selection Examination marks; 28th Th. Mahalaya Amavasya. Holiday; 29th F. Michaelmas Day. Dasarah Holidays begin.

October.

5th Th. Saraswati Poojah; 6th F. Last day of the Dasarah Holidays; 16th M. Thula Sankramanam. 26th Th. Latest date for applications for the Seshiah Sastriyar Prizes; 27th F. Deepavali; Holiday. 28th S. New Moon.

November.

1st W. Competition for the Seshiah Sastriar English Elocution Prize; 6th M. Latest date for sending in College Annual Examination Question Papers; 8th W. Sixth Form Annual Examination commences; 10th F. Competition for the Seshiah Sastriar English Essay Prize; 14th Tu. Last day of the II Term for the College Senior Classes; 15th W. Last day for sending attendance certificates for Matriculation, F.A., and B.A., Degree Examinations; 20th M. Fifth and Fourth Forms Annual Examinations begin; 23rd Th. College Junior Classes Annual Examinations begin; 27th M. New Moon. 30th Th. Last day of the II Term for College Junior Classes and the High School.

December.

1st F. Christmas Holidays begin; 26th Tu. New Moon; 30th S. Latest date for sending in College and High School Annual Examination Marks.

THE MADRAS UNIVERSITY CONVOCATION.

The following is the full-text of the speech made by Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck, at the Madras Convocation on the 31st March 1905.

Mr. Chancellor.—As you have called upon me to deliver the Address on the occasion of this the first Convocation since the passing of the New Universities Act, I beg to be permitted, before addressing the Graduates of the year, to offer a brief expression of my views on a few matters connected with the work and administration of this University. Our past performances, our future developments: these are the two subjects with which I propose to deal.

THE MADRAS UNIVERSITY'S RECORD.

First then as to our past:—What work have we done? What have we failed to do? Many harsh judgments and severe criticisms have been passed on the work and character of Universities in India, but I am inclined to think that the University of Madras has little need to be ashamed of the results of the past half century, and I believe that this opinion will be endorsed by the philosophical historian of the future when he views things in the dry light of historical retrospect. Let us briefly examine the credit side of our account. Though in its essence an examining body, the University has called into existence a large number of Colleges, in some of which, whatever the scoffers may say, an education of no despicable character is given. In order to start and maintain these Colleges, a number of activities have been called into play on the part of Government and private bodies, of agencies, lay or missionary, Indian or foreign. Numbers of well-educated men have been turned out, of whom some have strengthened the ranks of the teaching profession, others have assisted in making the work of general administration easy and efficient, and others again, as Judges and Vakils, have by their ability and uprightness largely contributed to upholding the honour of, and strengthening the respect for, our Courts of Justice. We have also to remember what valuable potentialities have been made available in the literature and the history of England that have been studied in our Colleges, and how the mysterious spiritual influences associated with culture have been permeating silently but effectively through the minds and lives of not hundreds but thousands, providing a stimulus to higher thought and nobler action. Without doubt some part of these results may be traced to other operating causes, but the University may claim a large share in producing these

results. Evidence in support of this claim is, I think, forthcoming in the undoubted indications of new habits of mind and new tendencies which are noticeable among our students who are members of the families of our earlier graduates.

"EXAMINATION SICKNESS."

If, however, there is much in the work of the University on which the country may legitimately congratulate itself, we must not be blind to the failures and shortcomings of our academical system, or to the evils that have grown up under it. First among them is what I shall call the examination sickness, a disease which flourishes under conditions only too favourable for its propagation. Examinations are an important instrument in a systematised scheme of education and are useful for other purposes, but the fact that they were of the essence of the University system has had the effect of corrupting educational ideals. Education does not simply mean the acquisition of measurable quantities of knowledge, nor can the term "educated" be claimed by the student who gives proof merely of a capacity for storing words or information in his memory, and of a faculty for rapidly discharging his accumulations in given periods of time. Education on its intellectual side, besides the storing up of knowledge, means the training of the powers of observation and reflection, the development of a sense of proportion, the acquisition of intellectual tastes, the stimulation of intellectual activities. Such an educational idea, I fear, has been not infrequently ignored. Under the stimulus of examinations, students work to pass and not to know, and, consequently, in too many cases, graduation does not mean education. One unfortunate result of this has been a depreciation in the value of our degrees.

Again, it is clear from the language of the Despatch of 1854 that the framers of our system of higher education intended that, while the work of examining should be the function of the University proper, the actual training of students should be relegated to affiliated Colleges. If the relations between the University and its affiliated Colleges had been clearly defined, possibly the University might have been able to exercise a control which would have made for greater efficiency. Unfortunately, the ties between the University and its Colleges have been of the loosest, and such responsibility as devolved on the University has been shared with the Department of Education. Under these conditions, we find that affiliated institutions, in point of organisation, equipment, discipline and methods of instruction, are far from ideal, and that Colleges seem content to measure

their efficiency by a reference to the fallacious tests of examination results.

A TOO LITERARY TRAINING.

It has also been urged with some justification that our University curricula have been too literary and appear to have been conceived in the interests of students seeking for employment in Government offices or preparing for the profession of Law, while the experimental sciences have been neglected in spite of their many advantages as instruments of education and as means of developing the resources of the country. It is true that efforts have been made to remedy this defect in our scheme of operation, but it is to be feared that with ill-organised and ill-equipped laboratories and with congested class rooms, the teaching of science, in some instances, has been little more than the teaching of text-books and makes no call on the student for direct individual observation of facts and the exercise of his logical faculties on these facts. In these circumstances, the teaching of science is, as an intellectual discipline, futile and becomes a mockery. Again, the University is said to have failed in another direction, inasmuch as in this Presidency very little has been done in the field of research, literary, philological, historical or scientific. Some work of real value has been accomplished by graduates of this University, but our original workers are few in number. As many apologists have come forward to account for this failure, I shall here offer only a few observations on the subject. The Indian Universities were not originally organised for the purpose of promoting research, but were planned with other objects in view. Moreover, it is idle to expect research work when the very necessities for this work, such as well-stocked libraries and adequately equipped laboratories, hardly exist in the Presidency, and so long as Professors are compelled to spend a considerable portion of their energy in giving to the students who join their Colleges a grounding which they should have received before they enter. In view of these considerations, I think that the matter under discussion cannot fairly be entered to the debit side of the University account.

FUTURE POSSIBILITIES.

To turn now to future developments. The new Act seems to me to be full of immense potentialities for the good of the University and the country, for it remedies two of the greatest defects in the original scheme of organisation of our University, in that it makes clear that it is the function of the University to take its share in the work of teaching and the encouragement

of research, and, secondly, in that it explicitly defines the relations of the University to its affiliated Colleges and places these under its direct control. Section 3 of the New Act empowers our University to appoint Professors and Lecturers, and to erect, equip and maintain University libraries, laboratories and museums, and I fervently hope that every effort will be made to prevent this provision of the Act from remaining a dead letter. A scheme for establishing and maintaining a University Library in connection with the Government Connemara Library is under consideration and, if accepted by the University and approved by Government, will make it possible for us to build up a very useful library in a few years at no great expense to the University. For some years to come it will not perhaps be necessary for the University to devote much of its income to the maintenance of museums, for it ought to be a matter of easy arrangement to provide facilities in the Government Central Museum for University students who wish to work there. The most costly part of the obligation on the Senate lies in the necessity for making provision for the establishment and maintenance of well-equipped laboratories and for the salaries of University Professors. In several of the countries of Europe, in some of the British overseas Colonies, in triumphant Japan, large sums of money are expended in making provision for the highest kinds of education, and the money so expended has proved to be a most valuable national investment, for besides promoting the material prosperity of the people by direct as well as by indirect means, it has called into operation forces which, acting through the public consciousness, have raised educational ideals, quickened the sense of human responsibilities and stimulated intellectual activities. Is it too much to hope that public-spirited citizens in this Presidency will come forward with contributions towards the promotion of national progress, spiritual and material? In the absence of private benefactions, the Senate can look only to the aid of the Government of this Presidency and—may I be permitted to add?—I believe it will not look in vain to a Government which, in several matters of educational policy, has already given the lead to other parts of India. If, in this Presidency, we are to have the best that money can supply, and if the resources at our disposal are not unlimited, it is obvious that the only policy for the development of the highest education is one of concentration. The subject is one on which I had the privilege of touching in the Supreme Legislative Council, about a year ago, and I wish more fully to indicate

the directions which, in my view, the policy of concentration should take.

CONCENTRATION OF EFFORT.

In the first place, all our efforts for many years to come should be steadily directed to the equipment and maintenance of one efficient central institution, capable of supplying the highest teaching and adequate opportunities for research in some of the fields of knowledge. This is a matter in which the dissipation of resources should not be permitted. Again, if the affiliated Colleges must, under the new Act, be regarded as forming an organic part of the University, the policy of concentration should be applied to the organisation and work of these Colleges. Affiliated Colleges, while retaining a separate existence and distinct characteristics of their own, should be so co-ordinated as to make them supplementary to one another, each taking upon itself a definite and distinct part of University work. By the adoption of such a policy, these Colleges will be able to utilise their resources to the best advantage by improving their efficiency in the special line of activity assigned to them, while at the same time a check, if not an end, will be put to the unhealthy—and some times unholy—rivalries and jealousies which are now so often in evidence. I would go further and throw out the suggestion that in the time to come, when the different parts of our University organisation have adjusted themselves, Government, instead of giving its grants-in-aid directly to these Colleges, should hand them over to the University for distribution, leaving to the University considerable discretion as to the way in which the distribution should be effected.

REFORM IN EXAMINATIONS.

Further, in relation to examinations, the Senate will, I hope, in emulation of the Institute for Preventive Medicine, endeavour to discover a prophylactic against the ravages of the examination sickness to which I have referred. In some cases, the University might co-operate with the Colleges in the conduct of their own examinations and treat the latter as University examinations. Such a course would deprive the University examination of some part of its public or competitive character, but it would tend to restrict examinations to their true function, as a means and not an end, by bringing them into line with the work of a College, and would, moreover, involve large economy of time, energy, and expenditure. Again, the Senate, by special regulation, might provide that examination papers should be of a character to test a candidate's capacity and his assimilation of his subject

rather than his powers of memory, to which I am afraid our question papers of to-day make an undue appeal. This does not mean that the papers should be difficult. An examiner, to quote Huxley's words, should "seek for information respecting the mental vigour and training of candidates from the way in which they deal with questions easy enough to let reason, memory and method have fair play." Again, in view of the depreciated value of the B. A. degree of an Indian University, it seems desirable to institute an Honours Degree and courses for the same which shall be open only to students who can produce satisfactory evidence of a capacity to pursue them. In Japan, the degree of *Hakushi* is given in different Faculties both to students who have passed certain prescribed examinations and to those who, having produced a thesis on any subject connected with their special branch of study, shall be considered by the University authorities to possess attainments equal to or higher than those necessary for passing the prescribed examinations. I think that a similar alternative for an Honours course should be adopted in this University. In one case, only candidates who have gone through a specified course of study under qualified Professors will be admitted to the examination, and, in the other case, men whose circumstances do not permit them to attend a regular University course will have a chance of obtaining recognition for meritorious work.

HIGH SCHOOLS AS UNIVERSITY FEEDERS.

In this connection, I feel it my duty to refer to a matter which, though it lies outside the province of the University, greatly concerns its welfare: I mean the standard of efficiency of the High Schools from which University students are drawn. So long as Colleges have to devote time, money and energy to training students for the F.A. examination, which, in this Presidency, may, in a way, be regarded as marking the close of an Upper Secondary education, and so long as only a two years course is required from students preparing for their B.A. degree, I fear that little improvement can be expected in the out-turn of our Colleges. To my mind, one of the most urgent reforms needed in India is a reform directed to the improvement of our High Schools in respect to their standards, their methods, their equipment and organisation, for a sound High School system here, as in other countries, should be the real back-bone of a system of national education. The German Emperor, in a recent speech, is reported to have said that the development of German technical skill of recent years was due "to serious work and systematic teaching, based on the scientific knowledge of our

schools." When will it be possible for us to speak in the same eulogistic strain of the foundations laid in our High Schools? Again, the Press, English and Indian, has been eloquent in its admiration of the Japanese and their methods, and much has been said—in some cases, perhaps, with insufficient knowledge—of the value of the system of education in Japan. My own knowledge of the subject, obtained in part at first hand on the occasion of a visit to that country, teaches me the necessity for caution in drawing conclusions from the methods and institutions of the Japanese. But in one respect their system presents a striking contrast to what prevails in this country. Their so-called Higher Schools, whose function, among other matters, is to prepare students for a University course, I found to be better equipped in respect to libraries and laboratories than some of our First Grade Colleges, while their instructional staff was of great numerical strength, the courses of study prosecuted in them covered a period of three years, and the students reading in them appeared to be well-grown young men and not mere boys. Cannot we in India make our High Schools places in which a good foundation may be laid for the superstructure to be erected thereon by the University, or in which a student, if he be unable to proceed to the University, may obtain a solid education which will help him in the battle of life? The organisation of High Schools is at least a far simpler and cheaper affair than the organisation of Colleges and Universities.

THE FUTURE UNDER THE NEW ACT.

As regards the prospects of the future under the new Act I am most hopeful. An experience of thirty years in the Colleges of this Presidency justifies me in saying that there is excellent material in our student population. What is required is the opportunity and the machinery for turning this material to the best account. If the Act be administered firmly, honestly, sympathetically, if all the various agencies and sections of society that are now, or will be, associated in the active work of University administration, harmoniously co-operate, it will not, I think, be long before we shall be in a position to witness an immense improvement in our educational ideals and methods and results.

SOME WORDS TO THE GRADUATES.

And now a few words to you graduates of the year whom I congratulate on your successes and for whose prosperity you have my best wishes. In the presence of numerous witnesses, you have this day pledged yourselves to honour your University and to be good men and good citizens. Has that promise been uttered as a mere form of

words or with a full sense of the responsibilities you have undertaken? May the future establish your sincerity! You all know what sweeping censures have been passed in recent years on the work of Indian Universities. Let me ask you to remember these censures, not in order to retaliate in terms upon your censors, but in order to rebut their charges by your work and conduct. Jealously guard the good name of your University—which in considerable measure means your own good name—and endeavour to win for it and for yourselves the respect of the educated classes in other lands. If education means the acquisition of intellectual tastes, the stimulation of mental activities, the cultivation of judgment or the sense of proportion, give evidence that you are carrying away with you from the University educated tastes and trained judgments. In particular, continue to cultivate the habit of reading, and reflecting on what you read, for reading, whether directed to the end of general culture or to your immediate professional requirements, gives a quickening impulse and a sustaining strength. Among those I am now addressing there may be some who, in the severe struggle for existence they may be destined to experience, will have perhaps little time and little means for improving their culture. But to such, as to others, opportunities for reading at leisure must come. If so, do not neglect them. To all of you I would suggest that it will be to your advantage to be on familiar terms with a few of the world's great books,—more especially those that deal with the old but ever-new themes.

"How rich and strong the human lot;
How warm the tints of life; how hot
Are Love and Hate;
And what makes Truth divine, and what
Makes Manhood great."

Works such as these afford rest and refreshment to the jaded spirit in its journey through the troubles and vexations of life, and serve to sober and steady the judgment by referring it to the standards of a common humanity. Familiarity with them cannot fail to exercise a refining and ennobling influence on your lives and conduct. Remember that each cultured man may be a powerful influence for good in society, and that as all of you must be members of some home, you can through the subtle influences of home life do more for the real education of the generation that is to succeed you than can be done by school or college. Fail not in your responsibilities in this respect.

SCOPE FOR RESEARCH.

There are, I trust, not a few here who are animated by the divine ambition to enlarge the domain

of knowledge by investigation and research, for I am convinced that among our students in this Presidency there are many who have the intellectual qualifications and the spirit of patient enquiry necessary for the work. So far as the observational and experimental sciences are concerned, the past has not been favourable for the prosecution of original work. Something, however, has been effected by graduates of this University, and this is full of promise for the future under more favourable conditions. In the department of history, economics, literature and philology, the field is vast and still almost unfurrowed. That distinguished product of this University, the late Mr. S. Srinivasaraghava Aiyangar, in his work on the Progress of the Madras Presidency during forty years of British Administration, has, in the field of economic history, given evidence of the potentialities of Indian scholarship. The late Mr. P. Sundram Pillay had also produced work of real value in the field of history and archaeology, when his early death unfortunately deprived his fellow-countrymen of the inspiration of a splendid example. Your ambitions need not extend to writing elaborate general works on history or economics. Modern scientific research proceeds methodically and laboriously, demanding in the first place an accumulation of reliable and verifiable facts before theory can come into play, and by the deciphering and interpretation of inscriptions, by photographing or sketching architectural forms or sculptures, or by collecting information as to prices, land-tenures, and contracts from the records that have been treasured for generations in private families.

To turn to the domain of Language and Literature:—I found during a recent visit to another part of India that critics elsewhere spoke with small respect of the Sanskrit scholarship of their fellow-countrymen in the Southern Presidency. The opinions expressed by them may have reflected the prejudices arising from ethnic or sectarian cleavages which are occasionally so strongly in evidence in India, but it lies with you to show that they are based on no solid foundation. There are at least two lines of enquiry in connection with the languages of South India which promise splendid returns to the man who pursues them, the Phonetics of Indian languages, and the Metrical systems of Indian poetry, neither of which subjects, so far as I know, has been handled with any scientific fulness and adequacy. I am aware that some of our younger graduates are devoting themselves to the study of the vernacular languages of the Presidency, and the results of their efforts

will, I hope, prove of scientific value. However, I must admit that it is to me a matter of surprise that, though our University, ever since its foundation, has encouraged the cultivation of the vernacular languages by including them in its curricula, so little has been done by graduates to bring Western ideas and knowledge more fully home to the minds of their fellow-countrymen by the adaptation or translation of works in European languages.

Again, why is it that in this Presidency there has been such a dearth in the literature of self-expression, whether in English or in the Vernaculars? A living literature is the expression of the thought and feeling of the people that produce it, but I know, and have heard, of little that can be so described, if we exclude journalism in its various forms. Works like *Induleka*, *Kamala's Letters*, and *Indra Bai*, though they may be open to criticism on various grounds, are nevertheless human documents of some value. Would that there were more such documents! You owe it to your British fellow-subjects to reveal more of your inner nature. Surely a better understanding among yourselves will be the result when an author belonging to one sect, or race, or part of the country, sets before the reading public a picture of the life of the society in which he moves. It is to me a subject of melancholy reflection that, in spite of many years of fairly intimate relations with certain sections of the people of this Presidency, I have to admit that there is much in their inner life and character which remains quite unknown to me, and which, in the present circumstances, must remain unknowable. Social customs, religious prejudices, ingrained national or racial habits stand between the people and the British, and prevent at least the latter from obtaining that fuller knowledge and developing that deeper sympathy that are so necessary for mutual understanding and harmonious co-operation. Ignorance in this as in other matters is the mother of prejudice and misunderstanding. May it be the aim of some of you to help to remove this ignorance!

Again as educated men, show by your words and acts that you have a sense of proportion and that you are capable of judging things for yourselves. No one expects profound wisdom from the young, but one does expect to find evidence of individuality or of spontaneous activity among minds trained by scholastic discipline. In my intercourse with young men, I have been frequently impressed with the almost monotonous uniformity of their opinions and utterances on questions of political or social interest, opinions and utterances

which are obviously but echoic repetitions from the journals they read or the orators they listen to. It is, only on rare occasions that I have had the pleasure of meeting men who entertain views that are oppugnant to those generally held and expressed. Surely the old saying: *quot homines, tot sententiæ* does not need revision in its application to India. I am inclined to think that much of this uniformity is owing to false notions of loyalty to country and traditions, and I would therefore remind you of the moral of Shakespeare's description of the Commonwealth of the bees, that "many things having full reference to one consent, may work contrariously." There is a *law of contradiction* in this world which has a wider application than that given to it by Aristotle, for all evolution is a progressive adjustment of antagonisms.

HYPERSENSITIVE RAWNESS.

Let me also urge upon you the importance of correctly estimating the conditions of what may be called criticism proper. Criticism, to be of value, should be well-informed, not ignorant; well-considered, not thoughtless; and will-intentioned, not malicious. The highest criticism has been called *appreciation*, and is the flower of a cultured mind. Destructive criticism, or mere fault-finding, does not require a high order of mind, though of course the better-informed the critic may be and the keener his intellect, the better able will he be to demonstrate errors in fact and establish defects in argument. On the other hand *appreciation*, in addition to knowledge and keenness of intellect, requires that highest gift of man, a sympathetic imagination, which will enable the critic to put himself in the position of the person he criticises and realise what is best—while he is not blind to what is bad—in the subject of his criticism. There is often what looks like malevolence or a want of gentlemanly feeling in much of the criticism one meets with in this country, and this remark applies not merely to journalism, but to incidents in ordinary conversation and in debating-society meetings, and even to scenes in College playing-fields. The phenomenon involves a psychological paradox, for the people of India are remarkable for their kindly sympathy and generous impulses, and are characterised by a disposition to avoid giving offence. Possibly the phenomenon is a case of reactions, habitual repression under certain conditions, may rebound into the opposite extreme. It is a natural impulse in man to rejoice over the discomfiture of a foe or the degradation of a power superior to his own. Unfortunately, in some men, this tendency is associated with and aggravated by the operation of an almost morbid self-consciousness, or a

hyper-sensitiveness that responds too readily to certain kinds of stimuli. This hypersensitive rawness, which is common enough everywhere, is, it has always seemed to me, very common in India, and is, I believe, in large measure the product of the habits of exclusiveness which characterise Indian life and customs, an exclusiveness which has stood in the way of progress, but which appears to be yielding to the operation of new forces, and the effects of which, so far as our schools and Colleges are concerned, will be largely neutralised by the development of the Hostel system.

STUDENTS AND POLITICS.

Though I think it is unfortunate that the methods of party warfare in England, which are intelligible in the land of their origin, should be copied by the politicians of India, a country in which the conditions of society and administration are so different, I say nothing against the young man's disposition to interest himself in politics. This tendency, due as much to generous feeling as it is to vanity, appears to me to be natural enough in the youth of an Empire in which politics claim an altogether disproportionate share of public attention. Indeed, I doubt not that there are some of us on this Senate who would be unable to plead "not guilty" to a charge that we had devoted some portion of an unregenerate youth to the discussion of political questions or the criticisms of political opponents. However, the accretions of experience that years bring with them demonstrate the folly of opinions not based on sound knowledge, and I claim the privilege of an older man to give the politicians among you this advice: accept facts as facts; do not mistake statement for fact; never confound hypothesis with demonstration. Further, do not allow the higher politics to monopolise your attention, but devote some of your energies to the lower politics of municipal and social reform, or to schemes for the development of the vast material resources of the country and the promotion of trade and industry.

RACIAL BITTERNESS.

There is one other matter to which I feel impelled by a strong sense of duty to refer. Recent years have presented unmistakable signs of the existence of some bitterness of feeling between the people of this country and the ruling classes. It would be idle to shut one's eyes to the fact that it exists and appears to be intensifying or extending. It is far from general and there are many gentlemen, Indian and European, who regret its existence and would willingly assist in the mitigation or extinction of an evil which might, if unchecked,

develop into serious proportions. Its existence may be due to faults on both sides. On the one side, there may have been a superfluity of the pride of race and an imperfect appreciation of the sentiments and aspirations of a people whose present condition is in a large measure the direct result of British administration. On the other hand, there appears to be a tendency on the part of some Indians to misunderstand the true position of affairs. Comparisons are sometimes drawn between the Government and methods of to-day and the Government and methods of the earlier stages of British administration, and not by any means to the advantage of the former. Administrative officers are probably not less sympathetic than their predecessors; for are not the officials of the present day recruited from the same stock as in former times? Does not the public service in the main consist of men with the same high standards of duty and of the same love of fair play? That a change has taken place in the general character of the administration must be admitted; it has developed into a huge automatic machine and has almost grown into the impersonal. The Indian ideal of Government is an incarnation of Providence in human shape. In former times many a District officer was in the popular mind the personification of Government, but the trend of events has converted him into a piece of mechanism, and the change from the personal to the impersonal has been too rapid to admit of the necessary adjustment and adaptations being made in the consciousness of the Indian public. To this, I believe, much of the dissatisfaction and many of the misunderstandings that exist are due. Again, as I have frequently pointed out to my own students, the critics of Government occasionally appear to treat questions from a too exclusively Indian standpoint. They do not make sufficient allowance for the effect upon British administration in India of the operation of the great dynamical forces—political and economical—which have been for many years at work, and which have brought the outlying region of the world within the sphere of interactions among the peoples of Europe. If China must be opened in the interest of the trade and industries—not to speak of the political ambitions—of Europe, America and Japan, how unlikely is it that India should remain isolated, being what it is an integral part of one of the greatest empires that the world has ever seen! She and her people must, in spite of themselves, take a part in the evolution of the present age, and if India's people do not recognise the necessity of this, her rulers cannot ignore it. If the ties subsisting between India and the Empire are to continue—and the snapping of them would be dis-

then insistent political conditions must dictate an endeavour to reconcile the different interests of

FEELING.

ies made to environment, to dis- the imputations men in the very assured to them ardly calculated the side of the as of fellowship Hegel teaches, ism, it is also monstrate, that cannot be adjusted were wisdom nates who, as a of exercising union, to exert of preventing good feeling. ssed by one of brother-hood, mighty Roman r in mind that as a member brought under selves to every or it be to the nors, as unto unishment of on them that do

well. For so is the will of God, that with well-doing ye may put to silence the ignorance of foolish men: as free, and not using your liberty for a cloak of maliciousness, but as the servants of God. Honour all men. Love the brotherhood. Fear God. Honour the King."

"STANDARD SCHOOLS" FOR MAINE.

Much is being said about "the value of the public school and the duty of each citizen in making it more efficient." This discussion, as found in the newspapers and delivered from platforms, has stimulated our interest in civilization's most potent agent. It has led to not a little investigation and has suggested some queries which, when answered in tangible form, will bring us many improvements. It is the hope of all good citizens that this revival of

interest may result in the establishment and maintenance of such schools as are needed to fit the youth of to-day for the duties of to-morrow.

The "Ideal School" is not attainable. It is doubtful if it is desirable. If we had it we should not be able to use it in such a way as to derive benefit from it. We have to grow up to the higher planes before we can be helped by ideal conditions.

The "Model School" has filled such large spaces in so many reports that it is in bad odor. The "Model School," like the "Ideal School," is both illusive and delusive. Each is one thing to-day and something quite different to-morrow. Before either can be built it will have outgrown the conception upon which it was constructed.

The "Standard School" is achievable. It has metes and bounds and may have a local habitation.

After a careful study of school conditions, in this and several other states, it has been decided that we have reached a point in our progress where it is necessary for us, and particularly for our school officials and teachers, to have concrete examples of what a "Standard School" is.

Sketches, designs, plans, pictures and detailed explanations have proved helpful, but there is a demand for a physical illustration of a school of this class. Our people want to walk through the grounds, note the location of the drives, walks and paths, have a view of the spaces devoted to lawns, make an examination of the forest areas and examine the fruit orchards, vegetable gardens and the sections set apart for playgrounds and sports.

They desire, also, to make studies of the architecture of the building and its coloring. They are especially interested in the interior, the assembly room, the halls, cloak-rooms, work-rooms, ventilating flues, heating apparatus, location and size of the windows and the furnishings of the schoolroom.

This "Standard School" should include, at least, the following items:

A school lot of at least three acres. This area should be divided into plots for forest trees, fruit trees, vegetable and flower gardens, a lawn, playgrounds and the necessary drives, walks and paths.

The building should be constructed of wood and should be of such size as will allow for a vestibule and cloak, work and assembly rooms. It should be of simple and attractive architecture and painted in such tints as will harmonize

with its surroundings. The floors and wainscoting should be of yellow birch. The walls and ceilings should be of steel, the former being painted a light buff and the latter a light cream.

The windows should be massed at the left and rear of the pupils when seated.

The schoolroom should be provided with slate blackboards, single, adjustable desks, recitation settees, a desk for the teacher, a revolving chair and extra chairs for visitors.

The room should also be provided with a bookcase, copies of standard works and volumes of special interest to children.

The walls should be decorated with statuary and pictures of recognized merit. There should also be a set of outline maps, charts and a globe.

The stove should be surrounded by an iron jacket and connected with a fresh air flue. The chimney should include a ventilating shaft.

The water supply should be ample and of undoubted purity.

The outbuildings should be in the rear corners of the lot and surrounded by evergreen trees.

The fences at the rear and sides should be sufficient to protect the grounds from the depredations of animals. The front fence should be made of posts, wire and a single set of boards and should not extend more than three feet six inches above the ground.

A small room should be connected with one of the rear corners of the building to serve as a workroom for the boys. This room should be supplied with a carpenter's bench, a set of tools and a small quantity of lumber.

Another small room should be joined to the opposite rear corner of the main building to serve as a workroom for the girls. This should be furnished with a stove, table, chairs, dishes, lap boards, flat irons and other articles needed in simple household work.

For extended details of all the items enumerated above, see pamphlet entitled, "Sketches, Designs and Plans for School Buildings, School Grounds and Out-houses" and pamphlet entitled, "Improvement of School Buildings and Grounds."

It is hardly reasonable to ask any community to bear the cost involved in establishing an experimental "Standard School" without assistance from those who are able to contribute a part of the necessary funds.

After a careful consideration of the whole situation it has been thought that the following is a fair distribution of the burden which the found-

ing of a "Standard School" would place upon any given community:

FIRST. That community should be selected for the establishment of the School which furnishes the largest "Special Fund," taking into consideration the valuation of its real and personal estates, as returned by the municipal officers of the town. These contributions may be made by residents in the community, or may be solicited from persons in other communities who are willing to make donations.

SECOND. The town should provide the school building as found in the community in which the improvements are to be made and a lot of at least three acres.

THIRD. A donor or donors should contribute as much to this "Special Fund" as is given by the community and secured by solicitation from those not living within its limits, provided that the amount contributed by the donor or donors shall not exceed \$500.

It also seems clear that bids for this school in any given community should be limited by the following conditions:

FIRST. No community shall be eligible to compete for the school if its population exceeds eighty persons who are between five and twenty-one years of age.

SECOND. That the community raising the largest sum in proportion to its assessed valuation shall be entitled to receive the contribution of the donor or donors offered for the country in which said community is located.

THIRD. A committee of two shall be appointed to take charge of the "Special Fund" contributed for the purpose of establishing a "Standard School." One member of this committee shall be chosen by the community in which it is located and the other shall be appointed by the donor or donors.

FOURTH. The members of the abovenamed committee shall be elected or appointed annually and shall serve until their successors are chosen and enter upon the discharge of their duties.

FIFTH. All "Special Funds" shall be deposited in a bank designated by this committee.

SIXTH. This committee shall have entire charge and control of the "Special Fund" raised for the purposes above described.

SEVENTH. These funds shall be expended only upon orders signed by both members of said committee.

EIGHTH. Sketches, designs and plans for the improvement of the school grounds and buildings shall receive the approval of the abovenamed committee and of majority of the superintending school committee of the town in which the school is located, before they shall be adopted.

NINTH. The teacher in charge of this school shall have at least the equivalent of a secondary school education, shall hold a State certificate valid for at least five years, shall have a special interest in nature study and shall have done such reading and study as will fit her to direct the children in planting and caring for trees, shrubs, flowers and grasses and oversee their labors in the workrooms. The teacher shall organize in the school, when established, a branch of the "School Improvement League of Maine".

TENTH. The first Friday in each May shall be observed as "School Day" in the community in which said "Standard School" is maintained. The day shall be devoted to the regular work of the school, special exercises by the pupils and the repair and improvement of the school buildings and grounds.

ELEVENTH. This "Standard School" shall be a common school and only common school studies shall be taught therein.

TWELFTH. This school shall be under the control and management of the school officials of the town in which it is located.

THIRTEENTH. The improvements on the grounds and buildings shall be under the control of the committee described above.

FOURTEENTH. The school shall be named by the special committee, but such naming shall not be valid until it is approved by a majority of the persons living in said community who are over twenty-one years of age.

The right is reserved to reject contributions tendered by communities, provided they are clearly insufficient for the purpose of establishing a "Standard School."

It would be a misfortune to have some person of wealth contribute the entire sum necessary to purchase the grounds, put them in suitable condition, erect the buildings and furnish the necessary accessories for a "Standard School" as set forth in the foregoing paragraphs.

It would be asking too much of any community to make the initial experiment of establishing one of these schools at its own expense.

The former would be a kind of patronizing which would tend to pauperize those who were the recipients of misdirected benevolence. The

latter would be a hardship no community would voluntarily assume.

By the division and combination suggested above the community contributes its share, the donor supplements it with an equal contribution and the two become partners in making needed improvements.

This school will give instruction in reading—mastering the printed page and permitting the listener to see it through his ears, penmanship—legible and individual; arithmetic—accuracy in combining figures and intelligence in applying principles; spelling—correct grouping of letters to form words; grammar—the construction of the English language and skill in using it; geography—knowing much about that portion of the earth's surface that is near by and something about the portions that are distant; history—knowing where we started, the pathways travelled, where the milestones are and who set them; music—giving expression to the emotions; nature—knowing the facts and seeing its beauty; drawing—expressing thoughts without using words; art—reading the embodied wisdom of the world's masters; civics—knowing how we are governed; laws of health—keeping clean outside and inside; labor—knowing what to do and how to do it.

The methods used will be adapted to the child taught. The teacher will be the companion and counsellor of the children and the pupils will do their own work and glory in rendering service.

The fundamental principle of recognizing the limitations of the child will be kept in mind and he will be given a chance to learn how to do his work.

The boys and girls who graduate from this school will know a few things thoroughly and will be able to do something skilfully. It will help them to do better the things their abilities have determined they must do.

The "Standard School" will help all our people to see that:

The homes of Maine should be domestic universities.

The common school should be the social, literary and art centre of the community.

The safety of the Nation is not in the hands of its rulers, but in the lives of its common people.

The world's best servant knows the past, lives in the present, foresees the future and is ready for the next thing.

If these conditions are to obtain, then we must learn that we need

Better physical surroundings; best books for all; art in the schoolroom, because the home and the school hold the hope of the future.

When the "Standard School" has wrought its work we shall see that education will develop:

Love for labor,
Skill in effort,
Tenderness of sympathy,
Joy of appreciation,
Sensitiveness for the right,
Alertness of intellect,
Strength to hold on.

It will give the student a mastery of the printed page and make known to him the message of star, rock, flower, bird, painting and symphony.

It will also help him to find his work, render his meed of service and feel his personal responsibilities.

These "Standard Schools" will serve at least four important purposes:

FIRST. They will furnish concrete illustrations of what the school of this day should be.

SECOND. They will stimulate communities that are now maintaining inferior schools to improve them.

THIRD. They will compel needed changes in courses of study and methods of instruction.

FOURTH. They will assist in putting Maine in a more enviable position in the procession that is leading the progress of the world.

The following persons have been appointed an Advisory Committee for the State. It is expected they will counsel with representatives of the communities who compete for these "Standard Schools."

It is suggested that no plans be adopted for the improvement of school grounds, the construction or repair of school buildings, or for the furnishing of schoolrooms until they have received the approval of the majority of the persons named below.

Representatives of the following interests have been selected as members of this committee:

The School Improvement League of Maine, school officials, the higher institutions of learning, the secondary schools, the common schools, the grange, the women's organizations, the art clubs and the library associations.

ADVISORY COMMITTEE.

Mr. Payson Smith, Auburn; Mr. H. R. Williams, Foxcroft; Mr. W. D. Hurd, Orono; Mr. F. H. Damon, Bangor; Miss Kate McDonald,

Machias; Mrs. George C. Frye, Portland; Mr. W. J. Thompson, South China; Mr. John S. Locke, Saco and Mr. L. D. Carver, Augusta.

BEAUTIFUL SCHOOL GROUNDS.

Few communities are unresponsive to the demands for pleasant grounds around the schools. The tender care that the children bestow upon these grounds is surprising to those who felt that to protect the shrubs and flowers from school-boy vandalism would be the heaviest task. Such theoretically feared vandalism is extremely rare. This fact alone proves the innate love of the children for natural beauty.

At the outset it must be determined whether the grounds will be laid out in a formal or a natural style. Either is satisfactory, but one or the other must be chosen and adhered to. The size of the grounds will probably best determine the choice. If the plot is small, a formal arrangement looks very well. If the grounds are of some extent, the more natural disposition of trees and shrubbery produces the best effect.

The trees should be planted before the shrubs and plants are set out. They mark the general features of the landscape and a good placing of them will require much care. Never adopt the orchard style. That is formality carried beyond the rigidity which beauty allows. Groups of three trees produce a very pleasant effect, and the large growing varieties look well in the rear, as forming a sort of background to the landscape.

Shrubs are indispensable. The taller kinds make effective walls against which to display lower-growing plants, and also in screening off objectionable views. Along the foundation of the school building, in angles formed by it or by walls, at entrances, they always give a beautiful impression. If the ground is elevated from the street, and has steps leading up to it, a heavy border of drooping shrubs will make a singularly inviting entrance.

No matter how handsome the building is, the Boston ivy (*Ampelopsis Veitchii*) will add to its attractiveness, while it often transforms a hideous structure in a manner that seems miraculous. The most intricate architectural design is given by it an enhanced beauty. The advantage of planting the ivy should never be overlooked.

The use of flowering plants is the most perplexing question in ornamentation. They require great care, and their utility must vary widely with the situation of the school. No general rules are here practicable except that complicated

designs in flower-beds, such as stars and crescents, are hardly advisable unless expert care is always at hand, and that, above all things, the lawn should not be cut up too much. The centre should always be kept open. Let the eye have a chance to roam. Borders along walks and beds near the walls of the building are the safest attempts.

When it is realised at how little expense, and with comparatively little labour, a bleak exposure can be turned into an artistic surrounding, which will soothe every passing eye and feed the children's natures with all manner of desirable tonics, few school buildings will be left standing barren in the wind. A little thought, a little care, and such a great return.—*The School Journal*.

WHAT IS THE TRUE ETYMOLOGY OF THE WORD "EDUCATION"?

BY WILLIAM JOLLY, late H.M. Inspector of Schools.

THE etymology of the word "education" has been generally given as from *e* or *ex*, "out" and *ducere*, "to lead"; and it is explained as the "leading" or "drawing out" of the faculties of the mind of the pupil. As put by Edward Irving: "The true idea of education is contained in the word itself, which signifies the art of *drawing out* or *educing*; and, being applied in a general sense to man, must signify the *drawing forth* or *bringing out* of those powers which are implanted in him." Beyond question, this is an admirable statement of the most important function of all teaching, which is the development of mental capacity. So well has this happy expression of the chief end of all education recommended itself, that this derivation has almost universally been accepted as the real one—so much so that it requires some courage to dispute it, and to seek to shatter an admirable exposition of the main purpose of all true teaching. But the one question in this, as in all other inquiries, is: What is the *truth* of the matter? We may feel assured that the truth, when found, will carry its own compensations and beauties; though it may, as in other fields of investigation, break some ancient idols in education, in which iconoclasm is as necessary and salutary as elsewhere.

First, then, the fact of its philosophic completeness, when one thinks of it, is enough to throw doubts on its verity. For the words we are investigating contain within them the ideas of our ancestors regarding the training of their children, at a period when simple notions of the

process could alone have existed, and when philosophic accuracy and insight could not be expected; like the words, *instruction* and *culture*, in which the task is happily and simply expressed by comparing it with the work of building and tilling, with which early tribes are familiar. But it is a very different matter when an etymology asks us to believe, that our rude forefathers had such an insight into the process of training as to perceive that it involved the development of innate, latent powers in the mind and body of the infant.

In regard to this, it may at once be asserted that, among the Romans, with whom the word *Education* originated—a practical, unphilosophic race—no such conception existed, in regard to the upbringing of children, as that the child was a being possessed of a congeries of faculties in embryo, which it was the function of parents and tutors to bring to perfection. This is a form of thinking regarding the training of a child that has come late into the thought and practice of the race. It could arise only after mankind had attained a certain level of philosophic reflection and culture; against the all-too-prevalent tendency to substitute telling and cramming for true mental and moral development.

As Prof. Simon Laurie, summarizing his admirable history of Roman education, says:

The humanities and learning, art and the beautiful—these were not the motive forces of Roman education, as they had been among the Greeks, but rather those arts which might be of political service. Harmonious development, culture—either of mind or body—for its own sake, was an idea alien to the Roman mind. It was only when the seeds of decay had been already sown that Hellenic aims and Hellenic culture found a place—and then only partially. The practical Roman life was essentially opposed to the Greek æsthetic life.*

But let us look more closely into the philology of the word itself. The word *education* is certainly and admittedly derived from a verb of the first conjugation—*educō*, *educavi*, *educatum*, *educare*—in which the *u* is short and the *a* long; whereas *duco*, *duxi*, *ductum*, *ducere*, to lead, is of the third conjugation, with the *u* persistently long and the *e* of the infinitive short. So that to derive *educō* from *duco*, to lead, we have to violate the laws of vowel length and conjugation, which in Classics were rigid to a degree to which we, in English, are strangers.

* "Historical Survey of Pre-Christian Education," by S. S. Laurie, LL.D. (Longmans, 1895.)

Moreover, we have the true and regular derivative itself from *e*, out, and *duco*, to lead, in *educere*, with its natural and regular meaning—to draw, or lead, out—like the other derivatives from that verb, with their long vowels, as represented in English by *produce*, to lead forward; *reduce* to lead back; *seducere*, to lead aside; and many more. The existence of *educere*, to lead out, would seem at once to warn us against taking the word *educare* from the same verb; thus duplicating its meaning and introducing into the one in question the extreme philosophic notion of mental evolution that is necessary to justify the etymology thus popularly adopted.

Then, as if to warn us against the current etymology of the word, we have the regularly formed noun from *educere* in *eductio*, -onis—that is, *education*, which signifies a leading out or removal from one place to another, as from a camp—a frequent use of the word in its literal physical signification; not *educatio*, -onis, or *education* in its metaphorical meaning, which it only came to signify in late Latin, and as used by philosophers.

But let us inquire into the real signification of *educare*, in order to ascertain, if possible, what idea it conveyed to the practical Roman mind of early times. This would seem to lead us still further away from *educere*, to draw out, as its root. For *educare* meant truly to feed, to nourish, to bring up, and was used of animals and plants, as well as human beings—pointing conclusively to the notion of nutriment or food as its simple and essential thought. Though it may, with some force of reason, be contended that development of faculty might be its idea as applied to the human child, it will scarcely be argued that such a notion as the development of innate powers was natural or possible in its application to plants and rats and mice!

Examining the matter still further, we find that the word *educator* in Latin meant a rearer, nourisher, or bringer-up of children. And, what is more remarkable, the Romans had the word *educatrix*, or *educatress*, solely in its application to the nurse of the baby, with its meaning of feeder and caretaker. The existence of this word in the feminine, as the designation of a woman, generally a slave, the nurse of the new-born infant, is of special significance. It is a most suggestive proof that *feeding*, imparting of nutriment, and not *educating* in the sense of development, as applied to the function of the female attendant on the child, was the genuine, natural, and primary meaning of the words *educatio*, *educator*, and *educatrix* among the Romans.

An additional and singularly interesting fact, pointing in the same direction, is this. That the Romans, from their natural tendency to polytheistic thought and the multiplication of deities for the functions of life, had a number of gods and goddesses to take care of the child during the trying period of infancy, and to help the mother and others in their many duties. Thus they had *Janus*, to open the door of life to the child; *Omnia*, to the cradle and watch him during sleep; *Rumina*, to supply milk to the breast; and *Potina*, to give him drink. Among the host of assistant tutelary deities, there was also *Educa*, whose special duty was to take charge of its food.

The existence of this old Roman goddess, *Educa*, with a specific function, one of all importance—to take care of the food administered to the infant—seems (does it not?) a pretty and conclusive proof that the simple idea, that of feeding, is the true one as conveying the signification attached by the Romans to the word *Education*. It is also a revelation of the extreme simplicity of the early Roman mind, and the practical and unphilosophical tendencies of that people, that they had such a host of attendants on the child, each having a plain and practical task assigned to her, in the feeding and *education* of the Roman child. Is it not a proof that it is in such simple and natural notions that we must seek for the true idea attached by that people to the word *Education*, and not in an ultra-philosophic thought like *development*?

A very significant passage from the lost works of the Roman philosopher Varro has happily been preserved, in which the different designations and offices of those who had to do with the upbringing of the child among the Romans are etymologically discriminated and explained. It is this: "Educat obstetrix, educat nutrix, instituit pædagogus, docet magister." This may be thus translated: The midwife *educes*, or draws forth, the child at birth; the nurse feeds, or *educates*, him; the pædagogue (or slave attendant) takes charge of him; the schoolmaster teaches him." Here, at once, and clearly expressed, we have the distinction between the two words—*educere*, to lead out, and *educare*, to feed—placed before us, and compared and distinguished. This shows that, in Varro's view, as expressing the general opinion of the Roman people, the two words were not only not derived from each other, but were originally carefully discriminated; and that *educare* meant to feed, to nourish, as its real idea and root. The word *nutrix*, or nurse, being used for the other, *educatrix*, points to the fact that they were interchangeable in meaning and usage.

Nutrix, the female slave nurse, and *educatrix*, the female *educatress*, are thus proved synonymous.

All investigation into Roman life shows how largely home life and infancy, the nursing and upbringing of their children, bulked in the thought and polity of the Romans; and all investigation into their family arrangements reveals the same wise and kindly spirit, and the active personal interest they took as parents in the rearing and educating of their offspring. It also shows how natural it was for such a domesticated people to conceive of the educational process as signified by the chief care of the nursery, in providing the infant with appropriate nourishment; and to name the whole education of the child by these earliest solitudes, on which his whole health and development depended; and to conceive of its *after* stages as but a continuation of the means by which this was secured in its initial years in the home—that of *nourishment*.

But what are the opinions of philologists as to the etymology of the word *education*? Till recently, the majority, if not all of them, were in favour of the orthodox opinion, from *e* or *ex*, out, and *ducere*, to lead; but of late, doubts have begun to be expressed on the subject. One excellent educational authority—Kiddle and Schem's "Dictionary of Education," of New York—asserts that "it is extremely unlikely that the Romans connected the idea of 'drawing out, with *educatio*." Skeat does not seem to have given it much consideration; for he dismisses it summarily as from *ducere*, to lead. Dr. Murray, in his monumental "Dictionary," has doubts about it evidently, though he does not pursue them to any definite finding—speaking, in regard to it, of the "quasi-etymological notion, drawing out," and saying, not that it is derived from *ducere*, to lead, but "related to it." In regard to this relation, it is no doubt true that such a connexion, in meaning and usage, did, in time, exist in Latin, as in English and other tongues; and that the idea that the one was derived from the other became dominant and influenced thought and speech on the subject. But, though this is granted, it is no proof of the etymological relation of the one to the other, much less of the derivation of the one from the other.

Let us now try, if possible, to discover the true root of the word *educare*, to educate. It has been suggested that it comes from *edere*, to eat; the English word *eat* itself being from the same radical as the Latin, *ad*, to eat, to consume, which is represented in Sanskrit, Greek, and most European languages, the same root also giving rise to *dental* and *tooth*, the instruments of eating.

If this is the root of *educare*, to educate, this Latin verb might be viewed as a causal form of *edere*, meaning to cause to eat, to feed—the middle syllable *uc* representing the root of *agere*, to do, to drive, to be the agent of, which is the source of a host of English words like *agitate*, *action*, *active*.

It has been pointed out that a similar cognate form occurs in the verb *manducare*, to chew, to masticate; which is a lengthened form of *mando*—to chew, to use the mandibles, or jaws, upon. There are difficulties in connexion with this etymology, such as, the origin of the middle syllable in *educare*; the fact that this syllable in *manducare* is long, and not short, as in *educare*; the fact of the first syllable in *edere* being short and the first syllable in *educare* being long—though this might be accounted for by the absorption in it of *e* or *ex*, out, or as an intensive.

The philological and other difficulties in deriving *educare* from *edere*, to eat, make it desirable that another radical or derivative associated with the central conception of *educare*, as that of feeding and fostering, should be found. After much investigation, I would suggest the Aryan root, *dhugh* or *dug*, to give milk to, or take milk from. This root contains the short vowel *u* and all the requisite consonants needed for the derivation; and thus gets rid of the philological objections of *educare* as from *ducere*, to lead, as well as the insurmountable hyperphilosophical conception of the development of faculty. It carries with it the idea of nourishing and feeding in its earliest, most elementary, and most significant form—that of giving milk to the child; and it is associated with its tenderest, most suggestive, and most natural and nutritive food—the milk of the mother or the nurse or foster-mother.

From the same Aryan root, *dug*, we have also that fine word *daughter*, which is represented in Sanskrit by *duh-itrî* (from the Sanskrit *duh*, to milk), and which runs through all the Indo-European languages—both the Classical branch, as in the Greek (*thug-ter*), and the Teutonic branch, as the German *Tochter* and the Scotch *dochter*. But this word *daughter* has, in its original signification, been wrongly explained, in my opinion, to mean a milker of cows. This seems not only odd, but erroneous; as it designates a child from one of her duties in after life—like that of *spinster*, the spinner—instead of from a sign or function cognate with her infancy, and indicating her sex as distinguished from that of a son. It would seem more natural and sensible to associate the notion of milking, from which the name *daughter* is derived, with her breasts, as a distinguishing sex mark from the first; thus signifying the

child "with the breasts" or "dugs," that is daughter.

This old word *dug*, a breast, which has degenerated in use, is from the same radical as that of *daughter*—*√dug*, to milk. It had originally a kindly application to humanity and womanhood, in a reputable and tender sense, up to the time of Shakespeare. He tells that the nurse of Juliet applied wormwood to her "dugs," to relieve them of pain, when that sweet child was weaned. As Dr. Johnson, the lexicographical pioneer, puts it: "it seems to have been used formerly of the breast without reproach"—quoting, also, Spenser, in proof, who speaks of a woman that was "as mild and gentle as the cradle-babe, dying with its mother's 'dug' between its lips."

I submit, therefore, that in this root, *√dug*, to give milk, we have the original source that we are in search of for the word *educare*—to feed, to foster, to educate; and the true reason of its constant association with nutriment and nourishing, as in the phrase already quoted from Varro, that the child's nurse "educates" the child—*nutrix educat*. This shows, primarily, that educating the infant was feeding it: supplying it with its first natural food—milk from the breast. The first syllable of the word *educate* is, of course, from *e* or *ex*, out, and expresses the action of the child in sucking; or it may be used simply in its common form of an intensive.

This self-evident, suggestive, and natural analogy between educating and nourishing is applicable to the whole process of Education, even in its more advanced stages of study and learning. It has originated the telling and most expressive phrase *alma mater*, as descriptive of the function of a University to its students—signifying that these students are simply children, imbibing instruction or learning up to its highest stages and in all branches of the arts and sciences, as from a Mother, whom they affectionately and appropriately designate their Nourishing Mother—*alma* being derived from *alere*, to feed. So, in pursuance of this happy association of ideas, we have the word *alumnus*, a student—literally and significantly, a child who gets nourishment—intellectual food from his learned mother; this term, *alumnus*, under the Romans, signifying a nursling, a pupil, a scholar.

In conclusion, I would direct the reader's attention to the peculiar point of view in regard to Education, its purpose and process, to which our researches have led us. According to the received etymology of the word *education* signifies the art of "drawing out" the faculties of the

child. According to the etymology we have reached, education is the art of "putting in," instead of drawing out—of supplying the child with food for his development. This natural and simple conception, based on early home nurture, recommends itself as true in fact; and its simplicity and wisdom will be the more seen the more it is considered. But it requires special reflection in order to fully comprehend its significance—all the more that our ideas of the educational process have been dominated by the common conception of "drawing out." It will, perhaps, be best apprehended by consideration of plant life and culture.

There is a tree in your garden, which you wish to cultivate, in order to obtain from it flowers and fruit. To enable it to do this, there is only one way—you must feed the plant; you must provide it with appropriate nourishment, to be assimilated by its rootlets, that it may grow and develop and produce the desired flowers and fruit. That is, you must feed the plant, to enable its innate powers to evolve the wished-for products it is capable of giving.

The same holds true of animals and man. You must furnish them with appropriate nourishment, that they may grow, and develop their innate capacities of body and mind; and there is no other way. At first, this food is the milk of the mother, then other milk, and, in time, other food, according to the age and growing capacities of the child. And it is this idea of feeding, or supplying nourishment, that is the central thought in the conception we have reached as the true etymology of the word, *Education*. It is in no sense, antagonistic to the other idea of evolving or drawing out the powers of the child or pupil; but it directs special attention to the means or process of doing this—by supplying the necessary materials for this development, to enable the child to evolve and exercise his faculties. In a word, it signifies the providing of aliment to make possible the development of faculty, which is one of the chief ends and results of true education.

This idea of feeding, as the root-thought of Education, is full of happy suggestions and instructive analogies, pointing out true methods and aims in teaching and educating. It indicates the need of careful preparation of the food to be administered, and its adaptation to the age and capacity of the child. It points out the folly of cramming, that is, forcing to eat, what is unpalatable or unhealthy or beyond the amount that can be digested. It shows the wisdom of being guided by the central principle of all education—that all the mental food administered must be

partaken of by the child himself, and assimilated by him, to become the means of healthy growth in all parts of the system. It proclaims that all healthy teaching, like all healthy feeding and eating, is regulated solely by the power of digestion; and that everything in defect or excess or in violation of it must result in starvation, repletion, or disease. It enforces the importance of variety in the constituents of the food imparted; so that it may include all the elements requisite for the building up of all parts of the system—the bones of moral action, the muscles of intellect, and the nerves of æsthetic and spiritual perception. Thus we are led once more to the grand conception of all true instruction and education; as that of full development of the whole manhood and womanhood of the race: so as to lead to a healthy and vigorous constitution, capable of happy work and the progressive evolution of human capacity.—*The Journal of Education*, (March.)

AS TO THE TEACHER.

BY PROF. JOHN DEWEY, CHICAGO.

[From the "Popular Educator."]

If there is a single public-school system in the United States where there is official and constitutional provision made for submitting questions of methods of discipline and teaching, and the questions of the curriculum, text-books, &c., to the discussion and decision of those actually engaged in the work of teaching, that fact has escaped my notice. Indeed, the opposite situation is so common that it seems, as a rule, to be absolutely taken for granted as the *normal and final condition* of affairs. The number of persons to whom any other course has occurred as desirable, or even possible—to say nothing of necessary—is apparently very limited.

But until the public-school system is organized in such a way that every teacher has some regular and representative way in which he or she can register judgment upon matters of educational importance, with the assurance that this judgment will somehow affect the school system, the assertion that the present system is not from the internal standpoint democratic seems to be justified. Either we come here upon some fixed and inherent limitation of the democratic principle, or else we find in this fact an obvious discrepancy between the conduct of the school and the conduct of social life—a discrepancy so great as to demand immediate and persistent effort at reform.

BABYLONIAN PEDAGOGY.

TRADITIONS, both classic and scriptural, have always taught us to regard Chaldea as the home of scribes and wise men. So much was this the case that the "wisdom of the Chaldeans" became a proverb, and in the Middle Ages, when magic and the blackart flourished, the name "Chaldean" became synonymous with one professing magical or occult powers. The evidence of tradition is amply endorsed by that of the monuments. Compared with the pedagogic system of Egypt, that of Chaldea presents several interesting points of difference. In both lands there were large bodies or guilds of scribes, who required to be trained and educated to perform the duties of religion and the State, but in Egypt learning was almost exclusively confined to the scribe caste. Popular education certainly did not exist in Egypt in ancient times, and the poorer classes, of Pharonic days, were probably as ignorant as the fellahin of to-day. In Ptolemaic times, when Greek and Demotic were the current writings, perhaps the masses were less ignorant. Dr. Budge has shown that it was the Demotic version of the Rosetta Stone which was the original text, the Greek and Hieroglyphic versions being translations.

In Chaldea education was far from general. Of this fact we have many proofs. The imperishable nature of the material used, either sun-dried or kiln-baked clay, has preserved writings both of the higher and lower forms of literature, which, if they existed in Egypt, have been lost

owing to the fragile nature of the papyrus on which they were written. A tablet once written might be thrown away, but it would last many years, and could not be re-used; but papyrus could be cleaned, or writing placed on the reverse but much no doubt found its way into the waste-paper basket. The existence of a large scribe caste in Chaldea is proved by the mention of scribes in monumental records far exceeding in antiquity those of ancient Egypt; for on monuments such as the obelisk of Manishtu-su, dating about B.C. 4500, we find several named. A fact of still greater importance, as proving the education of the people, is afforded by the thousands of letters, memoranda, contracts, &c., which have been recovered, and which come from workmen, shepherds, boatmen, builders, and others, and which present so great a variety of writings as to justify us in believing that they were written by the writers themselves, and not by official scribes. Proof, however, of the existence of what we may call compulsory education is afforded by a tablet which describes the duty of a foster-father to an adopted child. The child is described as one "whose birthplace was the street," and whose protector "took him from the mouths of the dogs and the ravens" which shows that the ancient cities differed little from the modern. The child was to be entrusted to a nurse, who during her charge of him was provided with "flour, oil, and clothing for three years." These nurses are mentioned in the Code of King Khammurabi. The child was then officially recognised and "sealed with the seal of adoption." The next duty, probably at the age of seven years, was to "entrust him to a scribe"—that is, provide for his education. Other duties were to have him taught a trade, and, lastly, to provide him with a wife.

The discoveries made recently at Borsippa, Nippur, Sippara, cities which had great temples, to each of which were attached "houses of tablet writing"—schools, like the Madhressa attached to Mahomedan mosques—have thrown great light upon the method and character of Babylonian education. The explorations made by Dr. Hilprecht at Nippur recovered many tablets from the school attached to the great temple of Bel. To learn to write was the first essential, and many unbaked tablets were found on which the pupil had written over and over again the three forms of wedges which are used in the composition of cuneiform groups, and many show the masters' corrections. Similar tablets, or clay copy-books, are found on most of the great temple sites. From simple characters the pupil proceeds to syllabic, and then to compound characters, writing them over and over again until

perfect. Before the rise of the First Dynasty of Babylon, about B.C. 2300, it was these local schools which formed the college of each city kingdom; but with the policy of centralisation introduced by this Arabian dynasty, and especially by Khammurabi, an important development was made. If Babylon became the political centre of Government and legal administration, Borsippa, on the other side of the Euphrates, now the Birs Nimrud, became the great national University, and continued to be a seat of learning until long after the fall of the Babylonian Empire—for tablets from this city are dated as late as B.C. 90—and even after this the learned character of the city survived in a Hebrew Talmudic school, which gave to the city the title of "The Eye of the Law." The temple here was dedicated to Nebo, "the Scribe God," the "tablet-writer," the Babylonian Hermes. The large number of tablets found in the excavations on this site show the curriculum of the college. First and foremost was theology, represented by such important works as copies of the "Creation Epic," and the "Gilgames-Nimrod Epic." The Babylonians, like the Sanscrit pundits, studied their language from philological and grammatical sides, and from this temple come the portions of forty tablets, forming a great critical dictionary dated in the reign of Artaxerxes; also commentaries on standard texts, all of which are in the British Museum. Here also was a school of medicine, under the patronage of the Goddess Gula, who is called the Mistress of Poisons and Philtres, as well as a patron of medicine. The school was known by the name of the "Way and Method of Borsippa," and we possess several tablets relating to its system of teaching. The medical profession was divided into two classes—"healers" and "masters of the lance"—and their position was not pleasant, for the surgeon was responsible for the welfare of his patient.

Although Borsippa became the chief university of Babylonia, and, indeed, of all Western Asia—for tablets from Borsippa were found at Tel-el Amarna, the heretic city of Amenophis IV., B.C. 1450—the local schools still retained a high position, most of them being celebrated for some special branch of study. Nippur, as shown by Dr. Hilprecht's discoveries, was famed for mathematics, and a nearly complete set of multiplications from two to thirteen hundred were found, all the calculations being on the Sexagesimal scale. Larsa supplied tables of square and cube roots. Theology was taught at Sippara, and fragments of the Deluge and Creation tablets were found there. Two special branches of study, however, were most important, in marking

a distinction from the Egyptian system. These were law and commerce. Scribes who would become lawyers had to copy out legal decisions or standard cases like those on which the Khammurabi Code was based, and we have copies of these tablets as late as the Persian kingdom—a valuable proof of how accessible this wonderful system was to the Jews during the Captivity. There were, and are, in the British Museum carefully prepared handbooks of commercial terms, &c., which had to be learned; and in book-keeping and accounts the Babylonians far excelled all nations of antiquity.

It is impossible in a single article to exhaust the wide subject of Babylonian pedagogy, but one important point must not be passed unnoticed. Its basis and duration were far more permanent than that of Egypt. Even when Babylon fell before the Greeks the old schools continued on, for we have works dated in the reign of Alexander and of the era of the Seleucidae. Much of the learning, however, was absorbed by the Jews, who did not return to Palestine; from them it passed to the Syrians and to the Arabs, and much of the science, the poetry, and the law of the West is based on the teachings of Chaldea.—*W. St. Chad Boscawen, in the "Globe."*

THE LAWYER AND EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS.

THE LAWYER AND THE SCHOOL.

Mr. R.S. Lepper in the address he delivered at Trivendram on the 4th March, said:

Here the lawyer is doing good work though not, I fear, as a teacher. It is to the lawyer outside the school, the lawyer as manager that I refer. But he could do much better work still if he had a clearer idea of what educational progress really implies. It is not more schools and colleges so much as better schools and colleges that are wanted. We probably need more primary schools and certainly more industrial schools. Of course no sensible man wants to reduce the number of schools, so long as they are good. But we urgently need an improvement in their quality. If this cannot be attained without limiting their number, their number must be limited till they improve sufficiently. Few and good should be the motto.

How then can schools be improved? There are various directions in which improvement is needed.

First as regards equipment both external and internal. Better maps, wall decorations, prints, models, &c., should be provided, while greater

XI

neatness and cleanliness should be insisted upon. Libraries for the use of the teachers and of the students should be added in all schools, and small school museums also wherever possible. The schools should also have better surroundings, playfields, &c.

Next the staff requires to be considerably improved so as to give the boys better examples. This can only be done by affording better prospects to schoolmasters so as to get a far larger supply of really good men into the teaching profession. It is scandalous to leave the teaching of children so often in the hands of men of third-rate ability or of doubtful character, and to drive nearly all really able men away from the teaching profession though many of them are admirably suited for it and anxious to remain in it. If a school cannot afford to have all its masters graduates of good character and fair abilities, it should be made to confine its work to the earlier stages, and to staff the lower classes strongly. It is unfortunate that all the best men in this country are attracted to the legal profession. India is the only country in the world where nearly all the ablest men go into the same profession. In other lands there is a fair distribution of the ablest men in all professions. No more schools should be raised to second grade colleges, they should rather be made into better schools. Masters should be compelled to play games with their students as a condition of their appointment. This is insisted on in the United Kingdom, and there is no reason why the same thing should not be done here.

Thirdly, we need better teaching and examining. An improvement in staffing would probably lead to better teaching and stricter examining. Teaching and examining in primary, middle and high schools are too often little more than a farce. It is a scandal that boys should spend so many years in schools and come up to colleges knowing so little and obviously taught so badly. Much of their time has clearly been wasted by bad teaching and bad examining. Writing, reading and spelling are often disgracefully bad. Yet one cannot say that the boy is naturally unfit. We have not even that consolation. In India an absurdly low standard of school education prevails as compared with England and Japan. Consequently colleges have to do over again much that should have been done properly in the schools. Lax promotion ruins a school.

Fourthly, adequate attention should be paid to physical and manual training. The students should be compelled to play games of some kind or other, such as tennis, football, hockey, gymnastics (Indian or European) or Indian games. Work-

35

shops should be attached to every school for manual training as in English Schools. In England every large school has its own workshop. Every school should have its garden where the younger students especially could work.

Fifthly, there should be a proper teaching of elementary science and drawing in all schools. Both the subjects should be compulsory and taught practically and school sketching clubs should be formed.

Till all this has been done and done well too, the school should be content with its station in life, like everybody else.

Sixthly, and no less important is the need for adequate supervision out of school hours for students not living with their relations. This might be done by the establishment of hostels in connection with every school. Some are apparently under the impression that only colleges should have hostels but there is no need for such limitation. Hostels might very well be provided for such large high schools as draw students from a considerable distance.

Lastly, there is great need for improvement in managing bodies. It is a gross scandal to allow anybody to open a school. We do not usually allow any one to doctor us or take any one as our lawyer; why then should we allow any one to teach our children or to control those who teach them? Managing bodies should be made really responsible to Government or to some outside capable agency like a Board of Charity Commissioners or a School Board, and measures must be taken to make continued mismanagement of schools impossible. In all these ways the influence of lawyers might be of great use, for it is largely from them that our school managing bodies must be drawn, if they are to do their duty. Quality not quantity is what is required in all school matters.

We come next to the lawyer and the advancement of learning and science, the lawyer and the University and its Colleges.

Here we are concerned mainly with the senior lawyer who has made his mark in his profession and has reached a position that gives him a voice in the control of University education. The best thing now the lawyer can do is to mind his own business and to remember that he is a lawyer and not a professor. His main functions are the following:—

1. To see that law is well taught and law colleges are well staffed and equipped.

2. To provide endowments and scholarships for the higher degrees and for advanced study in

India or in foreign countries. We do not want gold medals, we want substantial endowments and scholarships.

3. To help progressive college teachers to raise the standard of teaching and equipment.

4. To see that endowed colleges are managed by competent and responsible governing bodies and are well equipped and well staffed.

5. To promote greater co-operation between colleges, the residential system, and other reforms calculated to improve the standard of collegiate teaching and discipline.

6. To increase and improve the staff of colleges under his influence so as to allow the professors and lecturers time for reading and research.

7. To support a raising of the standard of University Examinations so as to make our University degrees more worthy of the people and more on a level with the best degrees of Europe. This is specially necessary when social conditions prevent many of our best students from going to Europe.

8. To get other wealthy men to provide endowments and generally to make education fashionable. At present the rich seldom realise the value of a good education. This leads to serious social evils.

Though most of what has been said has special reference to the senior lawyer, yet the younger lawyer can also do something for the advancement of learning in the first few years when briefs are comparatively rare. He can for instance, read for archaeological and other research. He can try to spread abroad a higher ideal of education by writing and speaking, remembering that unless the teacher has time for research the student can scarcely be expected to undertake it. I should not lay so much stress on the necessity for providing for research and original work, if I were not convinced that our students were fit to undertake it and would do so if they had the opportunity. It is the opportunity and not the capacity which is wanting, for there is no lack of ability among Indian students. What Milton says of the English people in his *Areopagitica* may be applied almost word for word to the Indian students of to-day. "Consider" he says "what nation it is whereof ye are.....a nation not slow and dull, but of a quick, ingenious and piercing spirit, acute to the reach of any point the highest that human capacity can soar to. Therefore the studies of learning in her deepest sciences have been so

ancient and so eminent among us that writers of good antiquity and ablest judgment have been persuaded that even the school of Pythagoras and the Persian wisdom took beginning from the old philosophy of this island. * * What could a man require more from a nation so pliant and so prone to search after knowledge? What wants there to make a knowing people, a nation of prophets, sages and worthies? * * Had we but eyes to lift up, the fields are white already. Where there is much desire to learn, there of necessity will be much learning, much writing, many opinions, for opinion in good men is but knowledge in the making."

THE LAWYER AND GENERAL CULTURE.

But the claims of general culture must not be forgotten. I would say then to the young lawyers here, "Be lawyers, but not mere lawyers, be cultivated gentlemen, not merely law dictionaries. Be careful also to try to counteract the narrowing influence of professional life. Remember there are other things besides briefs and law fees. Read therefore widely and wisely." Many a man, says Milton, "lives a burden to the earth; but a good book is the precious life blood of a master spirit embalmed and treasured up on purpose to a life beyond life." Try to travel even if only as a pilgrim from chutram to chutram if you cannot do otherwise. I would much rather hear my students travelling thus in the old fashioned, if uncomfortable, way after taking their degrees, than, as the phrase goes, staying "quiet at home." Learn another language if you can spare time. Try to learn something of art and natural science. After you have learnt, but not till then, write if you feel you must. But do not write to make a living or to further your own interests or to attack an enemy. When you do write, write in your own vernacular as much as possible and try to improve it. But if you must write English, write prose.

Correspondence.

MADRAS,

April 8th, 1905.

THE EDITOR,

"MADRAS EDUCATIONAL REVIEW."

SIR,

In an article entitled "The Matriculation Misery" that appeared in the March number of the *Review*, Mr. C. K. Govinda Rau has referred to some remarks of mine and has drawn from them an inference that is not true and that seems

to me unjustifiable. He writes:—"What is, then, the significance of Mr. Pollard's contention? As I understand it, it is this. The examiners value the answers given by the Matriculation, F.A. and B.A. candidates by the same standard." This as a statement of fact is untrue, and I can hardly believe that Mr. Govinda Rau himself thinks it true. Moreover the statement does not seem to me to follow from my remark that "the Matriculation candidates were inferior in style and capacity to the candidates for the higher examinations." This quotation is from the article and leaves out a significant word. My statement is that the average Matriculation candidate is relatively inferior in style and capacity. (In speaking I may perhaps have left out the word relatively, but it might have been understood from the general tenor of my remarks.) This I maintain to be a fact proved by experience in valuation as well as by statistics. Every year boys are sent up for the Matriculation who ought never to be allowed to appear. Let us take the figures for the Matriculation Examination of 1903. The number of candidates who actually took the examination was 8110 and of these 950 failed in all branches and 1889 failed in three branches.* My contention is that these 2839 candidates ought never to have appeared. (Whether these candidates ought to have been reading in a High School at all is another question, too large to enter upon here.) Most schools hold a selection examination, but in how many schools are those only allowed to appear who pass in all subjects, or at all events only fail in one? In the F.A. examination the matter is somewhat different. There has been this preliminary weeding out at the Matriculation stage, and a number who have only passed the Matriculation after three or four attempts do not continue their studies, so that it is only to be expected that the F.A. results should be better than the Matriculation results. It is not that the teaching is better in F.A. classes, (it may or may not be), but it is that the material to work with is better. Any one who will compare the essays of students of a Junior F.A. class with essays of a VIth form will find that this is no misstatement.

Mr. Govinda Rau would remind me that "the quality of any examination must be such that the average candidate can succeed in it." This statement needs qualifying. An Inspector inspecting a class would take into account the age of the boys and the work done, but he would also have the right to say if the amount of work that had

* The number failing in 3 or more subjects in 1902 was 2095 and in 1901 it was 2338.

been attempted were sufficient. Now in the case of the Matriculation examination it would perhaps be more to the point to say that the average candidate should be one who has a reasonable hope, (not *chance* as interpreted by Hindu boys), of success. The Matriculation Examination is the entrance examination of the University, and those who pass should be those who are qualified to enter on a University course. The age of such students should be about 16 or 17 and having that in view the University has prescribed certain subjects for the examination, and requires a certain minimum of marks for a pass. Surely it is for the University to fix the standard, both as to amount and quality,—and to my mind the standard is reasonable—and to expect the average candidate to be fit for the standard. If 35% of the candidates are totally unfit for the examination—as I maintain that those who fail in three or more branches are it is absurd to expect the University to lower its standard to the average depreciated by this 35% dead weight. The University should be praised rather than blamed for its action.

There are other statements in Mr. Govinda Rau's article that challenge adverse comment. I restrict myself to one. I refer to the paragraph about the F.A. and B.A. on the second column of page 130 of the March number. The paragraph is not only a slander on the professors but also on the Senate, who must have passed the Regulations referred to or otherwise they would not have been brought into force. The suspicious distrust of examiners that is more or less veiled in other parts of the paper here breaks out. The paragraph is unworthy of Mr. Govinda Rau and, may I also add, of the pages of the "Educational Review."

I am

Yours truly,

C. POLLARD.

OUR ENGLISH LETTER.

CAMBRIDGE, April 1905.

The recent voting at Oxford and Cambridge on the question of compulsory Greek, in which the decision finally rested not with the residents, but with the non-residents—that is, with the country clergymen—has led Dr. Fairbairn, of Mansfield College, to write a weighty letter to the 'Times,' in which the character of the Oxford Convocation is fully analysed. Several of Dr. Fairbairn's facts will be surprising even to those who know Oxford well. There is an extraordinary leakage between the Matriculation's and the Bachelor's

degree. In 1891, for example, 802 men matriculated. In 1895 only 608 of these men took their B. A.; and in other years the case is no better. But these Bachelors are 'not the six hundred' when they emerge from the ordeal of the Master's degree. Only 355, in fact, ever took the M. A., and of these few, only about 140 keep their names on the books. Thus of 800 Matriculations, only 140 result in giving a man the right of voting.

What are the causes of this extraordinary leakage? Chiefly, says Dr. Fairbairn, the burdensome charges of College and University alike. The expense of taking the M. A., and of becoming a life-member of Convocation, is scarcely ever less than £41. Now this is no light sum to a young man of twenty-five, for a privilege that can only rarely be exercised. Hundreds, accordingly, never take the M. A., and hundreds more never become members of Convocation. Contrast this with London, which asks a registration fee of £1, for life-membership; or with the Scottish Universities, where the very act of taking a degree makes a man a member of the Convocation.

It is plain, then, that of the voters, who settle on occasion great questions like that of Greek, the vast majority must be either schoolmasters (to whom the M. A. is a necessity) and young schoolmasters too, or clergymen. The University man as such does not vote—he has never had the right of voting. Lawyers, doctors, authors, journalists, politicians—these do not vote, because it has never been worth their while to go beyond the B. A. degree. The Greek question was decided by 1500 to 1000. Is it unlikely that if another 7,500 had been on the electoral roll, as—if the fees were low they would have been—the results of the voting might have been very different? At any rate Dr. Fairbairn's statistics, to use the French phrase, 'give furiously to think.'

While Dr. Fairbairn has been attacking Convocation, another pretty dispute has been proceeding, which though it has fluttered the doves less severely than some others, may lead to more immediate results. Professor Firth's inaugural lecture in the chair of Modern History caused a great stir among the lecturers and tutors in the subject. He accused the History School of failing to produce any men capable of research work; of turning out a hundred men per annum (to say nothing of women) who could not interpret a historical document; of cramming men with facts while neglecting principles; and of many crimes besides. 'If the study of history means an endeavour to add to the common inheritance of knowledge, surely the teaching of history means an endeavour to train men capable of adding to knowledge.'

To this indictment the tutors have replied by publishing an answer to the Professor, signed by nearly every man engaged in teaching the subject in Oxford. They urge very strongly that the 'University would be false to a paramount duty if it substituted for a liberal education (of the great majority of candidates) through history, a system and a curriculum beneficial only to a very small minority.' So far we are unhesitatingly with the tutors and against the Professor. The object of a University training is not to make specialists, but to form educated men. There would be very little advantage to the nation in producing two or three men per annum who could dive into original documents dealing with the diplomacy of the eighteenth century, or who could elucidate a period of ten years in the history of Sweden—which seems the ideal that Professor Firth aims at. On the other hand, we agree with that excellent paper the 'Outlook' that from the point of view of the tutors themselves much remains to be done. The school is not quite satisfactory from an educational stand-point. Too many men get first classes who are nothing but book-learned block-heads; too many men take the school who ought not to be honour-men at all. If Professor Firth's attack should lead to a reform in these matters, he will have done much good. We do not believe in his main contention; but on subsidiary points he is in the right. That the tutors think so, is shown by their suggestions, which accompany their letter, for improving the general teaching of the school.

The number of Headmasterships of public schools that are vacant at the present time is indeed extraordinary. The Governors of Eton have not yet selected a successor to Dr. Warre; but they have taken the significant step of interviewing Mr. A. C. Benson, the well-known schoolmaster, poet, and prose-writer, who was not a candidate. Mr. Benson, who has recently come to Magdalene College in Cambridge for literary purposes, had seemed to have permanently left the profession in which he had gained such distinction; whether he will be tempted to return to it by the splendid position for which he seems to have been asked to compete, remains doubtful.

St. Paul's also is vacant—for that great post Mr. Cholmeley and Mr. Walker (son of the present Head) are candidates. Both are now assistant masters at the school. The City of London School Governors, also, have recently accepted the resignation of their well-known Headmaster, Mr. Pollard; but particulars as to candidatures are not to hand. The nomination rests with the Professors of King's and University Colleges, London. Mr. Glazebrook is resigning Clifton.

There is likely to be a considerable 'lift' among the members of the profession.

The performance of the 'Clouds' of Aristophanes at Oxford seems to have been the chief, and indeed almost the only event of the past term. I was unable to be present, but I hear from those who were, that it was far more than the usual conventional 'success.' The chorus, in particular, was good, both in singing and in staging; while Socrates was particularly well acted. The occasion gave Mr. A. D. Godley, the well-known Oxford light versifier, his chance of showing his skill in translation; for he produced the version of the play, printed opposite the Greek text, which ladies (and possibly others) took with them to the performance. Sir Hubert Parry's music, of course, was excellent; and the performers were admirably trained by Dr. Allen, organist of New College.

It is now said that if the Board of Education should proceed to extremities against Merioneth County Council, Mr. Lloyd George will advise, that before trying the great plan of closing all schools, the council should first go on precisely as now, and then, if the Board withholds the grants, will sue for them at law. As every step has been taken in accordance with the advice of the best lawyers, and to the intent, in Mr. Lloyd George's phrase, of 'turning the act inside out against itself,' it is believed by many that this scheme will by itself be sufficient to defeat the Board. If it fails, of course Mr. George's other scheme remains in reserve.

Reviews and Notices.

ENGLISH MEN OF LETTERS; HOBBS, BY SIR LESLIE STEPHEN. (MACMILLAN & Co.) Price 2s. net.

The very first volume of the series was by Sir Leslie Stephen. It was an account of Dr. Johnson, that perfect specimen of biography and literary estimate in little. And, as it happens, the last contribution to literature made by the writer is the volume on Hobbes now before us. The appropriateness of such a close to the varied literary work of Sir Leslie Stephen is perceptible enough. Though professedly a man of letters mere literary dilettantism of style and æstheticism did not attract him. His preoccupation was with the history of ideas and the relation of society to men of letters and the mutual interaction of these. His interests were historical, ethical, social, philosophical and in Hobbes there is a blend of these interests. A writer who in-

fluenced Spinoza, Leibnitz, Diderot, Rousseau, DeMaistre and the whole utilitarian school either by actual suggestion or antagonism must have exercised a fascination for the historian of thought. In the Dictionary of National Biography Hobbes's life is, as may be expected, by Leslie Stephen and the present book is in parts an expansion of the article. One thing to be regretted by the readers is that the arresting hand of death had made it impossible for the writer to add a chapter on the influence exercised by Hobbes on subsequent thought. That would have been the most attractive portion of the book.

The book though treating professedly of Hobbes as a *Man of Letters* is concerned more with Hobbes the thinker, Hobbes, the philosopher. It would not be too captious to suggest that Croom Robertson's book and this might advantageously change places. Too little attention is paid to the position of Hobbes in the evolution of prose. We need not go the length of such an admirer as Mackintosh and make out that his style was the perfection of expository style but the terseness and lucidity of Hobbes's utterance will be appreciated by all who remember he was the contemporary of Jeremy Taylor and Milton and Clarendon. As we said the purely literary aspects of writers did not attract Leslie Stephen generally and this criticism of the ignoring of the position of Hobbes in the development of English prose is all the more ungracious as the booklet had not the advantage of final revision by the author.

Hobbes's distinction is, that he was the first to point out that 'civil philosophy' must be based upon 'natural philosophy.' He is in short, as Leslie Stephen puts it, a Herbert Spencer of the 17th century. This is both an accurate definition of the position of Hobbes as a philosopher and a criticism of his system. Even Herbert Spencer has been accused of having been premature in the construction of the synthetic philosophy and the break between the *First Principles* and *Principles of Biology* has been too jubilantly pointed out as an incurable flaw in his system. We can understand easily how Hobbes's earlier attempt to co-ordinate ethical and political theory with the results of physical science should appear too glaringly imperfect to-day. We may accept or not Prof. Haeffding's criticism of Hobbes's position that his merit was in bringing out the inevitable failure of a thorough going materialism but we can recognise that his service to philosophy was that 'in the sphere of mental science he effected a breach with scholasticism,

similar to that instituted by Copernicus in astronomy, Galilei in physics, and Harvey in physiology.'

It would be foreign to the purpose of this notice to make any detailed exposition of Hobbes's principles in ethics and politics. We will just call the attention of our readers to the fact that Hobbes was the contemporary of Charles II in England and of La Rochefoucauld in France and that the cynicism and selfishness of the times Hobbes reflected in his writings were in the air and when Butler preached those classic sermons he was discharging the priestly function of calling to better ways a backsliding generation as well as criticising implicitly the doctrines of the earlier philosopher. As regards the filiation of the principles of political philosophy a study of the teachings of Hooker and Grotius on the theory of social compact explains its origin, and the theory long held the field subsequently in the writings of Blackstone, Hutcheson and Locke. In his explanation of the nature of law, Hobbes anticipates the teachings of Bentham and Austin. We have just indicated how Hobbes has been fertile of suggestion in the world of thought and we think that the masterly condensation and exposition of Hobbes's teachings in the book will make him better known to the readers and may we hope that the book will lead them on to study one who was no less remarkable for shrewd biting wit and vigour and breadth of thought than for the unadorned plainness, clearness and epigrammatic concision of style.

A DIRECTORY OF SOUTH INDIAN MISSION INSTITUTIONS COMPILED BY W. M. ZUMBRO, M.A. (A. M. LENOX PRESS, PASUMALAI.)

Gives a short account of the varied activities of missionaries in Southern India. The growing spirit of comity and co-operation among these missionaries makes them eager for the information the directory gives and the frittering away of unnecessary resources by different missionary bodies doing or attempting to do the same thing is avoided and an exact mapping out of the field of activity already occupied makes further allotment of work easy. We confess to a feeling of envy to find that the so much of educational and philanthropic work has fallen into the hands of men who cannot be friendly to the religion of the people. We must recognise that there can be no such thing as unoccupied fields of activity specially ear-marked and to be taken up when native supineness and languor should be overcome. The soil is for the tiller and the soul is for the educator.

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The above six books are the first of a series of volumes to be published by Messrs. Methuen and Co., under the title of Methuen's Standard Library. In their prospectus they say "it is their ambition to place the best books of all nations, and particularly of the Anglo-Saxon race, within the reach of every reader." The text of every book published in this series will be full and unabridged and will be reprinted under the direction of competent scholars. Some great writers will have all of their works reprinted and these will be issued in separate volumes, so that each masterpiece of a particular author will be accessible by itself. Each volume will be issued in paper covers, crown octavo volumes at six pence, net.

The first six volumes which we have received amply justify the promise made in the prospectus. The texts are taken from the most authoritative editions and are printed on excellent paper. To each volume Mr. Sidney Lee, the general editor, contributes a small biographical and critical note. The notes of Gibbon to his 'Decline and Fall of Roman Empire,' have been added to materially by Professor Bury. In the Shakespeare volume we have received are to be found the texts of the following plays: The Tempest; the Two Gentlemen of Verona; the Merry Wives of Windsor; Measure for Measure and the Comedy of Errors. In all Shakespeare will be represented in ten volumes.

The published volumes must have dispelled any misgivings that the publishers may have entertained about their venture. The new series is sure to succeed and deservedly and when completed will prove to be a real boon to the general reader, both as regards the intrinsic value of the books and the very moderate price of 6d. net per volume which he is asked to pay.

THE TWO GENTLEMEN OF VERONA BY WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE, EDITED WITH INTRODUCTION AND NOTES BY K. DEIGHTON. (MACMILLAN AND CO.) *Price 2s. 6d.*

Mr. Deighton is well-known to the Indian student world as the indefatigable annotator of almost every Shakespearian play that is usually prescribed for examinations. The notes and comments, as is usual with him, are clear and elaborate. He gives the student everything that he may require by way of explanation of difficult phrases as also passages and quotations from critical essays and reference books. We wish however that with regard to the latter, at least, he had followed the footsteps of Professor Hales and given only the references. The book is moderately priced for its beautiful binding and printing.

SIR WALTER SCOTT'S (1) FORTUNES OF NIGEL; (2) THE TALISMAN AND (3) IVANHOE. WITH INTRODUCTION AND NOTES. (MACMILLAN AND CO.) *Price 2s. 6d. each.*

These three volumes of Scott's novels belong to the series of classical English Works of Literature that are being published by Messrs. Macmillan and Co., in attractive red covers. We have earlier reviewed some of the books of this series including 'Woodstock.' Each volume contains a general introduction concerning Scott's Life and Works; this is followed by a full detailed description of the work itself, its source, its characters, &c. At the end are to be found the editor's notes which are full and at the same time concise. Mr. Andrew Lang's notes are also given. To the volume on "the Fortunes of Nigel" is attached a beautiful frontispiece representing Temple Bar as it stands at the entrance of Theobald's Park near Goff's Oak, Herts. These books will be much welcomed by our college students both on account of their attractive get-up and also for the sake of the valuable introduction and notes.

A PRIMER OF TAMIL LITERATURE, BY MR. M. S. PURNALINGAM PILLAI, B.A., WITH AN INTRODUCTION ON THE SCOPE OF TAMIL LITERATURE, THE CIVILISATION OF THE TAMILS, AND THE EXTENT OF THEIR HOME. (SATAGOPACHARI & CO.) *Price Re. 1.*

This Primer is divided into six chapters, each chapter representing an Age of Tamil Literature. The Ages of Tamil Literature are given as follows:—

1. The Age of the Sangams, up to 100 A.D.
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3. " " Religious Revival, A.D. 600 to 1100 A.D.
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5. " " Mutts, A.D. 1400 to 1700 A.D.
6. " " European Culture, A.D. 1700 to 1900 A.D.

Every chapter opens with a brief survey of the Age it represents and proceeds to give all available information, classified into several sections, of the authors and works of the Age. No serious omission is noticeable in the New School of the Age of European Culture. The Primer closes with an Appendix comprising: 1. Works under the Chief Departments of Literature; 2. Authors with their works alphabetically arranged; and 3. One Hundred Choice Works.

The author acknowledges his obligations to various journals and books (including Mr. Arnold's *Galaxy of Tamil*—*பாவலர்சாத்திரத்தொகுதி*) while preparing this work for the press. The best use was perhaps made of the *Galaxy*. Some errors found in it have crept into this Primer. For instance one page 174 of the Primer we find "*Pillai Perumal Aiyangar* belonged to the 17th century. As a devout Vaishnava, he composed hymns on the 108 Vishnu shrines as *anthathis*, which are collectively known as *Astha Prabandam*. He wrote, besides, 'Venkata Malai' and 'Ranganagar-unjal-Thirunamam'" again on page 181 "*Pillai Lokachariyar* wrote many *malais* and *anthathis*, and a *Kalambakam* in praise of Thiru-Arangam and Thiru-Venkadam." The error finds a place also in Appendix II, page 213,—No. 167 and No. 168. These require no elucidation as the works of *பிள்ளைப்பெருமாள் அயங்கார்* are so well-known and widely read. Occasional errors are found in spelling in some proper names and quotations.

The general plan of the work and get up are satisfactory. In the author's Foreword we find "However defective it may be in point of chronology, the Primer will justify its existence if it gives foreigners and our young men in the college classes whose mother-tongue is Tamil, an idea of the world of Tamil books we have despite the ravages of time and white-ants, flood and fire, foreign malignity and native lethargy." Being a first attempt to give in a short compass in English information available only from various sources, this Primer of Literature deserves patronage from the public.

LITERATURE READERS, BOOK 2. (T. NELSON AND SONS.)
SELECTED AND ANNOTATED BY DR. RICHARD GARNETT, C.B.

This reader contains very useful selections from standard authors. It can be used as a text-book for the Matriculation class; there is variety enough to satisfy any teacher. The notes will be found very useful by the pupils and the numerous illustrations very much contribute to the attractiveness of the book.

STORIES FROM NATURAL HISTORY BY RICHARD WAGNER, TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN BY G. S. (MACMILLAN AND CO.) Price 1s. 6d.

This small book, beautifully illustrated will make interesting reading for our fourth form boys. Natural History is practically not at all taught in our High Schools and the pupil has to gather some facts only from books.

We have also received the following books.

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G. A. NATESAN & CO.

SOUTH INDIAN ASSOCIATION: PERSONAL EQUATION, BY PROFESSOR M. RANGACHARYA. Price as 4.

MINERAL INDUSTRIES FOR INDIA, BY V. SAMBASIVA AIYAR. Price as 4.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

DEPARTMENTAL NOTIFICATIONS.

Mr. K. R. Duraiswami Aiyar, Acting Lecturer, Kumbakonam College, will be considered to have been on privilege leave on half pay from the 21st November, 1904, to the 13th January, 1905, both days inclusive.

The following promotions are sanctioned during the absence of Miss Emma Carr, First Inspectress of Girls' Schools, Central Circle, on privilege leave:—Miss A.M. C. Arnold, Second Inspectress of Girls' Schools, to act as First Inspectress of Girls' Schools, but to continue in charge of the Southern Circle.

Mrs. C. E. Rhenius, Third Inspectress of Girls' Schools, to act as Second Inspectress of Girls' Schools, but to continue in charge of the Northern Circle.

Miss S. Govindarajulu, Second Assistant Inspectress of Girls' Schools, to act as First Assistant Inspectress of Girls' Schools, vice Miss H.W. Bernard, on other duty, but to continue in the Bellary Range.

Note.—Miss Govindarajulu's promotion to have effect up to the date on which she availed herself of the leave granted to her in Gazette Notification No. 17, dated 6th February, 1905, if that date was earlier than that of Miss Carr's return from leave.

Mr. J.B. Bilderbeck, Principal, Presidency College, has furlough for ten months and thirteen days in continuation of the ensuing Midsummer vacation of the College.

Mr. K. Sundararama Aiyar, M.A., Lecturer, Kumbakonam College, to act as Professor of History, Presidency College, during the employment of Mr. H. J. Allen, M.A., on other duty, or until further orders. To join forthwith.

Mr. T. V. Sivakumara Sastri, B.A., L.T., Second and Acting First Assistant Lecturer, Kumbakonam College, to act as Lecturer in that College in the Ninth Class of the Provincial Educational Service, during the employment of Mr. K. Sundararama Aiyar, M.A., on other duty, or until further orders. The above arrangements will last till the commencement of the ensuing summer vacation of the Presidency College.

Captain A. Chalumers, M.B., B.C.H., I.M.S., is appointed to act as Lecturer on Mental Diseases, Medical College, Madras, during the absence of Captain R. Bryson, I.M.S., on leave or until further orders.

The following promotions and postings are made in the Provincial Educational Service:—

Mr. C. N. Subrahmanya Aiyar, B.A., from class VII to class VI.

Mr. Muhammad Azam Sahib Bahadur, B.A., from class VIII to class VII.

Mr. U. Raghavendra Rao, B.A., from class IX to class VIII.

Mr. A. S. Vaidyanatha Aiyar, B.A., to be Assistant Inspector of Schools, Madura Division, but to continue to act as Lecturer, Rajahmundry College.

XI

Mr. T. J. Venkatachala Aiyar, B.A., to be Assistant Inspector of Schools, Malabar Division, but to continue to act in the Presidency Division.

Mr. K. R. Duraiswami Aiyar, B.A., to be Assistant Inspector of Schools, Presidency Division, in the ninth class, but to continue to act as Lecturer, Kumbakonam College.

Mr. T. Janakirama Aiyar, to act as Assistant Inspector of Schools, Madura Division.

Note.—The above promotions and postings will have effect from the date on which Mr. N. Dairasi-khamani Mudaliyar, Assistant Inspector of Schools, Madura Division, retires from service.

The following officers of the Provincial Educational Service are confirmed in the classes in which they were placed sub. *protem*.:—

Mr. M. Rangachariyar, Rao Bahadur, M.A., in class IV.

Mr. T. V. Subba Rao, B.A., in class V.

Mr. K. Sundararama Aiyar, M.A., in class VI.

Mr. A. S. Vaidyanatha Aiyar, B.A., in class VII.

Mr. T. J. Venkatachala Aiyar, B.A., in class VIII.

Mr. J. H. Stone having resigned his office as Fellow of the Madras University hereby becomes an Honorary Fellow.

Mr. K. C. S. Anantanarayana Aiyar, B.A., L.T., is appointed to act as Sub-Inspector of Schools, Madras Range, during the employment of Mr. T. Janakirama Aiyar, B.A., on other duty or until further orders.

Mr. P. Kushi Abmen Koya, B.A., is appointed Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, South Mappilla Range, sub. *protem* in the probationary class, vice Muhammad Khan Sahib retired.

At the Madras Convocation which was held on the 31st March, as many as 738 candidates were presented for taking several degrees, including 487 for the B. A. Degree and 190 for the B. L. There were four lady candidates.

The Madras Government have approved of the following revised proposals for the utilisation of the Grigg Memorial Fund:—A sum of Rs. 200 accruing from the interest of the Fund shall be utilized every year in the following manner:—(i) A gold medal costing not more than Rs. 70 shall be awarded every year to the student taking the highest place at the Advanced Technical Examination in Music. (ii) Twenty silver medals costing not more than Rs. 130 in all shall be awarded every year for proficiency in Athletics and Out-door games. The Inspectors shall arrange for the award of the medals by holding inter-school sports or in any other manner they may think fit, subject to the approval of the Director of Public Instruction.

Mrs. R. S. BENSON presided at the annual distribution to the pupils of the Bishop Gell's Girls' School on the 18th March. The report of Miss Burns showed that there were about 130 pupils in the School at the beginning of last year. The school worked at a loss as usual. The results at the public examina-

36

ations were very fair, three having passed out of five in the Matriculation examination and eight in the L. S. examination, out of eight with five in the first class. Mrs. Benson in her speech advised the students to take up some vernacular language of the country instead of French so that it might help them in having a freer intercourse with the Indian ladies.

In December, 1903 there were 172 pupils in the Bishop Corrie's Grammar School and at the end of last year there were 158 pupils. The Report read by Mr. S. P. DeSylva says:—Very many of our boys leave school after completing their sixteenth year and find employment in the Telegraph and Railway Departments. There seems to be a paucity of boys of school-going age to take the place of those who leave.

Mr. Justice Boddam who presided on the occasion of the Prize Distribution ceremony dwelt on the necessity of a play-ground for the boys. He congratulated the school on having tuition in religion.

Mr. A.G. CARDEW, who distributed the prizes to the successful candidates of the Madras Christian College on the 3rd April, made the following interesting observations:—

From your College Calendar, I find that, during the last 30 years, about 2,500 graduates have been turned out from this College. Of these, 1,000 have entered Government Service, 600 have become Vakils, 500 have taken up teaching, and of the occupation of another 250, there is no information. That accounts for 2,350, and only leaves 150 graduates to be distributed through the whole range of other employments, scientific, industrial and agricultural. As far as can be made out, not more than 80 graduates, or at the rate of 1 per annum, has engaged in anything that can even by a straining of language, be termed a commercial or industrial occupation. The number of graduates who are shown as landholders or agriculturists is less still, about half-a-dozen in all. This is not a good lookout for Indian agriculture and industry, if you believe that neither can get on without a large supply of educated men. There must be many of the students who graduate in Science from this College, who would find a more hopeful career in trade than in a Rs. 15 clerkship. It is an extraordinary reproach to the enterprise of the country, that almost all the chief business should be left in European hands. The rewards of trade are far greater than those of official life, and it is surely not to be believed that the Brahmin who makes so subtle a lawyer and so intelligent an official, cannot master the mysteries of crafts, such as watch-making, or carriage-building, or photography. If it is merely the old caste feeling which prevents his engaging in such pursuits, it is time that such prejudices were abandoned. Again, would it not be worth while for some of you to forego official or forensic careers in order to devote yourselves to the systematic improvement of your landed estates? Of course, I know there are difficulties.

There is not much money in the country, and the son who has had the advantage of an expensive education is expected to try and recoup his family the money it has invested in him. Still agriculture will also pay if properly pursued, and it might be worth while to think more often than is fashionable in this country, whether an official post does really give the best return for your money.

THE Report for 1904-1905 on the working of the Brennen College, Tellicherry, is to hand. Mr. I. Srinivasa Aiyar, the Principal, complains of the frequent changes in the staff. The number on the rolls on the 31st March 1905, was 335 against 279 on the 31st March, 1904 the highest on record for the college. The increase in the college department is noticeable, there being 64 pupils now against 40 in the previous year. The Principal accounts for the absence of a large number of Mopla boys in the higher forms by the boys being withdrawn by the parents as soon as they reach the 2nd and 3rd forms apparently under the belief that higher education is not necessary to the trades and to the merchant. The finances of the college are in good condition, resulting in a distinct gain to the Municipality. The Principal calls the attention of the authorities to the want of accommodation. The results of the public examinations were good.

THE following remarks were made by the several Hon. members on 'Education' in the recent Madras Budget Debate:—

The Hon. K. Vasudeva Aiyangar: "Under Education I should congratulate the Hon'ble Dr. Bourne on his getting a further grant of Rs. 6 lakhs for Primary Education. But this too is insufficient for the purpose. Even in the present allotment, the whole figure would not exceed even half the amount required by the Hon'ble Member. Though there has been a slight improvement in the spread of Primary Education during the last year, still, some 80 per cent. of the male population of school going age are left without any education at all. I hope, however, that with this additional amount the system of rural schools will be introduced on the lines indicated in the famous Resolution of the Government of India. The system that is reported to be prevailing in the Central Provinces seems to be doing excellent work and to impart practical education that is mostly required for a young cultivator in the village. If he is made to study his text-books containing chapters on sanitation, agriculture and the rights of the tenants, becomes conversant with the village accounts and maps and if he is made to contract habits of industry, thrift and business even in early life, the position of the agriculturists would indeed become much improved. But the usefulness and importance of a good school depend upon the qualifications of the teacher. The sort of men that are allowed to impart instruction in Village Schools and their absolute incapacity to deal with the training of young minds both morally and intellectually, do not

encourage me to hope for any good result accruing from such education. I am glad that in the Budget provision has been made to remedy this evil by the re-organisation of Government Training Schools. The recent additions to the staff of Sub-Assistant Inspectors will also improve the position of these Primary Schools. In urging the spread of Primary Education, the importance of helping Secondary Education should not be lost sight of. It is not known why the total expenditure from public funds under this item should have fallen during the year 1903-04 though the number of institutions and their strength rose.

THE HON'BLE MR. SRINIVASA RAO.

"The choice of subjects for the exercise of the Government of India's bounty has been extremely judicious and thoroughly unexceptionable. In addition to the permanent lightening of the burdens of the toiling masses, the Government of India has been bountiful in the distribution of doles, in which Madras has had its share, though in respect of one or two of them, we may be permitted to exercise the indefensible right which we enjoy under the British Government of grumbling, that our Presidency has not obtained its full share. For instance out of the Rs. 5 lakhs which the Government of India had for distribution among the five Universities of India, Madras has come in for a disproportionately small sum of Rs. 70,000, though its University is one of the oldest and caters to a much larger population than any other University, save that of Calcutta.

Speaking on the subject of Primary Education last year, I remarked that 'no improvement worth the name can be effected in Primary Education without an almost complete overhauling of the training schools that are scattered up and down the Presidency.' I am accordingly glad to note that a complete scheme of reorganisation of the Training Schools has been engaging the attention of the Government and that the expenditure sanctioned under the head of Education includes a provision to meet the cost of this re-organisation. But the improvement of the Training Schools is not by itself sufficient to make Primary Education more efficient than it is to-day. The betterment of the pay and position of the Primary Schoolmaster, who in many instances, it would hardly be believed, is paid the paltry pittance of Rs. 4 or Rs. 5 a month is a most crying need, without which Primary Education cannot be expected to make any progress in quality. No less important is the provincialisation of the staff of supervisors of Primary Schools and recruitment of them from a better and more highly educated class. The District and Local Boards in the past were hampered considerably by want of funds to carry out the work for which they were made responsible. These local authorities have till now occupied a position somewhat analogous to that of the Israelites of old who grumbled that they were required to make bricks without straw. The liberal grant-in-aid amounting to 25 per cent. of their income, which the plethoric state of the public purse has enabled the Government of India to sanc-

tion to these bodies, ought to have a perceptible effect in improving their financial position and I fancy, my Lord, that in their improved circumstance it would not be too much to insist upon their laying out a fixed proportion of their revenue on Education.

Last year I ventured to express the hope that the claims of qualified and experienced teachers in the well-established and successful private schools would not be lost sight of in filling up vacancies in the Government Educational Department. I am thankful that in making the recent appointments to the Sub-Assistant Inspectorate, my suggestion was acted upon. I am, however, of opinion that the Provincial Educational Service is quite as much in need of strengthening by the infusion of new blood as the subordinate service. For the reasons which I set forth at some length in my last year's speech, I would suggest, for the consideration of the Government, that at least one half of the vacancies in the Provincial Service should be made available to competent men in extra departmental institutions. I am aware that the age difficulty may be looked upon as a bar to such recruitment, but I think it cannot be an insuperable one. As in the case of District Munsiffs recruited from the Bar, the higher age limit of 35 may well be prescribed and occasional departures even from this rule may with great advantage be permitted.

The subject of Technical Education is apparently a ticklish one, especially, when it is regarded in the light of the confession made by the Honorable the Senior Member from his place here a twelve month ago, 'that in spite of the work and report of a Committee on this subject, we are little further forward. It is useless to talk of establishing Technical Schools till you know what they are wanted for, and how they can best supply what is wanted.' I shall, however, only remark that it is hard to be asked to rest content with this plea of *non possumus*.

THE HON'BLE MR. SIVASWAMY IYER.

The Hon'ble Mr. Sivaswamy Iyer said he was particularly grateful to the Government of India for the liberal grants for Education, the reorganisation of the Police and for aid to the District Boards. The present grants were not all they wanted in this Presidency, but it was a matter of great satisfaction that the Government were now in a position, owing to the bounty of the Government of India, to carry out many reforms held in abeyance for want of funds. He did not mean to say that the grants, liberal as they were, were adequate for the purposes, but they were an indication of the sympathy and generosity of the Government of India and would enable the Madras Government to take some steps towards carrying out much needed reforms. The claims of Primary Education had long been recognised both by the Government and the public as a most urgent problem of education. The deficiencies of the present system were all recognised and as to what steps ought to be taken to remedy them there was more or less unanimity of opinion. The main difficulty was want of funds, and that difficulty having to a considerable extent been obviated, he

[APRIL 1905.]

hoped the department would be in a position to advance the cause of Primary Education much further. To get an increased number of primary pupils they wanted a better class of teachers, and he had no doubt that steps would be taken to provide these. Referring to the education of girls, he said that it would not be possible for them to attain the same measure of success as in primary education by the mere expenditure of money. Though the successes that they might achieve might not be commensurate with the larger application of funds, it would be necessary for the Government to spend much more in that direction than it had been doing in the past. In that connection the provision of scholarships for Hindu and Mahomedan widows for the purpose of securing qualified female teachers was a step in the direction he advocated. The idea was so good that he hoped the Government would develop the same to a larger extent so as to secure an adequate number of qualified female teachers. If female teachers were employed more largely, parents would not hesitate to send their girls to school and there would be a much larger attendance in the Girls' Schools throughout the Presidency. The Hon'ble Member suggested that one or two Government High Schools might be started in Madras for the education of girls. There were some High Schools for girls in the Presidency at present, but he was not aware that there was any Government High School for girls in the Presidency Town. He thought that the establishment of such a school would be attended with a large amount of success. He suggested the establishment of Government High Schools in Black Town and Triplicane, and that a number of scholarships be offered to female pupils as was done in Mysore. In the case of people with comparatively slender means it would induce parents to keep these girls at school for a longer period. The late Mr. G. H. Stuart had had this idea under consideration and had convened a meeting of Inspectresses of Schools at which the subject was discussed. What recommendation Mr. Stuart had eventually made, he was not in a position to say.

THE HON'BLE MR. GOVINDARAGHAVA IYER.

Turning to the Budget, the first subject he wished to refer to was education and the necessity for the spread of Primary Education. He would like to point to the fact that the figures show that the whole Budget amount allotted for expenditure on Primary Education had not been availed of in 1903-04; nor was there any likelihood of its being done in 1905-06. For the reasons given in the Administration Report, to some extent it was perhaps unavoidable that it should have been so; still, that pointed to a danger in the situation which necessitated the putting forth of the best energies of the responsible officers of the Government. In 1903-04 the amount estimated was 23 lakhs odd; that actually spent was 21 lakhs odd; in 1904-05 the Budget Estimate was 24 lakhs odd; the amount spent was 22 lakhs; in 1905-06 the Estimate was 29 lakhs, and he hoped that this would be availed of fully. With respect to the character of the Primary Education needed, the

point he would like to lay before the Council was that there was very great necessity for changing the character of the Primary Education given. If he might be allowed to say so, the education now given was more bookish and literary than that which was suited to the needs of the people. So long as agriculture continued to be the main avocation of the people and so long as a very large proportion of the people were to be ultimately engaged in agriculture in India, any education that was given them must be of such a character as to develop their taste for that profession. For those reasons he submitted that the education now given was not calculated to bring about that result. The kind of education he had in view was that which had met with considerable success in the Central Provinces, viz., the provision of urban and rural schools, object of both kinds of education ought to be to make the lads use their eyes and hands, develop powers of observation and experiment, so that they might be able to realise the responsibilities of life, the absence of which capacity had been felt to be a dead weight on the administration. The Hon'ble Member remarked that the pay of the teachers in Primary Schools was unduly low and he suggested that the money in hand should be devoted to increasing the pay of the primary teachers and to their better training. Turning to the question of female education, he said that there was a large number of schools maintained solely at Government expense. The financial aspect of the matter ought not to be the only consideration; nor was this a matter in which it should be considered that the supply must come only after demand. This was a case where supply must stimulate the demand.

On the subject of Agricultural Education, the speaker observed that the view was largely held that the Indian agriculturist did not require so much to be taught to pursue agriculture as to be helped to do it. It could not be gainsaid that there were a variety of ways in which the Indian agriculturist stood in need of help and instruction, such as the use of superior kinds of manure, better tillage, and so on. The suggestion he desired to make was that the Government should try an experiment in the way of appointing itinerant Agricultural Instructors who might go about from place to place and point out the utility of employing better methods of cultivation and making suggestions so that the ryots might see in a practical sort of way what good might be obtained from the adopting of such suggestions. The Government of India had sanctioned a sum of Rs. 20 lakhs for purposes such as this, and some portion of the money might be utilised in having a staff of Agricultural Instructors who would go to the ryots' door and explain the superiority of their methods. With regard to Industrial Education, the Hon'ble Member regretted that very little progress has been made. In 1904 the Government of India passed a Resolution indicating the main lines on which Industrial Schools should be started and worked. He merely asked that effect might be given to that suggestion and that schools

APRIL 1905.]

may be started, where pupils might be better trained to practise various crafts. The speaker then dwelt upon the question of Sanskrit education and the preservation of Sanskrit literature which he hoped would receive the attention of Government.

THE HON'BLE DR. BOURNE.

The Hon'ble Dr. Bourne said he sincerely hoped, as the various gentlemen who had spoken before him had hoped, that Primary Education would at last get a real impetus. Certain remarks had been made in regard to rural schools in the Central Provinces. The subject of improving the curriculum of the Primary Schools in this Presidency had been engaging his attention for some time, but he could not help thinking that if the Madras Presidency had published an account of some of its best Primary Schools, nicely printed and nicely bound, it might be possible that the Central Provinces would have envied the schools of Madras. He was speaking without any knowledge of the Central Provinces Schools, but it might be possible that Madras Schools could be set up as an ideal to the Central Provinces. He felt convinced that there was immense room for improvement in the Madras Schools. He could not help thinking, whenever he went into a Primary School, that the children were more stupid inside the school than they were outside it. In the school they seemed to lose all the intelligence they possessed as long as they were outside the school, and the education given in the schools, appeared to have a stultifying effect. The real truth was, they wanted better teachers and in order to secure this they must arrange to pay them more. The proposals that he would submit to Government would entail the payment of large salaries to teachers in Primary Schools in order to attract the services of better men. They also needed better buildings. The Primary Schools in some of the districts were in a most disgraceful condition, badly ventilated, with the children crowded together and the air so foul that one could hardly make up his mind to go in. It was very comforting to hear the appreciation by the Indian Members of the efforts of Government to educate girls and also the satisfaction expressed with regard to the scheme for the employment of widow teachers in Girls' Schools. So far the scheme had worked well. If he were permitted to divert further funds towards this object, he would gladly do so. While on the subject of High Schools for girls, Mr. Sivasawmy Iyer had probably overlooked the fact that Government had a High School for girls in Madras, attached to the Presidency Training School for Mistresses. Attempts had always been made to maintain it as a successful High School, but he was sorry to say they had not met with any great success. The teachers in that institution were all women and there was a European Superintendent, but it was extremely difficult, in spite of definite efforts, to get Hindu girls to attend the school. As stated by Mr. Sivasawmy Iyer, a meeting had been held by the late Mr. Stuart to consider whether a new High School for girls should be founded in Madras; but although influ-

ential native gentlemen who were expected to be interested in the matter were asked to attend, it was found impossible to get them to attend the Meeting. He was perfectly willing to recommend to Government the development of the existing Girls' Schools in Mylapore and Triplicane into High Schools, should there appear to be any real demand for this being done.

THE following is the portion of His Excellency the Governor's speech on 'Education' in his general review at the recent Budget Debate on the 4th April:

I pass from a recital of matters relating to the material condition of the Presidency which has, I fear, been somewhat dry and tedious to those affairs which affect the moral condition of the people. The most important of these is, of course, Education, and here I despair of condensing an account of the past year's work into any form which will not try the patience of Honourable Members. There was very considerable activity in the Educational Department during the past year, and this was mainly due to the consideration of the Government of India Resolution on the subject of Education. This Resolution contained only a declaration of policy, but it necessitated a careful examination of the principles and methods followed in this Presidency in order to see what action was required in order to bring them into complete accord with those laid down by the Government of India. The Indian Universities Act of 1904 was brought into force during the year, and I am glad to think that the reduction of the Senate and the constitution of the provisional Syndicate were received with less adverse criticism in this Presidency than they were elsewhere. It is in the work of the new Senate which has just commenced that the Act may be expected to bear fruit and we may anticipate that during the coming year important reforms will be proposed. The Madras Educational Rules have been revised so as to make them clearer and more comprehensive, but they have not yet been formally issued. The reorganisation of the Provincial Educational Service has been carried out and that of the staff of Sub-Assistant Inspectors of Schools has also made progress. The latter scheme is of very great importance as the number of Sub-Assistant Inspectors was formerly altogether inadequate. The business of these officers is to examine Primary Schools and there used to be only just enough of them to visit each school once a year and examine it for a grant. The number of Sub-Assistants has now been nearly doubled, for 54 of the 62 new Sub-Assistants have been appointed and their pay and prospects have been considerably improved. The reorganisation of the Government Girls' Schools was continued and in regard to the other Government schools reforms which are expected to have very far-reaching results have been under consideration. Hitherto Primary School teachers have been trained in the art of teaching, but nothing has been done to improve their general knowledge. It is now proposed to make them undergo a regular course of instruction in general subjects and to extend the

period of their training to two years. Further, the practising schools attached to training institutions, which have been hitherto more or less neglected, are to be converted into model schools and placed under a separate staff of teachers, but these proposals still require the sanction of the Government of India. I may note in passing that the system of paying grants-in-aid in full which was introduced two years ago was continued during the past year. You have seen that the Government of India have given us an allotment of six lakhs for the purpose of Primary Education, and I should like to say a few words on this subject. It is, of course, our object to extend Primary Education, but first of all we wish to improve that education as far as possible so that full value may be obtained for the money spent. The difficulty, however, is that we have got nothing like the number of qualified teachers required to teach the children attending the existing and recognised schools. We are generally ahead of other Provinces in the matter of Education, for we teach 198 boys out of every thousand of school-going age as against an average of 174 per thousand for the rest of India, and we head the list of literate boys for all India, but we wish to maintain our lead in spite of any advance which may be made elsewhere. During the past three years distinct improvement has been made in the matter of Primary Education in this Presidency, and our present object is to consolidate the work already achieved by improving the organisation of existing Primary Schools and the quality of the instruction given in them so that we shall be able at once to apply these improvements to any new schools which we may bring into existence. For this purpose we need more and better teachers and an improved inspecting agency and it is to these objects that we shall first apply the funds that have been allotted to us. We have made a beginning, but the question is one of exceeding difficulty, and I cannot discuss it any further without making a digression which would hardly be justifiable on the present occasion.

Before I leave the subject of Education I should like to tell you that no suitable candidate has yet come forward to take up the technical scholarship instituted by the Government of India to enable natives of India to pursue a course of study in Great Britain or other Western countries. You will, I am sure, agree with me that this is deplorable and reveals the want of enterprise which bodes ill for the development of industries in this Presidency. It is a matter in which personal influence could do a great deal, and I hope that those who guide the rising generation will turn their attention to the subject.

MYSORE.

The Mysore Educational (General) Conference held its first sitting on Friday, the 17th March, in the Council Chamber at the Durbar Offices, commencing at 11 A.M. There were present:—Mr. H. J. Bhabha, M.A., Inspector-General of Education, President, in the chair, and the following members:—Messrs. T. Denham, M.A., Professor of Maharajah's

College, Mysore; R. Venkatasawmy Naidu, B.A.; C. Krishna Rao, B.A.; V. Subramaniya Iyer, B.A.; M. Srinivasa Rao, B.A.; H. V. Nanjundayya, M.F., M.L., Judge, Mysore Chief Court; A. Chandrasekara Iyer, B.A., B.L., Deputy Secretary to Government; M. Shama Rao, M.A., Assistant Secretary to Dewan; Rev. D. A. Rees, M.A., Chairman, Wesleyan Mission; Rev. E. P. Rice, B.A., London Mission; Lieut. Heale, B.A., Tutor to the Yuvaraja; Mr. K. Ramachandra Rao, B.A., Headmaster, London Mission High School; Mr. M. Venkatakrishnaiah and Dr. M. Srinivasa Rao, M.A., Chemical Examiner and Bacteriologist and Lecturer in Biology and Physiology at the Central College. I. Mr. Venkatakrishnaiah proposed and Mr. H. V. Nanjundayya seconded.

"That the teaching of English be permitted to be commenced after passing the I. Vernacular Standard."

The proposer, seconded and Mr. Chandrasekara Iyer voted in favour of the proposition. All the other members present, 14 in number, voted against it.

II. That this Conference is of opinion that the Mysore English Lower Secondary Examination be allowed to continue its existing form for the present.

III. That the Conference is of opinion that the local Examination Board should in defining the course of Geography prescribed for the Lower Secondary Examination, require that greater importance be attached to the physical features of countries than to Political Geography.

IV. The first five Chapters of the Mysore Educational Rules were gone through and slight modifications suggested in places.

The Conference rose at 5-15 P.M.

SECOND DAY.

The General Conference was resumed on Saturday, Mr. Bhabha again occupying the chair, and with the exception of Dr. Srinivasa Rao, all the other members who were present on Friday, attended again. Mr. C. Srinivasa Iyengar, First Councillor, was present for a short time as a visitor.

The following resolutions were passed:—

(i) The Rev. D. A. Rees proposed and Mr. Chandrasekara Iyer seconded:—

"That this Conference desires to draw the attention of Government to the large expenditure per pupil in Government Schools as compared with the cost per pupil of the same standard of education in aided schools. They would also draw attention to the difference in the proportion of fees levied to the total expenditure of Government and aided schools, respectively."

"This Conference asks that Government appoint a Committee to consider the whole question with a view to discovering the causes of this disparity and adopting such remedies as may be necessary." Carried *nem. con.*

(ii) The rules for the migration of pupil and the collection of school fees were discussed and amended.

(iii) It was proposed by the Rev. E. P. Rice and seconded by the Rev. H. Thorpe that the following addition be made to this rule I of Chap. V:—

"The time allotted to each subject in the standards of instruction is for the general guidance of teachers." Carried *nem. con.*

(iv) Mr. M. Shama Rao, proposes and Mr. Venkatakrishnaiah seconded:—

"That in all District Head-quarters a fee of 2 annas be levied in the middle Vernacular classes of girls." Carried *nem. con.*

(v) Rev. D. A. Rees proposed and Mr. T. Denham seconded:—

"That in all District Head-quarters a fee of 1 anna be also charged in the Upper Primary Classes of Girls' Schools."

Seven for the proposal and seven against the proposal.

(vi) That the names of girls who absent themselves without leave or without good reason for more than three consecutive days or for six days altogether in the month, should be struck off, and they shall not be readmitted unless a readmission fee of 1 anna in the case of Lower Primary Classes and 2 annas in the Upper Primary and Middle Classes is paid."

(vii) Rev. D. A. Rees proposed and Rev. H. Thorpe seconded:—

"That this Conference is of opinion that scholarships in the Primary and Middle Departments of Girls' Schools are not needed, except in the 4th and 5th Anglo-Vernacular Classes." Carried by a majority.

(viii) "That the Conference is in favour of a special course for Rural Primary Schools in Mysore, inclusive of the principles of Agriculture."

(ix) "That this Conference recommends that Government should encourage the preparation of books by competent authors in Kannda in all subjects suitable for all courses of instruction where the present supply is inadequate."

(x) Mr. Rees proposed:—

"That this Conference recorded its appreciation of the honour done by Government to members of the Conference in inviting them to the Conference and desires to convey its thanks to Government, through the President."

(xi) Mr. Venkatakrishnaiah proposed and Mr. Ramachandra Rao seconded a vote of thanks to the President for the patient and courteous way in which he had conducted the proceedings of the Conference.

The General Conference then terminated.

DEPARTMENTAL CONFERENCE.

The Departmental Conference was held in the Council Chamber on the 20th, with Mr. H. J. Bhabha, Inspector-General of Education, in the chair. The following were also present:—Messrs. T. R. Venkatasawmy Naidu, B.A., C. Krishna Rao, B.A., V. Subramaniya Iyer, B.A.; M. Krishnaiengar, B.A., M. Sreenivasa Rao, B.A., S. Rangachariar, M. Ramasamy Iyer, B.A., K. Rangappa, N. Shama Rao, B.A., S. Gopal Rao, Mahomed Beg, and K. Narasimaiengar, B.A.

The following business was transacted:—

(i) The Educational Rules were gone through and suggestions for improving them were accepted.

(ii) This Conference is of opinion:—(1) That as a rule, no kutcha building for a village school for

the accomodation of 30 boys be constructed at a less cost than Rs. 300, with Mangalore tiles, of which Rs. 150 at least should be contributed by the people either in cash, material, or labour. In the case of Hindustani Schools the Government contribution may be more than one half. This Conference is of opinion that Assistant Commissioners in charge of the Taluks, and Amildars should be responsible for helping the Village School Committees in building school houses and keeping them in a state of repair, a fund for these purposes being collected and kept in the Taluk Treasury.

(iii) This Conference respectfully and earnestly submits (1) That the pay and the status of Village School-masters may be improved by fixing a scale of pay like the following—On Rs. 7, 10, 12, 15 and 20. The numbers and salaries of appointments may be as follows:—400 on Rs. 7, 500 on Rs. 10 chiefly for Mahomedan Schools; 600 on Rs. 12, 700 on Rs. 15 and 100 on Rs. 20. (2) That for Vernacular School-masters in Taluk Stations the minimum pay be Rs. 10 and the maximum Rs. 25; (3) that for Anglo-Vernacular teachers the minimum pay be Rs. 15, and that it rise in the case of Headmasters to Rs. 30, 40 and 50; (4) that Government may be pleased to appoint Headmasters of large Village and Taluk schools as members of the Village Unions, Taluk Municipalities and Taluk Boards; (5) that the pay of all peons in Taluk Branch schools may be raised to Rs. 6. Without this pay it is not possible to get peons or to retain them long in service.

(iv) The rules for grant-in-aid of village indigenous schools were read out and explained.

(v) This Conference respectfully submits for the consideration of the Government that a grant equal to 50 per cent., of the income of the Village School Fund may be made to it from the State Funds for the purpose of extending and improving Primary Education throughout the Province.

(vi) This Conference submits that with a view of increasing the number of aided Village Schools a fixed monthly grant of Rs. 5 be given from State Funds to passed men who have maintained a Village School in a fair state of efficiency during the previous 12 months, in a locality where there are no other Primary Schools.

(vii) This Conference submits in the interests of Primary Education in villages that the appointments of Patels and Shanbagues be held in future only by those who have passed a Primary Examination by the IV Standard in Vernacular and Arithmetic.

(viii) The Conference humbly submits that in the case of all Vernacular appointments in Government service, head of departments be directed to see that those who have passed the Lower Secondary Examination are employed in future.

(ix) This Conference is of opinion that provision should be made for at least two inspections during the year of each Village School by strengthening the Inspecting staff.

(x) That in Bangalore and Mysore a fee of 2 annas be levied in the Middle Vernacular and Anglo-Vernacular Classes of Girls' Schools, except Hindustani Girls' Schools.

(xi) That Resolution VI of the Conference be confirmed.

(xii) That a few scholarships are needed for girls in the 4th and 5th Vernacular and Anglo-Vernacular Classes.—Carried by a majority.

(xiii) That it is advisable to have a special curriculum for Rural Primary Schools.

(xiv) The grant of Rs. 1,200 for school gardens in the current year's budget be distributed as follows: Rs. 86 for Nanjangud, Sosa, Mangola and Kuderu, Rs. 56 for wells in the above places; Rs. 100 for Siralkoppa; Rs. 86 for Chicknaikanahalli and Sira; Rs. 100 for Goribidnur; Rs. 88 for Tumkur, including Rs. 100 for a pump, Rs. 86 for Yedatore and Rs. 100 for Chickmagalore.

(xv) That H. H. the Maharaja's Birthday be appointed Arbour Day for the planting of trees by the boys of every Village Schools.

(xvi) That Deputy Inspectors may be empowered to grant 3 months' privilege leave and that Assistant Deputy Inspectors may be empowered to grant one month's leave without pay, and one month's leave on medical certificate and to make arrangements for carrying on the work during the periods of leave.

(xvii) That when a school is closed for more than two months on account of plague, the fees may be levied for the 1st two months and excused for the remaining months until the school reopens.

(xviii) That Domestic Economy may be prescribed in the place of History in IVth & Vth classes for Girls' Schools.—D. P.

BOMBAY.

The Bombay Educational Department notifies that the following three candidates have been, with the approval of the Government of India, nominated to State Technical Scholarships to be held in Great Britain for the course of study specified against the names:—Mr. Perojsha Nusserwanji Mehta, L.T.M., Weaving Master, the Colaba Land and Mills Company, Limited, Bombay, and Mr. E. Hoogwerf, L.M.E., L.T.M., Assistant and Mercantile Traveller in the Machinery Department of Messrs. Graves, Cotton and Company, Bombay, for a course of textile study. Mr. Vithal Trimbak Pathak, L.T.M., Weaving Master, Pulgaon Mills, Central Provinces, for a course of textile study with special reference to chemistry in its application to textile requirements and to the printing of textile fabrics.

A PRIZE distribution was held in the second week of April in the Alexandra Native Girls' English Institution, Mr. C. M. Cursetji, son of the founder presiding. Mr. M. B. Colab, the Secretary, read the report for the year 1904 which showed that out of the 141 pupils, who were on the rolls at the end of the year, 115 were Parsees, 23 Hindus and 3 Mussulmans. Seven girls had attended the Matriculation Examination and six of them had passed. After referring to the want of support which the school suffered from, the Chairman said that the question of imparting religious education to the girls had

been before the Board of Directors for some time, and was one which was not likely to be practically handled, as the school was open to students of all classes, and it would be difficult, without engaging the services of a large staff of teachers in religious matters to give religious education to girls of all denominations attending the school. At all events for the present the question seemed to him to be hardly practicable. Perhaps it would appear in him ungracious to remark but such was the fact, and he could not help stating that when Indian Princes and potentates spent two lakhs of rupees or more in making pilgrimages or in attending the great show at Delhi, they should have been content with making donations to such an institution like theirs of a few hundred rupees, or at most, a couple of thousands.

BENGAL.

It is proposed to found in Calcutta a school for the teaching of foreign languages under the auspices of the Association for the Advancement of Scientific and Industrial Education. Details of the scheme are not yet available, but it appears that the intention is to form classes for the principal European languages and for Japanese. The teaching of Chinese will not at first be attempted, although it is probable that it may be found advisable to include that language later on. The number of students leaving India for Europe, America, and Japan is yearly on the increase, and it is therefore good policy on the part of the Association to take up the teaching of languages as part of its practical programme:—*Statesman and Friend of India*.

IN the course of his speech as the Chairman of the Protest Meeting held in Calcutta on Friday the 10th March, Dr. Rash Behary Ghose said:—The abolition of the competitive test would also seem to be another "unsuggested" reform. It is true the Public Service Commission presided over by Sir Charles Aitchison reported that "in parts of the country where the general educational conditions are more advanced than elsewhere, especially in the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay and the Lower Provinces of Bengal, a system of an open competition would give satisfaction to some important classes of the community and would meet objections that are justly felt to a system of nominations." But Lord Curzon is wiser than the members of the Public Service Commission, wiser than Mill, wiser than Macaulay, wiser than the distinguished Statesman who accomplished a similar reform in the Civil Service in England. It may be true that the competitive system has some drawbacks, but experience has shown that it everywhere increases the efficiency of the Public Service and stimulates the acquisition of knowledge. Above all, as a thoughtful writer who is also a Statesman has observed, it strengthens the social feeling for the maxim that the career should be open to the talents. Lord Curzon, however, is anxious to "free the intellectual activities of the Indian people, keen and restless as they are, from the paralyzing clutch of

examinations"—for which every idle lad in this country ought, I think, to be grateful to him.

And this brings me to the Universities Act, one of the gifts of Lord Curzon to this country which my countrymen refuse to accept, because they regard it with distrust. By this Act the whole system of higher education has been practically placed under official control. This is not all. Lord Curzon's measure will place University education beyond the reach of many boys belonging to the middle class. And here perhaps I may be permitted to remark that to talk of the highest mental culture as the sole aim of University training betrays a singular misconception of the conditions of Indian life. Our students go to the Universities in such large numbers because they cannot otherwise enter any of the learned professions or even qualify themselves for service under Government. I would also point out that education, though it may not reach a very high standard, is still a desirable thing, on the principle that half a loaf is better than no bread. The fallacy that lurks in Pope's well-known couplet has been so clearly exposed by Macaulay, Whately, John Stuart Mill, and last though not least by Mr. Morley, that I will not occupy your time with discussing it. One word more. The standard of education will never be improved by either Universities Acts or Validating Acts. It can only be done by attracting to this country as teachers of our youth men distinguished by their scholarship or by their scientific attainments, like those who occupy the chairs in European Universities.

THE Hon. Mr. Carnduff, replying to a question put by the Hon. Babu Ambika Charan Mazumdar, at a meeting of the Bengal Legislative Council on the 11th March, said: (a) The Lieutenant-Governor is aware of the existence of an Association called the 'Calcutta University Teachers' Association, the object of which is to provide University teachers with opportunities for the discussion of educational questions and the formation and public expression of definite professional opinion. All persons who follow, as their main occupation, the profession of teaching in colleges or other institutions affiliated to the Calcutta University, or who, having been formerly so engaged, are mainly employed in the direction or inspection of teaching, are eligible for election as members of the Association. (b) There are several teachers or professors in Government institutions who are members of the Association. Some of these are also among the members of the Senate and of the Provisional Syndicate of the University. (c) The Lieutenant-Governor entirely approves of the existence of the Association and of its objects. He considers that it is very desirable to promote greater intercourse among teachers and to enable them to meet together periodically to discuss questions affecting education. The inquiry, which His Honour has thought it necessary to make shows that the Association does not seek to control the action of the Senate and Syndicate of the University, nor to fetter these bodies in the discharge of their important duties.

XI

It is true that, on one occasion, a suggestion was made that all the members who are also members of the Senate, should bind themselves to act together in regard to a University matter; but this suggestion was not accepted or acted on. His Honour would certainly disapprove of Government officers belonging to any organisation which fettered them in the discharge of their duties either as Government servants or as Fellows of the University or members of the Syndicate. But he has been assured, and is satisfied, that it is not one of the objects of this Association to do anything of the kind; and His Honour believes that Government officers may belong to it not only without injury, but with advantage to the work that they have to do.

THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

The Hon. Babu Ambika Charan Mazumdar asked the following question: (a) In view of the congestion which has taken place in the Educational Services as organized in 1896 and the want of attraction which they still present to distinguished men in adopting the Educational Department, will the Government be pleased to consider whether it is not time to re-consider and re-adjust the system of 1896 and place the Educational Services on a more satisfactory and attractive basis? (b) Will the Government be further pleased to lay on the table a statement containing the following particulars regarding the officers in the Subordinate Educational Service *outside the grade* established under re-organization of the Bengal Educational Department in 1896?—(i) The names of such officers; (ii) their educational qualifications; (iii) their present salary; (iv) the date of their first appointment; (v) the date on which they were admitted to their present salary.

The Hon. Mr. Carnduff replied as follows: (a) The importance of re-organising the Education Department has been fully realised by the Government of Bengal; and a scheme is now before the Government of India. It includes the Provincial and Subordinate Educational Services and the ungraded officers of the Department. (b) Under these circumstances it seems unnecessary to give the detailed information asked for.

The following rules are published in the *Calcutta Gazette*:—

1. With a view to provide for natives of India the higher technical education which may qualify them to assist in promoting the improvement of existing native industries and the development of new industries wherever this may be possible, the Government of India are ready, as an experimental measure, to give a small number of Technical scholarships, if promising candidates, well-qualified in some particular branch of industry, present themselves. The outlines of the scheme are sketched out below.

2. *Value of the scholarships.*—The value of the scholarships has been fixed at £150 a year, in addition to fees payable to the institutions where the scholars will study and travelling expenses; but

37

Government will consider proposals for increasing it in special cases.

3. *Place and periods of tenure.*—Each scholarship is tenable for an average period of two years, which may be increased or reduced in special cases.

4. The scholarships may be held in Great Britain, or the Continent of Europe, or in America, and are payable from the date of the scholar's arrival in the country which he may select for study.

Subjects of study.—Law, Medicine, Forestry, Veterinary Science, Agriculture and Engineering have been excluded from the scope of the present proposal. The scholarships are in the first instance proposed to be used for the encouragement of the mining industry in Bengal, but any other branch of industry can similarly be helped and fostered. Industries in which native capital and enterprise are engaged, or likely to be engaged and in which the trained scholar might, on return to his country, find scope for his skill and ability, will be particularly appropriate for selection.

6. *Conditions of award.*—The scholarships are tenable by persons who are natives of India within the meaning of Section 6 of the Statute, 33 Vic., Cap. 3. A competent knowledge of English, or the language of any other country in which the candidate proposes to work and study is essential to enable him to take full advantage of the course of study.

7. In the matter of selection of scholars, Government will be guided by considerations of the candidate's capacity, intelligence, particular interest in and connection with the industry selected, and the assurance that he will continue to devote himself to the subject on his return to India. These being matters which cannot be decided by the holding of degrees obtained, by examination, or by competition, no special examination is considered necessary and none will be held. But scholars before nomination should have received the best technical education available in the Province in the particular industry which he has to study, and no candidate will be considered qualified unless he has displayed an aptitude for technical study.

8. No age-limit has been fixed. But it may be fixed by Government in certain cases.

9. The candidates for scholarships should submit certificates attesting (a) their moral character, (b) knowledge of the language of the country in which they elect to study, and (c) physical capacity, from recognized persons who may be considered fit to certify to these facts. These certificates will not be returned.

10. The scholars in England or elsewhere as the case may be will be under the control and supervision of the Secretary of State. The conditions under which they will hold the scholarships will be similar to those laid down for Government of India scholarships, and power will be retained to cancel a scholarship and to send the scholar back to India if his progress and conduct be not satisfactory.

11. *Returned scholars.*—No scholar will be bound on his return to India by any engagement to serve Government or a private firm and the choice of his career will be in the first instance determined on his return from Europe by his own inclination. Should any occasion arise Government will be glad to turn his ability and increased knowledge to account as teacher in an Industrial school or in other capacities connected with the improvement of local industries.

12. Applications from natives of Bengal for such scholarships for the development of the mining industry, in the first instance, should be made direct to the Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, on or before the last day of May, 1905. Full particulars should be furnished as to the past educational experience, training and future requirements of each applicant for a scholarship. Applicants should also indicate, if possible, what they wish to work at in their future careers on return to India. The scholarships will be awarded by the Government of India on the recommendation of the Local Government.

The following instructions for the appointment and proceedings of Visiting Committees of Secondary Schools maintained from public funds appear in the *Calcutta Gazette* :—

[These rules are supplementary to the rules for the management of schools, which are already in force.]

1. For every secondary school managed by Government or by a District Board, Municipal Committee or Joint-Committee, there should be Visiting Committees, consisting of local residents adequately representing the classes from which the students are drawn.

2. For Government schools, except Collegiate Schools, the members of the Visiting Committees should be appointed by the District officer in consultation with the Inspector of Schools. For Collegiate Schools they should be appointed by the Director of Public Instruction on the nomination of the Principals of the attached colleges, who should consult suitable local authorities before sending in their selections.

3. For schools managed by District Boards, Municipal Committees or Joint-Committees, the members should be appointed from among the members of the District and Local Boards, Municipal Committees or Joint-Committees, as the case may be, by the Chairman concerned. Other gentlemen interested in education may also be appointed members.

4. The term of office of members of Visiting Committees should be for a period of three years from the date of their appointment. Any member should be eligible for reappointment at the end of that period at the discretion of the appointing authority. Members who have not fulfilled the duties for which they were appointed should not be

reappointed on the expiry of the three-year term of office. A member should be appointed whenever a vacancy occurs.

5. Visiting Committees shall have no power to issue any orders to the Headmasters of schools, their functions being confined to the offering of advice for the consideration of the school authorities and the officers of the Education Department.

6. The Visiting Committee of a school should inspect the institution at least once a quarter. Visits should not, however, be paid to the school during school hours more often than once a month. Due notice of visit should ordinarily be given to the Headmaster, but surprise visits may be made when necessary. The number of members visiting a school on any occasion should not be more than two.

7. The Visiting Committees should either record their opinion in the Visitors' Book of the school for the information of the Inspector or the Deputy Inspector of Schools, or the Principal of the College, as the case may be, or may communicate their suggestions in writing direct. A copy of the remarks should also be forwarded in the case of schools managed by District Boards, Municipal Committees or Joint Committees to the Chairman concerned within three days of the inspection.

8. Members of every Visiting Committee should elect from amongst themselves a Chairman and a Secretary, and submit their names to the District Officer, the Director of Public Instruction or the Chairman of the District Board, Municipal Committee or Joint Committee, as the case may be, for approval.

9. A meeting of Visiting Committee should be called by the Secretary when considered necessary, or at the requisition of any two members of the Committee, for the general discussion of matters relating to the school. Not less than seven days' notice should be given of any meeting.

10. The notice should set forth the business to be transacted at the meeting and no business other than that so stated should be transacted except with the consent of all the members present. When any business of which notice has not been given is considered at a meeting, the decision recorded or resolution adopted at such meeting should be communicated forthwith to all the members, and the subject should be capable of being reopened at a subsequent meeting convened on a requisition made by three members of the Committee within seven days of the communication of the original resolution, but save as hereinbefore mentioned no subject once finally disposed of should be reconsidered within six months, unless two-thirds of the members consent by signing a requisition.

11. The maximum number of members of a Visiting Committee should be ten and the minimum six and one-third of the members in office should form a quorum. The Chairman should have a casting vote, in addition to his ordinary vote, in cases where the votes of the members present are equally divided.

In the absence of the Chairman, one of the members present should be elected to preside. Committees should formulate any further rules of business that may be necessary.

12. Under the directions of the Committee, the Secretary should carry on correspondence with the proper authorities on behalf of the Committee, and be in charge of all papers belonging to the Committee.

13. The Secretary shall keep a record of the proceedings of each meeting and submit it to the next meeting for confirmation. Such proceedings and all work done by a Committee shall be duly recorded in a book kept for the purpose, which should be open for inspection by all inspecting officers of the Education Department.

The following instructions for the appointment and proceedings of Committees of Management of aided Secondary Schools appear in the *Calcutta Gazette* :—

[These rules are supplementary to the rules already in force in schools aided by Government or by District Boards and Municipalities.]

1. The general management of an aided Secondary School, high or middle, is subject to the rules prescribed from time to time by Government or the Department for the management of aided schools. The local management should remain in the hands of a Committee of Management, the members of which should be selected as to represent all classes of the community—legal, commercial, trading, industrial and agricultural; but in cases in which the Director of Public Instruction is satisfied that the promoters of a school can give guarantees for efficient management otherwise, it will be sufficient if it is placed under a Visiting Committee as in the case of a school maintained from public funds.

2. Appointments to a Committee of Management should be made with the approval of—

(a) The District Officer in consultation with the Inspector of Schools, in the case of a school aided by Government;

(b) The Chairman of the District Board or Municipal Committee, in the case of a school aided by a District Board or Municipal Committee.

3. The members of a Committee of Management of a school should elect from amongst themselves a Chairman, Secretary and an Auditor, and submit their names to the District Officer or the Chairman, as the case may be, for previous approval.

4. A meeting of the Committee should be called by the Secretary, usually once every month (except in the long vacation month) or oftener if need be. Not less than seven days' notice should be given of any meeting.

5. The notice should set forth the business to be transacted at the meeting, and no business other than that so stated should be transacted, except with the consent of all the members present. When any business of which notice has not been given is

considered at a meeting the decision recorded or resolution adopted at such meeting should be communicated forthwith to all the members and the subject should be capable of being reopened at a subsequent meeting convened on a requisition made by three members of the Committee within seven days of the communication of the original resolution but, save as hereinbefore mentioned, no subject once finally disposed of should be reconsidered within six months, unless two-thirds of the members consent by signing a requisition.

6. The monthly audited accounts should be presented at the next month's meeting of the Committee for the purpose of being passed.

7. The maximum number of members of the Committee should be ten and the minimum six, and one-third of the members in office should form a quorum. The Chairman should have a casting vote, in addition to his ordinary vote, when the votes of the members present are equally divided. In the absence of the Chairman, one of the members present should be elected to preside. Committees should formulate any further rules of business that may be necessary.

8. Under the direction of the Committee, the Secretary should carry on correspondence with the proper authorities on behalf of the Committee. He should also keep a record of the proceedings of each meeting and submit it to the next meeting for confirmation. Such proceedings and all work done by the Committee should be duly recorded in a book kept for the purpose.

9. The trust-deeds and other important papers relating to the school should be in charge of the Secretary or of some resident member of the Committee, except those which it is necessary to keep in the special charge of the Headmaster; but all papers relating to the school in the shape of accounts and records should be available at any time for inspection by all inspecting officers of the Education Department.

10. No teacher should be appointed, promoted, suspended or removed except by a resolution passed at a meeting of the Committee. In all cases of appointment, promotion and removal of the staff, the Headmaster's opinion should be on record and the Committee should always record reasons for removal, punishment, stoppage of promotion and supersession of the staff.

In exceptionally urgent cases relating to teachers other than the Headmaster, however, the Secretary should, after consultation with the Headmaster, make a provisional appointment in anticipation of the Committee's sanction but the matter should be reported to the Committee at their next meeting for approval.

Similarly a provisional arrangement should be made by the Secretary in consultation with the Chairman and subject to the approval of the Committee in respect of a vacancy in the Headmastership when the case is exceptionally urgent, but this should not be taken to dispense with the necessity

of final confirmation by the existing educational authorities, as required under the grant-in-aid rules.

11. Subject to the provisions of the grant-in-aid rules, the list of holidays will be settled by the Secretary, in consultation with the Headmaster. In the case of a difference of opinion between the Secretary and the Headmaster the matter should be referred to the Committee for decision.

12. The arrangement of classes, the settlement of the school routine and all other details relating to school discipline and teaching should be in charge of the Headmaster, acting under the advice of the departmental educational officers, but the Committee, however, should have the right to offer their opinion and advice in these matters in writing to the Inspector or the Deputy Inspector of Schools.

13. All questions relating to the promotion of boys and the selection of candidates for the Entrance and Scholarship Examinations should remain in the hands of the Headmaster and be subject to the supervision of the inspecting officers of the Education Department only.

SIR ANDREW FRASER speaking on the 31st of March in the Bengal Legislative Council said :—

PRIMARY EDUCATION.

The next subject to which I should refer briefly is the subject of education. First of all I join with Hon. members in an expression of our thanks to the Government of India for the recurring grant of Rs. 10 lakhs per annum to the Provincial revenues of Bengal to meet increased expenditure on Primary Education. The Governor-General in Council has expressed his desire that this grant shall be fully utilised in increasing the normal allotment for Primary Education, and measures have been taken to ensure that expenditure hitherto incurred will not be discontinued on account of this grant; but that there will be, to the extent at least of this grant, an increase of expenditure on Primary Education. It has been found by experience that it is not easy for a Local Government to resist the strong claims which are made upon its resources by those who are interested in desirable improvements and who can make themselves heard. Primary Education in Bengal is in a very unsatisfactory state—more so in some respects at least than in other parts of India would—and yet the demand for reform is less clamorous than with regard to matters of less importance. The subject has been attracting our attention for some time, and schemes have been formed for the development of Primary Education, in respect of which we had a strong hope that the Government of India give us some assistance and which we could not have carried out without the substantial contribution which has now been made to our finances. It has been pointed out already that the money will be mainly spent on buildings for Primary Schools, which are worse in Bengal than any I have seen in almost any other part of India; in helping Primary Education among Mahomedans; in carrying out the effective scheme for rural Primary Schools; in providing

Training Schools for Primary teachers; and in a substantial increase of the subordinate inspecting agency. Our hopes as to receiving substantial assistance have been more than realised; and we trust that there is now before us an era of progress and development in Primary Education. It has been pointed out by the Hon. Mr. Shirres that the provincial grants for education in this province have very materially increased of late years. While we are pushing on Primary Education, we do not intend to neglect our duty in regard to the higher stages of education. I do not however, intend to detain the Council by remarks on this subject. All that I need say is this, that I am greatly encouraged by seeing the attention which is being paid throughout the Province generally to Secondary Education on approved lines, and also by the interest which is being taken in the development of University education. I think it is a cause for great satisfaction that there is so much of a spirit of co-operation among official and non-official teachers and amongst those interested in University education in regard to the drawing up of the regulations for the new University. I am glad also to find the Hon. Babu Bhupendra Nath Basu taking an opportunity of giving his support to the Ranchi College scheme, and suggesting improvements in the Presidency College on lines which commend themselves thoroughly to me. I congratulate the Ranchi College Committee on the subscriptions which have been made towards the scheme practically unsolicited. No great effort has yet been made to raise subscriptions, and yet they have nearly reached Rupees two lakhs. I am sure that the scheme appeals to the feeling of many throughout the Province, who desire a sound University education for their sons. As to the suggestions made regarding the Presidency College, I shall see that they receive early and careful consideration from the educational authorities. That very considerable improvement is required in regard to the important matters of accommodation for the students and bringing them more into contact with their Professors I have no doubt whatever; and I shall be very glad to consider, in consultation with my official advisers and with others interested in higher education, the steps which should be taken to secure such improvement.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

I should like to say that I sympathise very much with what has fallen from my Hon. friend Mr. Larmour regarding technical and industrial education. It has been pointed out to him by the Hon. Mr. Carnduff that the matter has certainly not been entirely neglected, and that interest in it and attention to it are increasing. It is a matter which receives anxious consideration at the hands of this Government. I have been interested by the remarks which have been made by the Hon. Badu Saligram Singh regarding the Temple Medical School at Patna. He is anxious to have it raised to the status of a College, so that the Biharis may be induced to avail themselves of a higher medical education and prepare themselves for the higher grade of the

medical service or profession. I need hardly say how deeply I sympathise with him in this desire of his. But he will understand quite easily that it is impossible to give him any definite promise at the present time. It is necessary that such a question as this should be very carefully considered. It is by no means without difficulty. Three important points have to be considered. The first is the effect which would be produced on the attendance at the school or college by raising the educational standard of admission. It would, I fear, be impossible to lower the standard of admission to Medical Colleges generally, so as to meet the case of this Bihari College; and I am afraid that there might be some difficulty in getting a sufficient number of students for a Medical College at Patna possessing the prescribed educational qualifications. This is a matter to be inquired into before any decision on the question can be arrived at. Another point is whether the expenditure which will be required for securing the Professors necessary to teach medicine and surgery in the College would be justified by the probabilities in respect of the outturn of men qualified to be graduates in medicine. This also requires inquiry and consideration. Thirdly, there is the fear that the opportunities for clinical instruction in the hospitals of Patna are not adequate for the training of graduates in medicine. As the Hon. member is well aware, I have recently taken steps greatly to improve the hospital which is connected with the Temple Medical School at Patna; but I am not certain that it is even now adequate for the purposes of a college. There are great advantages in having medical education imparted in a great city where there are first-rate hospitals. At the same time as I have said I sympathise with the object that the Hon. member has before him; and the suggestions which he has made will receive the fullest consideration. Before leaving the subject of education I should like to say one word about the Resolution published last month, regarding Primary Education, which has been referred to by more than one Hon. member. I have received already many criticisms of that Resolution. On the scheme as a whole the criticisms are generally favourable. There is, however, one point to which special exception is taken, namely, the proposal to prescribe text-books not only in the different languages of the Province, but also in the different dialects prevailing in different districts. The object which the Committee, which was appointed to report on this subject, had before them was to simplify Primary Education for the rural population, to render the text-books and means of instructions more intelligible to country people. I need not refer to the altogether baseless insinuation that there was any intention of breaking up the languages of Bengal, and of establishing what has been figuratively called an educational tower of Babel. The object of the Committee was entirely sound. Whether their proposal was sound or not is another question. The judgment may have been at fault. In regard to that point, as well as in regard to other features of the scheme, the frankest criticism was invited by

the Government. The remarks which have been made by Hon. members to-day will be carefully considered in connection with the many other temperate representations which have been received in regard to this matter; and I earnestly trust that we shall be led to a decision which will be to the advantage of the people and commend itself to the intelligent sentiment of those who are interested in education.

PUNJAB.

THE D. P. I. of Punjab notifies that the "General Geography" of Indian Schools, by W. H. Arden Wood (Macmillan), has been prescribed as a text-book in Geography in place of the present text-book—"Manual of Geography" (C. V. E. S.)—in the Entrance Classes of all Government and Board Anglo-Vernacular Schools of this Province. The price of the book is Re. 1-8-0.

THE Amritsar Temperance Society having requested permission to deliver Magic Lantern Lectures in Schools and Boarding-houses, the D. P. I. of Punjab approves on the understanding that care is taken that the matter of the lectures is free from objection on political or other grounds.

THE following circular letter has been sent by the Director of Public Instruction:

I have the honour to inform you that, owing to the abolition of the Anglo-Vernacular Middle School Examination, the following changes have been made in the current edition of the Punjab Education Code.

504. Boys will be entitled to promotion from the Promotion from Upper Primary to the Middle Department on passing the Upper Primary Examination in the compulsory subjects, and, in the case of Anglo-Vernacular candidates, in English also.

In special cases boys who have not passed this examination may be promoted with the sanction of the Inspector, or, in the case of schools inspected by the District Inspector, of the latter officer, subject to any instructions that may be issued by the Inspector or Assistant Inspector.

NOTE.—As the Infant and Lower Primary Standard Examinations, as tests to be applied by Inspecting Officers to individual scholars, are no longer held in Boys' Schools, Headmasters are required to apply these standards strictly in both cases, giving promotion to the higher Departments accordingly, subject to the approval of the Inspecting Officer, the examination schedules being kept for that officer's information. Similarly, owing to the abolition of the Anglo-Vernacular Middle School Examination as a Public Examination, Head Masters of Anglo-Vernacular Schools are empowered, subject to the veto of the Inspector, to promote scholars from the Third Middle Class to the High Department on the results of their own House Examina-

tions. Scholars passing their Third Middle Class Examination from an Anglo-Vernacular School of the Middle Grade can enter the High Department of any High School provided they have received a Leaving Certificate on which the fact of their having passed the Examination is noted.

For "the First and Second Middle Classes" in the second line of the Note to Article 506, read "the First and Second Middle Classes of all Schools, whether Vernacular or Anglo-Vernacular, and the Third Middle Class of Anglo-Vernacular Schools only."

Foreign Notes.

Canon Lyttleton, Headmaster of Haileybury, has been elected Headmaster of Eton.

THE Oxford University Press promises immediately "Jowett's Translation of Aristotle's Politics," and two volumes of "Select Documents illustrative of the History of the French Revolution (May, 1789, to September, 1791)."

MESSRS. METHUEN announce a new and cheaper edition of Mr. L. T. Hobhouse's able work, "The Theory of Knowledge," and of the second volume of Prof. Oman's History of the Art of War" (fourth to fourteenth century.)

MEMBERS of University College, London, at the annual meeting, on the 22nd, approved the Bill for transferring the College to the University of London. Seventeen thousand pounds are still required to make up the £200,000 which is a necessary condition of incorporation. The latest gift is one of £1,000 from the Fishmongers' Company.

INNOVATION on established University programmes seems the order of the day. It has reached Scotland where Professor Darroch, of Edinburgh, proposes that the Universities should introduce the B.A. degree—hitherto unknown north of the Tweed. It is suggested that this degree should be given at the end of an Arts course in which Latin (or "Humanity" as the Scotch quaintly call it) should not be a necessary subject of the final examination.—*University Correspondent.*

Is there too much "lecturing" in our Schools? Many authorities think that there is, and Miss Penstone offers several considerations in support of this view in the current *Teachers' Guild Quarterly*: "I fear it sounds something like heresy to say that there is a danger of the personality of the teacher being too much exhausted, so to speak in giving oral lessons. Yet I cannot but feel that some of the vitality, the wisdom and the other gifts of the teacher might often be more profitably spent in teaching the use of books. (I am speaking now of older pupils.) The reaction against the old system

of making the pupil memorise the book has, I think, gone too far. The teacher has devoted himself or herself to the "getting-up" of lessons to be "given" to the pupils.

This is an enormous strain upon the teacher who gives four or five such lessons everyday, and I doubt whether the child derives proportionate benefit. The second-hand description, or narration, even if the teacher were more than ordinarily forcible and ready is likely to be much less vivid than the original, provided that it be well read. And following a teacher's exposition is apt to be less bracing than the dissection of a paragraph or page, with the teacher's challenges and comments to stimulate him to extract the sense for himself.

The continual sitting at banquet of oral lessons breeds in a class a habit of taking things easily, of enjoying, as connoisseurs, the teacher's performances without much strain on their own powers. The minds of such pupils become alert and critical—they are excellent judges of good teaching, but the sense of effort is weakened. Later on they will frequent the popular lecture instead of following the better course recommended by Dr. Johnson—reading a book by their own fire side. When they do read, they will read what is easy—a fatal tendency for which the masses of things in books' clothing make ample provision.—*University Correspondent.*

A CORRESPONDENT WRITES: The absurd confusion that exists in the minds of educated people in regard to the number of a collective noun is amusingly illustrated in the Resolution on the Police Commission Report. Mr. Risley is apparently unable to make up his mind whether a Government "is" or "are." The Government of India, of course, officially is always plural—by order; and there may perhaps be a notion abroad that a provincial Government should always be in the singular, so that the distinction in importance and authority may be marked, delicately and without offence. But this theory will not altogether bear being tested by means of the Resolution in question. Thus, while the mention of the Madras Government is usually accompanied with a plural verb, the Bombay Government is in an indeterminate position, while the Governments of Bengal and the other provinces are generally, or always, put in the singular. The fact seems to be that the abandonment of the older and simpler form of the collective singular has brought an irritating confusion, not only into official documents and newspapers, but into colloquial speech as well. It may be tolerable to read or hear that the Government or the Committee "say," but when it comes to "the office say" or "the railway say," the English language would seem to have got into a very bad way indeed.—*Statesman and Friend of India.*

FOR the following extract from the *Tit-bits* we are indebted to the *School Guardian*:

Westminster boys have a right to claim that six seats at least shall each day be devoted to their special use in the Gallery of the House of Commons. However important the debate, however great the crowd of influential folks who cannot get in for want of room in the galleries set apart for visitors, those six seats for the Westminster boys must be kept, if required. The boys who are clever and fortunate enough to win the very valuable foundation scholarships at Westminster have the right to call themselves—after the reigning monarch—"King's" or "Queen's" scholars accordingly, and do so. Their scholarships are worth at least 80l. a year for five years. The King's scholars at Westminster have a right to be present in the Abbey at the Coronation of all English Sovereigns. This right has been in vogue since Elizabeth's time. Therefore there had to be arranged seats in the nave of the Abbey for the boys at King Edward's Coronation.

The Westminster boys have the right to be the first subjects in the Abbey at the Coronation to hail the Sovereign about to be crowned. As he or she passes up the nave the whole of the boys must shout out in Latin the formula arranged, which was, in 1902, "Long live King Edward and Queen Alexandra!" They, through the captain of the school, have the right to be the first subjects of the monarch to hail him or her after the crown is placed on the head by the Archbishop. As soon as this is done the Westminster captain cries out, in English, "Long live the King!"—and this was done by Mr. Wilfred Green, the then captain, in 1902—after which all the other King's scholars shout the same, and then the peers of the realm and the rest of the Abbey throng take up the cry.

The Westminster scholars in residence can claim the right—and often do—to promenade on the Terrace of the House of Commons during the Sunday afternoons of school terms. This is a favourite walk of the boys, whose "bounds" are somewhat restricted owing to the situation of the school. Nor is it generally known that Westminster School is entitled, alone of all public schools, to have its daily services in Latin, and this is carried out in at least one service each day for the King's scholars. Still less is it known that the school has the right and privilege of holding, on an appointed day each year, a full choral service in the Abbey entirely in Latin, and this service annually takes place.

The Educational Review.

We gladly call the attention of our readers to the announcement that **Empire Day** the Celebration of the 24th.

Empire Day will come off on the 24th May next. It is a pity that the day should be fixed so late in May when all Schools and Colleges will be closed for the summer vacation. We did not hear of the Celebration in Indian Schools last year and we are afraid there is little chance of these Schools joining in such a Celebration this year because of the summer recess. If the plan should commend itself, we would suggest that the Celebration might be fixed for Indian Schools some time in July when Schools and Colleges would have resumed work.

The Celebration will plant in young men in their most susceptible period the idea of the oneness of the country with the Empire, and the increasing consciousness of such an oneness among the rulers and the ruled alike in India will be productive of the greatest good to both. Whether the English self-governing colonies have been doing all they might to promote such a feeling among us, whether elsewhere all has been done that can be done towards such an object is matter for serious consideration by gentlemen like the Earl of Meath and all interested in making the Empire Day fruitful of good. Without going further into the question we will content ourselves with suggesting that if the subject population are to take a real pride in the connection, they should be made to feel that they are of the same family, and they according to their capacity share in the family privileges.

More than ordinary interest attaches to **The Convocation Address, Madras University.** Mr. Bilderbeck's address because it is likely to be all but the last pronouncement on University and educational matters made on the eve of retirement by the Principal of the Premier College in South India. As regards the work of the University, the tone is one of gratulation for past achievement and of hopefulness about the future. The hortatory part of the address is characterised by sympathy and such remonstrance as there is, is almost paternal in its solicitude not to hurt the susceptibilities of the audience.

Among the remedies suggested to mitigate **Examination** the evil of examinations is sickness and its cure. one that has been commended by us in an earlier number. We are glad to have the high authority of Mr. Bilderbeck in support of the plan. We wished that something might be done to make the candidate's success depend not only on the work of the examination-week but also on the work done throughout the course, extending to all examinations the principle that guides the authorities in regulating the success of the local Engineering College students. Mr. Bilderbeck suggests that the University might co-operate with the Colleges in the conduct of their own examinations and treat them as University Examinations. This would have a truly beneficent effect and make the examinations really do what they must do—test the soundness of the work done.

The Universities Commission Report after considering the question of **The Honours Degree.** examination for Honours recommended that there should be no separate Honours Course and that the M.A. Degree examination should be

regarded as the Honours Degree. Mr. Bilderbeck, however, recommends that in view of the depreciated B.A. Degree, a separate Honours Course should be instituted. The effect will be what has happened at Calcutta. The pass degree will sink in value and the 'B.A.' will be in worse odour than before. The question of which college or colleges should be allowed the privilege of having the Honours Course is one beset with difficulties. And these very difficulties were referred to in the discussions preceding the Universities Enactment. So all things considered, we would leave the degrees as they stand. We would recognise, if the foreign Universities would assume airs, that the B.A. is the termination of a merely Secondary Education (and that was the view held till recently of the English University degree by the continental critics) and we would have an M.A. course of two or three years organised by the University and taught by the University Professors and the thesis may be made an integral part of the student's work. The work of gradually elevating the standard of teaching of the colleges must necessarily react on the examinations and the 'depreciated' B.A. may be 'appreciated.' A sudden transformation of the 'B.A.' and the institution of an inferior, Brummagem article or what would be looked upon as such would involve too radical a change. We may suggest that improvement may go on independent lines in India and there is no need to copy wholesale Oxford or Cambridge. We are the more particular on this matter because we think with Prof. Morison that for the sake of the material progress of the people we must have an abundance of colleges in which an education approximately equivalent to that of the present B.A. classes can be given. With the limited resources available, we cannot have the present number of colleges teaching for the B.A. degree as also colleges teaching the 'Honours' Course.

As to the general desirability of the affiliated colleges acting harmoniously together and promoting the work of the University as a whole there can be no difference of opinion. We shall be in a position to understand the value of the suggestion when it takes concrete shape. Till then there is no need to grow flurried over evils that seem to lurk in vague phraseology.

The complaint has been made that the Indian does not take to **Research Work and Libraries and Museums.** research work and that he has not made that contribution to human knowledge that he may be expected to make. The critics forget the limitations under which the Indian has to work. Stinting of opportunities, limiting of responsibilities, curtailing of resources are not the most direct ways of promoting a spirit of research or a spirit of sound scholarship among the Indians. We would put it frankly whether in cases where they were given any chance they have not distinguished themselves. Give the Indian inspiring ideals, do not stint him opportunities of doing good work, and let the Universities make available for him libraries and laboratories for pursuing special studies and then take him to task if he shows himself incapable of research. As things are, the conditions of work are for the capable Indian truly depressing. We need not dwell on this further. We think it is a little too premature to pronounce on the limitations of Indian capacity to produce works showing originality or research sound work. A little more of genial sunshine, a little more of manuring, a little more of improvement of the atmosphere, and we shall have sprouts from the stock and flowers and fruits in due season.

There is wisdom and economy in the suggestion of Mr. Bilderbeck's or of the University Committee's that the existing facilities for studies should be availed of and the funds of the University should add to these facilities. The Connemara Library may be converted into a really effective University Library and the Museum be also made a useful University adjunct. We daresay the Committee, composed as it is of the pick of the new Senate, will have its recommendations ready at no distant date, and then we may be in a position to judge of the really significant part of the Universities Act.

Mr. Bilderbeck's words on the subject of criticism were kindly meant and we trust the public took his words in the spirit that induced the utterance. Bishop Butler's words as to the futility of all complaint express most nearly our own views on the subject. Things being what they are, their consequences must be as they must be. Still we might wish for a little more charity on each side and a little less readiness to take offence where no offence is meant. The strong, in the plenitude of their strength, may perhaps be expected to take a more considerate view of the matter than seems to be the fashion. It is a truism, all the same one that it would be wholesome for all of us to remember and act by, that responsibilities are proportioned to capacities.

It was refreshing to witness the interest evinced by the non-official members of the Legislative Council in the cause of education. They at least do not need the advice given by Mr. R. S. Lepper to the lawyers at Trivandram—which is reproduced elsewhere.

We suggested some time back that the claims of qualified teachers outside the department might be considered with advantage in filling vacancies in the Department and we wished also that no huckstering spirit, only too common in private schools, should be shown in engaging these men. The Hon'ble Mr. Srinivasa Rao advocates the same policy and we hope due consideration will be given to his words, when there are vacancies in the Department. The question of age restriction must not be allowed to interfere with any such appointments. The only question to think of is that of fitness for work.

When the Hon'ble Mr. Sivaswami Aiyer complained of there being no High School for Girls, the Hon'ble Dr. Bourne called his attention to the High School attached to the Presidency Training School for Mistresses. We are glad to learn that the Director is disposed to view favourably the development of the existing schools in Mailapur and Triplicane into High Schools should there be a demand for it. So the remedy rests in the parents' hands. If they are prepared to educate their daughters to higher standards and if they signify their wishes through the proper channel they can have no difficulty in getting what they want.

That private educational service under present conditions is by no means attractive is, we venture to say, a well-recognised fact. It is natural for the employer to take advantage of his superior position and make the most of the necessitous state of his employees. Mind, we do not say that it is just or even wise in the long run. But to clever business people justice and far-seeing wisdom are pale ab-

stractions. The immediate and tangible profits of a bargain are all in all in their eyes, and though their theory sometimes includes, their practice is seldom affected by, the doctrine that the cheapest services are dear if they be not cheerfully, loyally, and contentedly rendered. There are professions in which the mental attitude of the workman towards his work may not visibly tell on its quality or quantity; but in the teaching profession a feeling of cheerfulness and contentment is a *sine qua non* of efficiency. How few are the managers that are anxious that their staffs should be proud of their institutions, loyal to them, and prepared to identify themselves with them? No wonder school staffs change so frequently, and few institutions, even among those that are supposed to be very good, can boast of any continuity in the personnel of their teachers.

We recently heard of a Second-grade College in the Mofussil which lost in the course of twelve months as many as fifteen teachers by resignation, voluntary or forced. It is perhaps also true that teachers take up service lightly and leave it as lightly. Such a state of things naturally provokes additional strictness on the part of managers who feel it necessary to impose hard conditions as to work, leave, notice, &c. Written agreements are becoming common nowadays. Still it cannot be said that there are any well-understood practices or rules of the profession which a court of law would recognise. The agreements therefore between managers and teachers differ widely as to their terms and general tendency. In a few cases where the institutions are new ventures or have not earned a good reputation, teachers are able to obtain favourable terms. But where the institutions are of long standing, the managers

get the best of it. For instance, we happen to have before us the Rules and Regulations of a large and flourishing institution which employs a numerous staff. The conditions are distinctly hard on the teachers, while the scale of salaries is by no means tempting. One of the conditions is as follows:—

"That he (the teacher) will not, of his own act, leave the service of * * * during the course of the school year, viz., 1st January to 31st December, and then, only provided he shall have given notice of his intention to do so, on or before 30th September preceding, failing which it will be understood, unless he receives notice from the manager or the Headmaster to the contrary, that he has engaged for a fresh calendar year to be reckoned from the 1st January following. For disobedience of this rule, the teacher will, in addition to remedies available under the law, have to pay three months' salary, as liquidated damages, to the three persons in whose names the teacher's contract stands executed, or any one of them, or the assigns or representatives of any one or all of them." This means that no teacher can leave the institution except after three months' notice given before the 1st October or unless he is prepared to pay a penalty of three months' salary. Some teachers, we hear, have already paid this penalty and quitted. In the actual contract each teacher has further to agree that "the manager shall be the sole judge of the true meaning and import of the terms of this contract and all the aforesaid Rules and Regulations for Teachers and Writers of * * * as well as of all disputes that may arise in the performance of this contract." We much wonder what sort of dispute can arise between two parties one of whom has agreed in writing that the other shall be the sole judge in all

matters. Is such a provision legally or morally defensible? Of course no person is worthy of respect who, having with his eyes open entered into such a contract, tries to repudiate it or avail himself of any pleas that the technicalities of law may afford him. But we desire to draw attention to the low estate into which the teaching profession must have fallen if men can be found willing to sign away their judgment and liberty in this manner, and a large institution finds it necessary and possible to exact such promises from candidates for employment. In fact the whole question of teachers' contracts deserves to be carefully discussed from the legal point of view as well as from that of public expediency.

In the particular case to which we have alluded, it ought in fairness to be added that another rule provides that, unless a teacher is dismissed for some fault or delinquency of which again the Manager shall be the sole judge, "a teacher, once taken on the establishment, shall not have his services dispensed with, without three months' previous notice given to him, such period of three months expiring with the end of the school year as defined herein above; provided always, that by mutual consent, the manager shall have the option of dispensing with the teacher's services, after the expiry of three months' previous notice, at any time during the year." Though we have thought it our duty to mention this, we think it scarcely mitigates the intrinsic hardship of the contract to teachers.

We understand that the Registrar of our University has sent to all Head-masters copies of a Report prepared for the purpose by Mr. J. A. Yates who was Chief Examiner in English History, &c., for last year's

Matriculation. The teaching profession will no doubt thank Mr. Yates for setting such an example and wish that it should be largely followed in future years. The suggestion has been made in the *Review* that the writing of such reports should be made obligatory on all University Examiners; but till a rule is passed by the Syndicate to that effect, individual examiners who feel that teachers would be the wiser for their reports may well do what Mr. Yates has done.

Elsewhere in this number are reprinted the new Bengal Rules regarding the constitution of certain School Committees. Visiting and Managing Committees.

These are of two kinds, Visiting Committees for Government, Board and Municipal Schools, and Managing Committees for Aided Schools. The first set of schools, maintained by public funds and managed by Government or quasi-Governmental bodies, are to be kept up to the mark by the watchfulness of advisory Committees who shall visit the schools at least once a quarter. Their functions are confined to the offering of advice for the consideration of the school authorities and the officers of the Education Department. This is as it should be; but in order that the advice may carry weight and be of any real use in enforcing reform, the Committee-members must be men of independence, enlightenment, and enthusiasm. It is a wise provision that makes all people, not merely those that form the Managing Committees, eligible for membership of these Visiting Committees, for our Municipal Councils and District Boards, not being specially elected for educational purposes, have not been remarkable for zeal in the work of education. One cannot feel so sure of the propriety of giving the power of appointing these Committees to the Presidents

or Chairmen of the managing bodies, but it is difficult to suggest a better alternative.

With regard to Aided Schools under private management, the new rules are declared to be supplementary to the old rules, and we are not able, in ignorance of the existing rules, to say in what manner the proprietorship of institutions owned by individuals will be affected. If individual proprietorship should be abolished, it would be a sweeping change, though on the whole, and vested interests apart, it would result in a balance of advantage. But there are points that may be urged in favour of the proprietary system, and reinforced by legal difficulties, these are likely to render its abolition well-nigh impossible. The new Bengal Rules vest the management of the Aided Schools in Committees to which appointments should be made with the approval of the District Officer where the institutions are aided by Government and the Presidents or Chairman of Boards and Municipalities where these bodies afford the grants-in-aid. Such a provision would in Madras evoke some outcry though it is likely in most cases to have a salutary effect. It is worthy of note that the rules require the appointment of an Auditor besides a Chairman and a Secretary. We should even welcome a rule compelling these managing bodies to be registered under the Charitable Endowments Act. An attempt is likewise made to demarcate the province of the Headmaster from that of the managing body, and though the attempt is not beyond criticism, we are glad it is on wholesome lines and may be commended to the attention of managers in Madras who do not seem to have any clear notions on the subject. We hope the whole question will one day come up for departmental adjudication, but meantime it will be of some use to transcribe here and commend for adoption

the rule regarding the treatment of the staff. "In all cases of appointment, promotion, and removal of the staff, the Head-master's opinion should be on record and the Committee should always record reasons for removal, punishment, stoppage of promotion, and supersession of the staff."

We expect similar rules will be passed by the Madras Government, but should like to point out that it would be an advantage to invite public opinion on the draft rules before finally adopting them.

It is no wonder that the country has received with unmixed satisfaction the news that the Primary Education.

Supreme Government has granted large sums to Provincial Governments for the purpose of being spent on Primary Education. It is devoutly hoped that the efforts of Government in every part of India in this direction may be nobly seconded by the public. We fear that our men of light and leading are not yet fully awakened to their duty in the matter of spreading elementary knowledge among the masses. If we put aside pious wishes and airy suggestions, the active efforts of individuals and the slight benefactions that education receives are confined to the more attractive fields, viz., secondary and collegiate education. Sufficient recognition has not been given to the fact that Government, though aided by Local Boards, cannot for a long time to come cope by itself with the enormous demands of primary education. Local patriotism and local self-sacrifice are indispensable, if India is ever to have an instructed people. One of the tremendous obstacles to the spread of elementary education in villages is to be found in the circumstance that the growth of towns is diverting wealth and charity from the rural

parts. But even in these favoured spots there are entire classes unaffected by the educational efforts of the present day; and as we said once before, the dawn of a new hope for India must be looked for only when the upper few of the inhabitants of our larger cities shall have recognised it as their first duty to afford the means of elementary instruction to their poorer fellow-townsmen.

Rural Schools are now very much talked of everywhere after the publication of the Central Provinces Report; but as Dr. Bourne pointed out in the Madras Legislative Council it is quite possible that Mr. Sharp's report, being brightly written, gives a more roseate picture of the Rural Schools of those Provinces than the actualities would warrant or perhaps the Report itself was meant to convey. However we should favour the idea of sending out a small commission of two or three of our young and enthusiastic educational officers to visit the Rural Schools in the Central Provinces and observe what might prove of use to Madras. Increased attention is everywhere to be given to the training of teachers for the primary schools, and we are glad that the Madras Government intends to make the period of training extend over two years so as to afford time for the imparting of some general education as well to would-be teachers. The Inspecting staff has been added to so that each primary school will be visited twice, and not alone for the purpose of a grant-in-aid examination. It is gratifying that the question of raising the salary of the primary schoolmaster has received its share of attention. H.E. Lord Ampthill made a distinct reference to it, though a regular scheme was not outlined. Sir Andrew Fraser, while enumerating the main heads of increased expenditure, strangely enough omitted this matter of salaries, but we daresay

it was not a designed omission. The Conference of Departmental Officers in Mysore, whose proceedings are published elsewhere, have ventured to make a strong recommendation to the effect "that the pay and the status of Village Schoolmasters may be improved by fixing a scale of pay like the following:—Rs. 7, 10, 12, 15, and 20." What a vast sum would be required if in our Presidency such a scale were to be adopted in all Primary Schools, even those that are run by school-farmers! But what is not possible here may be practicable in Mysore; or we should not find a Conference of State officers making such a proposal in all seriousness.

83, LANCASTER GATE, W.,
5th April, 1905.

SIR,

May I be permitted, through your columns, to draw the attention of your readers to the near approach of "Empire Day," May 24th, and to express the hope that if they observed the day last year they will do so on this occasion with even greater enthusiasm, inasmuch as since that date the Commonwealth of Australia has signified its intention of joining the movement, thus completing the link of celebration, which on May 24th, will unite all the self-governing Colonies, and practically all the Crown Colonies, with the Mother Country.

If any of your readers did not observe the day last year, it is to be hoped that they will make a special effort to do so on May, 24th next. It is especially desirable that the day should be kept in schools, so that the rising generation may be associated with their elders in the hymns of praise and of thanksgiving which should on that day rise to Him in Whose hands rests the fate of all Empires and of all Peoples.

"EMPIRE DAY,"

May 24th, 1904.

ST. JAMES'S HALL, LONDON.

ADDRESS BY THE EARL OF MEATH.

MY LORDS, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN,—

To-day we meet to celebrate "Empire Day." What are the objects we have in view, and what are the ideas embodied in these two simple words? In the first place, we may say at once that the ideas of the promoters of "Empire Day" have absolutely nothing in common with the condition of mind popularly known as "Jingoism." We desire no aggrandisement of the British Empire for aggrandisement sake. We do not believe that the honour of the nation, or the respect due to the flag, can be in any way augmented by wars carried on for mere military glory, nor do we desire to flaunt the glorious Standard, "which has braved a thousand years the battle and the breeze," defiantly in the face of any potentate or people. We wish to live in peace and amity with the whole world. We desire that the 400 Million people who owe allegiance to our beloved Sovereign King Edward VII., shall set the world an example of how righteousness exalteth a nation; but to enable us to do this, we believe that these 400 Million should be united not only in name, but in every deed and truth, by all the bonds which can truly unite a free-enlightened and loyal people. There is no occasion for boasting. It is only the weak who need to boast. We are conscious of the magnificence and power of our Empire, of its absolutely unique character, of its extent and almost boundless resources, of the loyalty of its populations, of the unrivalled freedom and liberty of person enjoyed by them,—all these things we know. There is no occasion to recapitulate them constantly but it is well occasionally to remember that

Not only on "Empire Day," but systematically, day by day, throughout the year, instruction in all matters which are of mutual interest to the subjects of King Edward VIIth should be given to the scholars of the Empire, and stress should be laid upon the duties and responsibilities which attach to British Citizenship.

Annexed you will find some Papers which I trust may make clear the inner spirit of the movement, and some suggestions in regard to the manner in which it is thought the day may appropriately be celebrated.

It has been suggested that the National Flag be hoisted on May 24th, on Churches, Chapels, Places of Worship, Public Buildings, Schools, and Private Dwellings throughout the Empire, and that the Clergy of all denominations be invited on Sunday, May 21st, to allude to the coming celebrations in their Sermons and Addresses, and to impress on their congregations that righteousness alone exalteth a nation, that no empty boasting should enter into the programme of the day, but that every effort should be made to quicken the public sense of Imperial, of national, of civic, and of private duty.

I have the honour to be, Sir,
Your obedient Servant,
MEATH.

Annexed: 1. Address by the Earl of Meath, May, 24th, 1904

2. Suggested Programme for "Empire Day."

that the blessings which an all-wise and all-knowing Providence has thought fit to bestow upon us may take unto themselves wings, and fly to other nations, should we prove unworthy of the trust reposed in us. Empires have risen, and Empires have disappeared from the face of the earth, but if we examine the cause of their disruption, we shall find, almost invariably, that it has been owing to internal decay rather than to outward shock. Let us therefore take warning, and see that this glorious Empire of ours, which occupies 11 million square miles, is to be found in all the five continents of the Globe, is peopled by 400 million souls, covers more than one-fifth of the habitable globe, and which claims about one-fourth of the entire population of the world, shall not suffer hurt by internal disruption or decay. What are the principal causes of internal decay and disruption as exemplified by the fate of other Empires? 1. Spiritual and moral atrophy in the body politic, leading to public and private corruption, to immorality, and to lack of public spirit. 2. The growth of enervating luxury and of the spirit of selfishness, making men and women soft, weakening their minds and bodies, making them careless of the rights and wants of others, and inclined to subordinate the public to selfish or class interests. 3. Want of interest in, and adequate knowledge of, the affairs of the Commonwealth, thus placing the masses at the mercy of clever and unscrupulous men, seeking their own private interest to the detriment of the general welfare. These are a few of the causes which have led to the decay and fall of nations. Are we quite sure that already there are not signs that some of the seeds of the above causes of decay have been sown in our midst? If so, let us endeavour to eradicate them in time. In youth the mind is more especially malle-

able and open to receive the impression either of noble and elevating ideas and sentiments, or of the reverse. Therefore, the principal hopes of the promoters of "Empire Day," by fixing on one day in the year in which the attention of all men, women and children shall be called to the consideration of matters common to all subjects of King Edward VII., are, that throughout all the Colleges and Schools of the Empire stress should be laid, by lecturers and teachers, on the duties and responsibilities attaching to the noble privilege of British Citizenship, and that no pains shall be spared to inculcate on the minds of all, but especially of the young, the importance of acquiring a thorough knowledge of the history, extent, power, and resources of the great Empire to which they belong, of the conditions, moral and physical, which rule in the different portions of that Empire of the nature, the climates of productions, commerce, trade, and manufactures, and of the characteristics, religion, customs and habits of thought of the various races, people, creeds and classes which owe a common allegiance to King Edward VII. If in youth knowledge be obtained and interest be aroused in regard to the Empire, there is little fear that prejudice or that the wiles of ill-disposed men shall be able to prevent the growth of that friendly, and even affectionate feeling between all sections of the British Empire, which must be the ardent desire of all true patriots, and of those animated by the Christian Spirit of peace and good-will towards men. The inculcation into the minds of the youth of the nation of such noble and inspiring sentiments, as those of loyalty to a common Sovereign, of patriotism towards a common Empire, of self-sacrificing devotion towards fellow-citizens of a State enjoying

the rights of freedom and of personal liberty in a greater degree than the inhabitants of even the most advanced Republics, cannot fail to have in a few years, as these youths and maidens grow to manhood and womanhood an almost incalculable effect on the direction of public and private affairs, leading to greater happiness amongst the people, to a better feeling between white and coloured men and women, between political parties, creeds and classes, and must inevitably tend towards the universal reign of righteous dealing between man and man, between nation and nation, and the advent of the time when peace and goodwill shall exist between all men upon earth. To-day, May 24th, is the anniversary of the birthday of our late revered and lamented Sovereign, Queen Victoria. It was during her beneficent reign that the British Empire attained in great measure to its present vast extent. It was during the period of her glorious rule that liberty and freedom, prosperity and wealth, that righteous and equitable government, grew and grew within the confines of her dominions, until the British Empire won the universal admiration of its friends, became the terror of its enemies, and the envy of the world. It was thought, and I think most will agree with the opinion, that a more suitable day could not well have been found. It has won the approval of, and has been adopted as "Empire Day" by all the separate Governments of Canada, by 22 other Colonies and Dependencies, including five out of the six self-governing Colonies, and has been accepted at home by the Educational Committees of nine Counties, of 22 Boroughs, and four Urban District Councils, as well as by the authorities connected with some 180 separate schools and institutions. The above figures represent thousands of schools, besides large numbers of official bodies, which

X

are celebrating the occasion at this moment throughout the Dominions of the King, and there can be no doubt that there are many other official bodies, schools and institutions which have not sent in their names to me, but are, nevertheless, keeping "Empire Day" as enthusiastically as we are. This may be said to be the first year in which there has been any attempt made to make the celebration of "Empire Day" general at home, though it has been kept by some of the Colonies in former years. The whole system of education in this country has lately undergone a complete change entailing the election of entirely new authorities. Many of these official bodies are not yet installed in office. Others have only recently commenced their duties, and have therefore been unable to turn their attention to the celebration of "Empire Day." Let us confidently hope that next year there will be a much more general recognition of the day, and that all Educational Authorities will not be content with merely making preparation for the due celebration of the day next year, but will instruct their teachers to commence systematic instruction of their scholars during the whole course of the year, so that the purport of the celebration may be more thoroughly understood, and may tend to more profitable results than it is likely to do on this occasion. As one of the objects of the promoters of "Empire Day" is to promote the Christian sentiment of peace and goodwill towards men, it is hardly necessary to express the most earnest hope that the greatest care will be taken to introduce nothing into the proceedings which could in the least be interpreted as hurtful to the feelings of any man or nation. Finally, I shall express the hope that all who hear my words this day will use their best endeavours to promote, before the advent of May 24th in next year,

the inner spirit of the movement amongst their neighbours and fellow subjects, and thus advance, not only the interests of the British Empire, but the cause of righteousness and the general happiness of the human race, for we firmly believe that the influence of so vast an Empire as that of Britain cannot fail to have an immense effect either for good or for evil upon the entire inhabited world.

"Unite the Empire—make it stand compact,
Shoulder to shoulder, let its members feel
The touch of British brotherhood, and act
As one great nation,—strong and free as steel."

"EMPIRE DAY."

SUGGESTED PROGRAMME.

- 1.—Assembly of Local Dignitaries, Officials, Military, Volunteers, Cadet Corps, or Schools.
- 2.—Hoisting of the Union Jack.
- 3.—National Anthem.
- 4.—"Saluting the Flag" and singing of the "Flag of Britain" (*Published at One*

Penny a copy by A. J. S. MADDISON,
32, Charing Cross, London).

- 5.—An Address on the duties and responsibilities attaching to British Citizenship.
- 6.—A short Lecture on the Empire, illustrated by the *"Howard Vincent" or "Navy League" Map.
- 7.—A Lecture illustrated by Magic Lantern views of some Colony or Dependency of the Empire.
- 8.—The Recitation of some Poem illustrative of heroic duty and of self-sacrifice on behalf of the Nation.
- 9.—The Recitation of Rudyard Kipling's Recessional Hymn, "Lest we forget."
- 10.—The National Anthem and final salute.

*Messrs. W. & A. K. JOHNSTON, of 7, Paternoster Square, E.C., state that Sir HOWARD VINCENT has written a short lecture, entitled: "Through the British Empire in a few minutes," suitable for the celebration of "Empire Day."

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BEING

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MICHEL DE MONTAIGNE.

II.

THOSE who consider Montaigne's educational theory look for it as a rule in the famous 25th Essay of the 1st Book, addressed to the Comtesse de Gurson, on the education of children. There, he sets himself deliberately to work to think out a plan, though he is careful to avow his complete unfitness for any such task; "I see better than any one else can, that what I have set down is nought but the fond imagination of him, who in his youth tasted nothing but the gearing, and seen nothing but the superficialities of learning! whereof he hath retained but a general shapeless form: a smack of everything in general, but nothing to the purpose in particular." But in many other essays, hints and suggestions upon education may be found. It is only possible here to dwell upon his main points, taking them from the essays in such a way as to present an orderly plan, rather than to preserve the order of the essays.

As a preliminary then to the best method of education, we may notice the reason he gives for any education at all. In the 8th Essay of the 1st Book, that on Idleness, he writes:—"Just as we may see untilled fields, which are naturally rich and fertile, yielding innumerable kinds of rank and useless

XI

"weeds, and just as, if we wish to use such fields, we are forced to bring them under cultivation, and to sow them with useful seeds, so it is exactly with human minds. If we do not keep these employed on some subject which curbs and guides them, they wander at random, now here, now there, in the vague realm of fancy."

Erasmus, we may remember, did not despise painted mottoes, copy-book maxims, inscriptions on cups as instruments of education. If there be anyone of his way of thinking now-a-days, the dictum which follows the above passage might serve as timely suggestion in schools:—"The mind which has no fixed aim comes to ruin, for, as it has been well said, to be everywhere is to be nowhere."

In the 24th Essay of the 1st Book, Montaigne attacks the current *pedantry* of his day. Quoting from Rabelais a motto, which was not original in words—since Chaucer had remarked in the Reeve's Tale "the gretest clerks ben not the wisest men"—nor in sense as Heraclitus, many ages earlier, had declared that "much learning does not teach sense," still, quoting from Gargantua the well-worn phrase "magis magnos clericos non sunt magis magnos sapientes," Montaigne proceeds to wonder how it can be that sometimes a "stored mind," is so "futile," while "one poor in knowledge may be excellent in judgment." It does not seem to occur to

42

him just there that there is such a phenomenon as difference of ability. And for our purpose, we may be glad that he throws the blame on education, because it indicates the way of escape from one of our own present day errors:—"I think it is better to say that 'this evil arises from the bad methods of education and that considering how we are taught it is not surprising that both 'scholars and tutors fail to become more able, 'though they may become more learned.' And he put his finger straight on the cause: "We only labour to fill the memory while we leave the understanding and the conscience empty."

We are not to suppose from this that Montaigne does not know how highly memory was valued in his day: evidently in saying this he is attacking a cherished power. In the Essay on Liars (I. 9) after announcing his own failure in this respect—"There can hardly be a man whom it would become more than myself to pretend to speak of memory, because when I make search within, I can scarcely find a trace of it, and I cannot imagine that any other creature can be so miraculously lacking in it,"—he goes on to refer to the high esteem in which his neighbours held it;—"in my part of the country if they want to say that a man has no intelligence, they say he has no memory."

Considering now recently born is the science of psychology, this clear distinction, drawn by Montaigne, is in itself a notable thing. But he proceeds to argue that lack of memory is an advantage: has certainly been one to him. It has saved him from ambition, "because a faulty memory is unpardonable in any one who entangles himself in mundane affairs:" it has made room for the growth of more useful powers, "if the ideas and opinions of other men had been brought before me constantly

by my memory, then, wresting and enfeebling my own mind and judgment, should have acceded supinely to other men's views: and finally it has preserved him from verbosity, if she (memory) had seconded my efforts, I should have deafened my friends with ceaseless chatter."

The particular vice of memory work, Montaigne goes on to tell us, is its essential *superficiality*. He illustrates this by a picture. We cannot imagine him, as he sat in his tower at Montaigne, remaining there always with his eyes glued upon a printed page, when all around him lay "the fat, noon-day Gascon scenery." Often enough one fancies that he lifted them and let them wander over the wide domains, and so was familiar with the scene he suggests for our learning:—"Even as birds 'flutter and skip from field to field to pick up corn or any grain, and without tasting 'the same carry it in their bills, therewith to 'feed their little ones; so do our pedantes glean and pick learning from books and 'never lodge it further than their lips, only to 'degorge and cast it to the wind. (Florio's Montaigne. I. XXIV).

This description sums up, picturesquely and suggestively, the whole drift of Montaigne's remarks on pedantry, or false knowledge:—"we take the opinions and knowledge of others into our protection and that is all: I tell you they must be enfeoffed in us and made our own." He proceeds to show how this system of borrowing follows us through life:—"Would I arm myself against the fear of 'death? I do it at Seneca's expense. Do I 'long for consolation for myself or for some 'other man? I borrow it from Cicero." And then comes the better way, "I could have relied on myself, had I only been trained to do so," and he adds with unwonted fire: "I do not like this relative begged provision."

It may be argued that the knowledge of the best of us is but "relative and begged": that Seneca and Cicero themselves depended for the stuff of knowledge upon the data of sense and the records of experience. But that does not touch the heart of Montaigne's position: he knows how dependent we all are for the material: he realises how much we all owe to our surroundings; but he requires of us a mental effort of some real and efficient sort, in response to the stimuli offered to our senses: he asks us to take all that, not merely into our memories, but, if one may so speak, into our judgments and understandings; he suggests to every human creature that what he calls his knowledge shall be something he has *made* for himself; not something he has picked up already shaped and fashioned, or something he has swallowed without an instant's reflection. After Montaigne, no one of us ought to be quite content at having "la souvenance assez pleine, mais le jugement entierement creux;" especially when we remember his settled conviction, "Sure I am we can never be wise, but by our own wisdom." And so without any hard terms or unfamiliar jargon we get in Montaigne some foreshadowing of the Herbartian doctrine of apperception.

And surely just because knowledge cannot be picked up ready made, just because it always must have something of each individual's own personality in it, it is reasonable that Montaigne should ask the teacher to approach each mind with a reference to its peculiarities, in a word should suit his discourse to his hearer. For in the XXVth Essay, we find this passage:—"Those which according to our common fashion, undertake with one selfsame lesson and like manner of education to direct many spirits of divers forms and

different humours, it is no marvel if among a multitude of children, they scarce meet with two or three that reap any good fruit by their discipline, or that come to any perfection." What would Montaigne think of our modern large classes, and somewhat mechanical methods of leading the horses to the water?

Closely allied to both these matters is Montaigne's objection to the learner being allowed to take things unnecessarily on trust:—"I would have him" (*i.e.*, the tutor) make his scholar sift all things narrowly with discretion, and harbour nothing in his head by mere authority, or upon trust. Truth and reason are common to all, and no more belong to him who said them first than to him who shall say them after."

We have to remember that Montaigne's aim was thoroughly practical: as he writes near the beginning of the XXVth Essay—"The good that comes of study (or at least should come) is to prove better, wiser, honester." Nor can we forget that famous remark towards the end of the same Essay, a remark which arose out of an encounter on the high road, "we seek to frame not a grammarian, nor a logician but a complete gentleman."

We sometimes fancy that "the divine men of old time," set too little store by observation and alertness. Now-a-days there is much talk about it, and very little of it one may be permitted to say. Montaigne at least saw the importance of being aware of one's surroundings:—"Warn him, being in company, to have his eyes everywhere."

There is yet another quality which Montaigne forbids his "complete gentleman" to possess. An Englishman would call it insularity: but Montaigne, a dweller on a conti-

ment, has no such descriptive term for it:—"all strangeness and idiosyncrasy in our manners and habits should be avoided as inimical to society," and he cites the flexibility of Alcibiades as a model to be copied.

Lest any one should think that Montaigne's scholar is set a difficult task, we may quote his recommendation as to necessary relaxation: Florio has rendered the passage so quaintly that it is worth quoting:—"Yet would I not have this young gentleman pent up, nor carelessly cast off to the needless choler, or melancholy humour of the hasty school-master. I would not have his budding spirit corrupted with keeping him fast-tied, and as it were labouring foureteene or fifteene houres a day, poaring on his booke as some doe, as if he were a day labouring man."

For in fact Montaigne evidently shares the belief of Erasmus that with more skill and discretion in the teacher, the learner's hours might be shorter, and his knowledge ampler. Montaigne's wise amalgam of tenderness and sternness is shewn in a short passage in this famous essay:—"I would have violence and force abolished: in my opinion nothing else so soon ruins and brutalizes a well-born nature. If you want him to fear shame and punishment do not harden him to them: but harden him to heat and cold; to wind and sun, to every danger which he ought to despise: take away all luxury and effeminacy in clothes and bedding, in drinking and eating"—(here we remember the advice of Æneas Sylvius that a prince should be hardened till he could "even eat beef," "harden him to all that, that he may not be a fine gentleman and a fop, but a strong vigorous youth."

The claim of originality in his treatment of psychological matters was made on Montaigne's behalf, above: he is not less a pioneer on the point of Ethics. The main contribution which he makes to this subject occurs in Book I, Essay IX, *On Liars*. No one can doubt that duplicity was most repugnant to this Gentleman of France, so quietly withdrawn in his "tower" from the devious ways of the world:—"In very truth, lying is a detestable vice. We are only men: we can only deal with one another by good faith. If we once realised its horror and importance, we should pursue it, and no other crime more justly, with fire and sword." A little later on, it occurs to him that there is a shorter way with this vice than fire and sword, namely, nipping it in the bud.

But the ethical interest lies in his analysis of lying. "I am perfectly aware," he writes, "that the Grammarians draw a distinction between uttering an untruth and lying. They hold that to utter an untruth is to say that which is in fact false, but which is taken (by the speaker) to be true, but that the etymological meaning of *mentiri* in Latin, whence our French word (*mentir*) is derived, implies that the speaker defies his conscience: and consequently applies only to those who say what they know to be false." If we read the 1st Essay of Book II, *Of the inconstancy of our actions*, we shall find that Montaigne practically applies the same distinction to all conduct; and it is this which marks him off from contemporary thinkers. The Italian humanists had cared greatly about good conduct: Rabelais desired by the inculcation of good habits and of religious practice to form a virtuous character: Colet in his true "recommendations" to his "lytell babes" of St. Paul's School, exalted the same ideal; Erasmus, notably in a letter to Luther,

esteemed conduct, "right temper," as the first of Christian duties. But Montaigne, true to his rôle of moral philosopher, is not content with upholding conduct as an aim, is not content even to prescribe the way of its achievement: but he goes on, like some pioneering Kant, to analyse its nature. What, he seems to ask, is the *quality* which distinguishes good conduct from bad: and he answers good conduct is obedience to conscience, to the inward light; bad conduct is defiance of conscience. The man is a responsible being; he, and he only, of mortal men can know himself, Montaigne implies in the Essay on Liars:—"Everywhere my own eyes suffice to keep me straight; no one else can watch me so closely as I watch myself; I respect no other opinion in this matter so much as my own." Montaigne is sometimes spoken of as if he were an *easy-going* philosopher: a sentence from Book I, Essay XXII may correct this error:—"One ought to teach children carefully to hate vice for its own sake: to teach them its inherent deformity; so that they may not only avoid it indeed, but from their hearts: that the very idea of vice, however it may garb itself, may be loathsome to them."

Just because Montaigne's rapier is as a rule so light and flashing, his heavier blows, like these, come with all the more persuasion. The moralist who perpetually breaks butterflies on the wheel, and shoots sparrows with cannon, has no arms left for the monsters of sin, no battery for the destruction of the fortified places of vice.

As we read these Essays, in the light of Montaigne's quiet studious life, a sense of *leisure* steals upon us. He returns over and over again to the same author, content to meditate upon him; in the 25th Essay, we get a glimpse of this patience, at times un-

rewarded palpably:—"When I have gone as far as I can, I have no whit pleased myself: for the further I sail the more land I descry, and that, so dimmed with fogs and overcast with clouds that my sight is so weakened, I cannot distinguish the same." But sometimes, and this as he reads history, his favourite subject, fortune favours his philosophic leisure and research: "I have read in Titus Livius a number of things, which peradventure others never read, in whom happy Plutarch read a hundred more than I could ever read, and which perhaps the author himself did never set down. To some kind of men it is a mere grammatical study, but to others a perfect anatomy of philosophy, by means whereof, the secretest fact of our nature is searched into."

If Montaigne taught modern men with their love of bustle, and their condonation of superficiality resulting from bustle, nothing but the wisdom of going slowly and surely, perhaps he would have taught them the most essential lesson of all.

Rabelais and Montaigne are sometimes called *Realists* in Education: but they are realists in slightly differing senses. Rabelais was a doctor of medicine, a scientific man; consequently he attaches much importance to physical nature; the tides, the heavens, the plants, the minerals hidden in the depths of the earth, and the manufactures of man. Montaigne lives *en grand seigneur*: he is a Magistrate, a courtier even when he cares to leave the depths of his rural peace: his "realities" then are found in human life; in the stuff of psychology and ethics, in history, in the actual commerce of society.

These suggestions are but a selection of those which can be culled from the "dazzling mosaic of the Essays." But time and space

are limited, they must, with one more, suffice. No account could be left without mention of Montaigne's insistence on the all-importance of habit; he quotes with approval Pindar's saying that custom is the Queen and Empress of all the world. But nothing further than his opening lines on this matter need be given: an ineffaceable picture is left by them on the mind:—"My opinion is that he conceived aright of the strength of habit, who first invented this tale: how a country-woman having accustomed herself to nurse a calf and carry it about in her arms, thereby formed such a habit, that she was able still to carry it when it had grown to be a great ox." After that it seems an anti-climax that he should add "my opinion is that there is nothing which habit does not or cannot do."

GERALDINE HODGSON.

A FEASIBLE CURRICULUM OF INSTRUCTION IN SOUTH INDIAN MUSIC.

ALL sound educationists are of opinion that those that are entrusted with the sacred charge of framing a course of studies for children should always have it in their minds that a regular provision is made for the acquisition of an elementary knowledge of all the subjects that would enable them to lead a complete life. On a reference to the course of studies provided for schools in civilized countries it is generally found that subjects such as Reading (of course including Writing), Elementary Mathematics, Elementary Science (in the shape of Object-lessons), Drawing, Music or Singing, History and Geography are laid down. Such is also the case in the Madras Presidency where we find in the syllabus framed for Lower Secondary forms in

schools under the control of the Education Department, several subjects such as Object-lessons, Geography, Singing, Arithmetic, Reading and Writing are prescribed either as optional subjects or as compulsory ones for the various classes or forms, Primary and Lower Secondary.

The subject that immediately concerns us is Music or Singing. In the syllabus, under this heading we find two items:—(a) for European Schools (b) for Native Schools.

As regards European Schools, I presume that a regular course of instruction in the European or Western system of Music has been specially drawn up by experts for the various classes.

Coming to the Native Schools, it was only very recently that the subject was regarded, thanks to the Educational authorities, as a subject worth being taught in a school along with other subjects. A pupil capable of learning and qualifying himself for the Elementary or the Intermediate Examination in Drawing can equally well be expected to learn his national music when he has ample opportunity to hear the same, sometimes from a street beggar, or from a Purana expounder, sometimes from a Kalakshepa lecturer or from a professional musician.

Again cannot a pupil of the VIth Form, able to comprehend the abstract principles of Arithmetic and to apply them and work out sums involving all the principles learnt, very easily grasp the principles of South Indian Music, few as they are?

Many have learnt the simple music of the South without undergoing these so-called systematic tuition. Some of them have spent their half-hours and learnt the same; nay, have become conversant with the details of this subject.

Which is the portion of the Presidency where this system of music is mostly heard?

I must say that the Tanjore District is the centre and the adjoining Districts by their opportunities of interchanging ideas with Tanjore are also places where the South Indian System of music could be heard. So says the world of Karnatic musicians, i.e., those that practise that music which is distinctly apart from the Northern or Hindusthani system. Moreover Venkatamakhi, the author of the 72 modes* peculiar to this system of music was born in Tanjore and was so to say, the founder of this school of musicians.

The best vocalists of modern times, such as the late Mahavaidyanatha Aiyar and Pattanam Subrahmaniya Aiyar are men of Tanjore.

Coming to the subject, we see that instruction in the subject may well be imparted to children. Still, it is not a compulsory subject; or at least the Primary School teachers have not come to think it to be a compulsory subject in the sense in which they regard Drawing. Firstly therefore it must be urged as a subject to be taught just as *Reading*, *Arithmetic*, or *Drawing*.

Then a difficulty arises and that is: What must be the nature of the songs to be taught? In considering this question, we can do no better than quote the opinion of Prof. Rein: He says: "(In a concentration of studies) the national songs come into requisition; their meaning should be made the more significant to the child through their relation to the historical material.—the environment of the

* (The modes, familiarly known as Mela's or Melakarta's are mere conventions enunciated for the first time in the world of music by Venkatamakhi who lived in the time of the Nayak Kings of Tanjore in the fifteenth century. The Mela's and their mathematical and muemonic names may be seen in any musical work.)

child is another determinative factor in the selection of material. In all cases as a matter of course, the child's faculty which is but a means to an end must be taken into due consideration."

But what is to be done in the case of a boy who has undergone the system of instruction in music that has been described above? I should say that he must learn the masterpieces of music of a Tyagaraja Aiyar or a Kshetragna.

Several are the objections raised by the educationists of this country to introducing Tyagaraja Aiyar's music into schools where the policy of religious neutrality should be the watchword. But I for one should meet this objection of religious feeling against the introduction of the hymns of Tyagaraja Aiyar, by saying that, just as a full comprehension of the spirit of Milton's *Paradise Lost* or Shakespeare's *Dramatical Works* is quite impossible for a man who does not know the religion of the poets, so too if you are to have a knowledge of what Karnatic Music is, you are certainly to have it through Tyaga Aiyar's *Kritis*, though you may have a disinclination to know his religion.

What is the end to be achieved by us? To enable the young learner to have an idea of the theory of South Indian Music and also to enable him to sing as well as any vocalist must be the end a teacher of music should have in view.

What do the vocalists of our South India sing in our society? The various details of a vocalist's performance must be clearly set forth so that our educational authorities who are strangers to our system of music might chalk out a course of instruction best suited for the various standards in our Primary and Secondary Schools. The details of the performance are:

(1) *Singing Compositions of Composers* :—The vocalists generally reproduce the compositions of great composers like, Tyaga Aiyar, Syama Sastri or Muttuswami Dikshitar. In this portion of their performance, accuracy and faithfulness to the original are expected of a good musician. Unscientific and untaught musicians sometimes have a tendency to distort the compositions so much that they naturally lose their esteem in the opinion of the hearers.

(2) *Singing Svaras* : Called *Manoratha Svaras* : This is not quite independent of the foregoing item because it is generally sung in continuation of the Anupallavi of a Kriti (his own or another's) by a performer. It is sung in the same Raga and of course in the same Tala as the Kriti ; and while it is being sung should be very much the same as the original by the unity and continuity in its style. This requires very great skill on the part of the musician. He must be able to enter into the spirit and note the general course of the composition and have the power to adopt his style of singing : which of course implies some originality. This mode of Svara singing is becoming a rare commodity with the musicians of these days.

(3) *Singing a Raga* :—This is considered by all to be a very easy thing. But when you attempt it you are sure to meet with a failure. It appears to be very easy at first sight because the outline of a Raga could easily be comprehended by any ordinary person through the peculiar impress cast upon compositions or *Kritis* in that Raga. Moreover, Raga-singing is not generally restricted by the Time-element or Tala *i. e.*, you need not bind yourself to a particular Tala in singing a Raga and ordinarily the time-element is not so easily understood by people.

Raga-singing is peculiar to Karnatic Music alone. Northern musicians have of late begun to introduce this form of singing into their practice in imitation of Karnatic musicians.

A refined skill in singing Ragas depends entirely on the vocal chords of the individual and the ease with which he is able to sing the notes of the Gamut in groups.

In singing a Raga, no musician, either European or Hindusthani, can equal a Karnatic musician.

(4) *Madhyama-Kala-Raga Singing* or singing the *Tanam* as it is called :—Most persons come to think that they have acquired a mastery of singing because they could sing the outlines of Ragas quite empirically after hearing several *Kritis* in the same Raga sung by experts. But such knowledge is sure to be shallow. That it is so can be easily seen by asking them to sing the Ragas in Madhyama Kala* or half-time. It is impossible for a person to learn Madhyama-Kala singing without the guidance of a good tutor. As Svara-singing, so we very rarely hear Madhyama-Kala-Raga in the performances of musicians appearing in the Sabhas of Madras.

(5) *Pallavi* :—This is another unique feature to differentiate Karnatic Music from other systems. Here, about four words in Telugu, Sanskrit or Tamil are taken up and these are set to a particular Raga and Tala. The musician has to show his skill in handling the same by bringing all his musical learning to bear on it. Singing the same for about fifteen minutes in Sankha-Kala (slow-time,) he then begins to sing it in Madhyama-Kala (half-time.) Now he sings Svara in the manner described under Svara singing. After singing thus for about half an hour he begins to sing the same in quarter-time and also Svara.

This portion of the performance is consider-

ed to be worthy of a masterly singer, and so it is not generally expected of amateurs at all as the latter generally confine themselves to singing the compositions of others and stop there, and their performance consequently does not extend over more than one hour without producing a lack of interest in the audience.

What has been sketched out is what an ideal musician is expected to do. The late Maha Vaidyanatha Aiyar won in his time a great name for singing Svaras and Pallavi with wonderful ease ; and his successors in the profession have not been producing such good effect on the ears of the hearers.

What, then, will be the stages that a learner has to go through in reaching this ideal stage ? Of course, a very good training of the ear in distinguishing the Svaras of all the best music of expert musicians and a good idea of the time-element (Tala) in accompaniment to singing are quite essential. Just as a good idea of symmetry and colour underlies skill and taste in Drawing, so in music an acute ear for distinguishing notes and the Tala is essential.

Bearing these things in mind, a course of instruction in music will run thus :—

PRIMARY SCHOOL.

- (1) *Infant Standard*—No music.
- (2) *First Standard*—No music.
- (3) *Second Standard*—

(a) Sankarabharanam Scale :—Singing from sight groups of notes to simple tune-measures, Aditala and Rupakatala. (8 short syllables and 6 short syllables).

(b) 20 short songs of one line (short and sweet) known as *setra* ranging over an octave or so.*

* It must be borne in mind that children have voices of a higher pitch but of shorter range than those of adults. Hence it is advisable that the songs taught do not range over more than 8, 9, or 10 notes at the most.

(4) 3rd Standard :

(a) Todi and Kalyani Scales :—Talas Chāpa and Jhampa (small) of 7 and 5 short syllables respectively to be added to.

(b) 30 short songs.

(5) 4th Standard :

(a) Mayamalava and Harikambodhi Scales :—Talas, Triputa, Atatala and Jhampa (large) of 7 long syllables 14 and 10 short syllables respectively to be learnt.

(b) 15 songs with Pallavi and Anu-pallavi, Charanas being the same as Anu-pallavi.

LOWER SECONDARY FORMS.

(1) 1st Form :

(a) Bhairavi, Kharaharapriya, Varali and Pantavarali Scales.

(b) Singing the outline of 5 familiar Ragas—Kambodhi (scientifically Kamboji), Sankarabharana, Anandabhairavi, Mohana and Nathanamakriya. (Books to be consulted in teaching Ragas are rare. Ragavibodhini (in Tamil) published by Messrs. Srinivasa, Varadachari & Co., Madras, may be used as a text-book).

(c) Akara-sadhaka, *i. e.*, using the letter *a* for groups of notes, especially those occurring in singing a Raga.

(d) 10 short *Kritis* of Tyaga Aiyar.

(2) 2nd Form :

(a) Singing 10 familiar Ragas but with more accuracy especially with reference to Svaras. (Children must note what different notes occur in the different Ragas and sometimes in the same Raga).

(b) 10 *Kritis* of Tyaga Aiyar.

(c) Singing Sankha-Svara of short duration, *i. e.*, of one or two Avartas in continuation of the *Kritis* in Aditala and Rupakatala. Children must be taught what Muktai means and what rules are to be observed regarding Muktai.

(3) 3rd Form :

(a) Singing Madhyama-Kala-Svara of a longer duration than before.

(b) Fifteen Kritis of Tyaga Aiyar.

UPPER SECONDARY FORMS.

(1) 4th Form :

(a) 15 pretty long Kritis of Tyaga Aiyar.

(b) Singing Pallavi—in slow tune and Madhyama Kala using the Rupakatala only.

(c) Singing Svaras in continuation of Kritis in unfamiliar Ragas.

(2) 5th Form :

(a) 15 pretty long Kritis of Tyaga Aiyar and 5 padas of Kshetrajna.

(b) Pallavi singing in Aditala.

(c) Setting to Varnamettu (setting to music) of new Kritis.

(3) 6th Form :

(a) 15 pretty long songs of Tyaga Aiyar and 10 padas of Kshetrajna.

(b) Setting a Pallavi to different talas.

In the above scheme the compositions of the two great composers, Tyaga Aiyar and Kshetrajna it may appear, have been given an undue preference to the compositions of others as Dikshitar and Syama Sastri. But it will be admitted that the two composers have an unusual command of our music, that it is best that such compositions are placed before the young learner as it would give the young child an idea of what a masterly composition ought to be. The compositions of Tyaga Aiyar are best fitted for Madhyama-Kala singing so that they will win the approbation of even Europeans for their easy flow of style. The other is a masterly Sankha Kala singer—that type of music best liked by the Hindus in general.

P. S. SUNDAM.

STUDY OF SHAKESPEARE'S DRAMAS.*

"Indian Empire or no Indian Empire" we cannot do without our Shakespeare; so cried out Carlyle to his countrymen. Half a century passes. The countrymen of Carlyle found Colleges and Universities in that Indian Empire. The very language which Shakespeare spoke becomes the only common language of all her people. His dramas are translated into unheard-of tongues and dialects. And in a remote part of that Indian Empire the name of Shakespeare is celebrated through a whole week of festivities. It has thus come to pass that despite the disjunction launched forth by the superlative sage of Chelsea, it is no longer a question of Shakespeare or Indian Empire: it is for ever hereafter the glorious theme of Shakespeare and the Indian Empire. Of all the men that have trod this earth, it is said, Shakespeare possessed in the largest measure the power of imagination, the vision and the faculty divine. I doubt indeed if even he did imagine, if even he could ever have dreamt, that in the course of three centuries dusky races divided from the little island he loved, by oceans and continents, would accord almost an idolatrous worship to a Warwickshire play-wright not very much known even in his own day and country.

But such certainly is the true significance of this Shakespeare celebration in Madras. It is a tribute of which Shakespeare himself, were he alive, might feel a little proud. It is a tribute, rare of its kind. It is not a mere glamour for the leading light of a new literature in a people without any culture or literature of their own. The people of India had

* A paper read by Mr. V. V. Srinivasa Iyengar, B.A., B.L., in connection with the Shakespeare week celebrations by Suguna Vilasa Sabha, on the 24th Monday, April, with Mr. J. R. Bilderbeck in the chair.

attained to great pre-eminence in literature and philosophy at a time when in all probability the ancestors of Shakespeare were still in a state of comparative barbarism. It is a tribute paid by men nursed on the works of Valmiki and Kalidasa, of Kamban and Thiruvalluvar. It is a great, significant tribute.

The works of Shakespeare are all compressed in one volume. But the books treating about him and his works are a library in themselves. No other man has ever had such a mass and weight of criticism heaped upon him.

Beginning with the question of questions whether Shakespeare was or was not Shakespeare, speculation has not stopped short of even the problem whether the world is likely again to produce another Shakespeare. Every play has been analysed. Every character has been discussed. Every line has been commented upon, every idea, sentiment and conceit has been criticised. Every word has been traced to its sources and through all its history. And after all, it would seem, that we are not yet even on a fair way of exhausting Shakespeare. Shakespeare's art is not merely long but appears to be almost infinite. It is more than human flesh and blood can bear. The most ardent student turns at last in despair. He plunges and plunges and struggles down, and further and further deep, hoping at last to feel the bottom. But no, it is not here; it is not there; it is nowhere; and he bubbles and shoots up to the surface again. As Shakespeare is immortal, the student of Shakespeare must needs also be endowed with immortal life to be able to complete his studies. What then should one do? An effective recipe has been invented, they say long ago, but it seems to me only the other day. Do not read Shakespeare at all. Why should

you? Is it that you are not able to follow when a few of your friends talk of him or his works occasionally? Put on a knowing smile and pass on, and rest assured you will be deemed the wise for it. Is it that you are asked inconvenient questions? Remember the numerous platitudes about the greatest dramatist of the world, about plot construction, about light and shade, about character contrast and development, about crisis and catastrophe, about Nemesis and poetic justice and about holding the mirror up to nature. These expressions would seem to be a sufficient passport to enable you to pass through your life and through all the grades of polite society without being discovered as not having studied Shakespeare or without having even once to blush for the same. This then is the modern recipe, you need not study Shakespeare. Why should you? Talk glibly and keep repeating the platitude praises and the commonplace catchwords or criticism and you will pass muster. This seems to me to be the ironical fate of all great books. Every one is so well acquainted with their names and with the broad outlines of their contents that it comes to be deemed unnecessary to study them. What then about the praises of these books sounded and resounded everywhere, even at the present day, and if possible more at the present day than ever before? It is tradition; it is fashion; it is cant; it is anything, but first-hand or genuine. It is one of the greatest dangers to true culture. It breeds a baneful habit of posing on borrowed opinions. It develops deference and diffidence and kills independence of judgment. It is suicidal to literary self-reliance and character. It offends against the divine integrity of the human intellect. In plain words it is dishonest. I have therefore thought it best that whatever I shall

say or not say, on the vast subject of this evening's discourse, I should have clearly done my duty if I succeed in exhorting myself and all of you to study the works of Shakespeare. I hope I am only insulting by this exhortation. But I am afraid I am not. Do not then be content with rumours and reports but walk up to the fountain yourself and drink. Shakespeare, were he present, would not scorn the genuine judgment of one more human mind. Great have been the commentators of Shakespeare—great, and also numberless. By all means avail yourself of their help if and when necessary. It is the foolish man that neglects to use the results of the labours of preceding generations of workers in the same field. There is no need to close up a mine to work it further. Nor after all should you rely largely on the commentators. Have the courage of your own reading and judgment. Every great work of fine or literary art has a special message to every human mind. It is not as in the exact sciences or the useful arts. No one human mind is like another. Every one of such works has a special secret for each particular human mind. Study it: believe in it; open your own heart to it; cherish it as a friend with a secret; and it will be sure to yield up the secret to you. It is for your eye and ear alone. You are its only witness and repository. The commentators can speak only to what they each saw and heard. You have a different mind and they did not see with your eyes or hear with your ears. Therefore study for yourself and draw out its message for you, and pluck out its secret. These are not mere words. Read a great book, study a drama of Shakespeare, study Hamlet or Lear or Macbeth or Othello, or as for the matter any other of his plays or see them acted, allow yourself to be played upon by the emotions of

the piece, make yourself only susceptible and then you will realise it for yourself; and then you will admit to yourself that these are not mere words but point truly to a possible experience.

Years ago I heard a lecture by one of our leading men on a subject which related to one of the greatest books of the world. It was announced that the speaker will address the meeting on the central lesson taught by that book. I went to the meeting. I heard the lecture. It was a fluent speech and in some parts eloquent. It showed that the lecturer had minutely studied his subject and even thought deeply of many things he had studied. In fact it was a good speech according to the current standard of good speeches then and now—But younger as I was then, it struck me that I could not forgive the lecturer one thing, namely, the attitude assumed by him towards the book, the central lesson of which he was seeking to expound. It was the attitude of a man towards a sucked orange. From the first word he uttered to the last, this attitude pervaded and characterised the speech. He seemed to feel and say somewhat like this "Here I am, a good scholar. I have studied this book. I have collected together in this small bottle the whole of the essence contained in it; at least as much of it as you need have. Just taste this and don't trouble yourself any more about the book. I have given you all that may be useful and certainly all that is necessary." Mark you, gentlemen, I noted it then, I remember it to-day, from the beginning to the end of that speech there was nothing to show that his hearers might themselves read the book with advantage; there was nothing even by way of suggestion, that his hearers might sometimes read and try to understand the book them-

selves. This attitude as to a sucked orange may possibly be a great attitude, but I fail to perceive how it can be true. I am not merely referring to the appropriate humility before all the great creations of the world. I go further and speak of the necessary line of approach in order to be able even to understand the great work comprehensively, if not also correctly. For my part there is only one central lesson which every great work teaches, and that is, that every man must put himself in direct relation to the work and feel and imbibe the lesson at first hand. Each drama of Shakespeare is an individual great work of the world. There are eminent professors who have written largely about what this drama teaches, what another one is intended to teach, and so forth. They are extremely interesting and instructive reading. But no commentator has ever succeeded in making a sucked orange of a great book. In truth, it seems to me, that the very test of a really great work is our inability to exhaust its meaning and suggestion. The dramas of Shakespeare especially are not capable of being so exhausted. Just conceive of a fine and delicately constructed Veena. Each string when merely twanged yields a note which immediately places you in direct contact with the harmony of existence and slowly loses itself into the infinite, delicately carrying you as a child along with it. Strike a tune on it, play upon it, and then it renders back to you your own emotions exalted, purified and idealised. It is sometimes usual to compare one fine art with another, a piece of music to a painting and both to a drama. But a drama of Shakespeare cannot be adequately described by being compared to a piece of music. It is both the music and the musical instrument. The greater your an-

tecedent acquaintance with the instrument and your capacity to bring forth its possibilities, the greater and finer the resulting product. The larger the vessel you carry with you to the spring the more water will you be able to carry away. The more you happen to know already the more will you understand, appreciate, realise and make your own. All knowledge, it has been said, is but recollection, and surely all æsthetic merit consists largely in reflection and response. Such of you as have carefully studied any play of Shakespeare more than once at different periods of life, will have realised the truth of what I mean. A particular word or expression did not tell, fell flat upon you, when you read it years ago. You read on saying to yourself that it was probably put in for the purpose of filling up the line. Meanwhile you have passed through a strange and rare experience. You read the passage, the expression, the word again, and all of a sudden the veil is removed and you recognise the expression, which in your mind was unembodied, there, face to face, representing to you the very warmth and colour of your own particular experience. You are almost tempted to think that for once the great Shakespeare must have plagiarised from you by anticipation. The first requisite therefore for a sufficient understanding of Shakespeare's dramas is a large and comprehensive knowledge of human nature and the human mind. Though Shakespeare's imagination is the most superb to be found in literary history, he drew his pictures not from mere imagination, but from a direct and intimate experience of life. No poet has ever written or can ever write anything worth the reading, who did not or does not write from experience. Clever writing from memory or mere trickish

manipulation of words and phrases or the attempt to describe any fact or state of mind which has not been assimilated by personal experience, carries an unmistakable alien air and its stamp of second-handness on its face. We may therefore be sure that as Shakespeare wrote from experience of life, it is experience of life alone that can enable us to understand and appreciate him thoroughly. This is absolutely necessary. No amount of word-paraphrasing or learned commentary can make us realise the meaning, if the thought contained in the meaning does not already form an organic part of our precedent experience. How can a man understand Romeo who has not felt the force of love? How can one sympathise with Hamlet who had not suffered the conflict in him between a mental resolve and a weak will? How can you appreciate the art of Iago's villainy if you have not known what it is to be jealous? And so on without end, from the highest to the lowest characters, from the most sublime to the simplest emotions. To this actual experience of the world and human life, must be added a native literary sense. No amount of mere instruction can serve to create a sense which is not there already. Instruction and practice can educate and develop a sense, not supply one. It is believed by many thinkers that every fine art has a corresponding faculty in the human mind, and that persons devoid of a particular faculty cannot appreciate the particular art. It is probably true. In any case, for the due and proper appreciation of the highest forms of literary art, one must have previously qualified oneself by suitable studies. As there is a well-established and recognised distinction between the professed and the amateur artist, so is there an equally well-defined, if not equally well-recognised, distinction bet-

ween a professed and amateur critic or appreciator. In order, therefore, that one may be a competent student of Shakespeare, one must have carefully studied and familiarised oneself with all forms of literary art and with all grades of literary excellence. Thus not being altogether devoid of a literary sense, enriched by personal experience and equipped with familiarity with literary art, the student may begin a real study of Shakespeare with immense advantage to himself. The question therefore here arises, what are the things to be particularly noted in a proper study of Shakespeare and how best to make a study of his dramas. First in order comes the study of the plot. On this subject alone one may say a great deal. But I have necessarily to be brief. The first thing that would strike a student in the study of the plot of Shakespeare's dramas is that the plot of no drama is absolutely new. This would seem strange in a poet of such surpassing imaginative power as Shakespeare. This may even appear as a weakness in the greatest of poets. Why should Shakespeare not have given new stories to the world? Was it a limitation on his genius? Is not a poet, especially a dramatic poet, bound in the very interests of the art, not to shackle himself with stories, with given events and situations and the characters all labelled and numbered? Indeed how can we help believing that even in the matter of mere stories, the world would not have gained if Shakespeare instead of finding them in the chronicles and biographies had forged them fresh in the vast workshop of his fancy. In that way, he might have given us developments of plot and examples of construction, marvellous, as they would have been new. Long ago when I began to read Shakespeare, such really was my feeling. I thought as there was no perfection in the

world, Shakespeare's one imperfection lay in borrowing his plots and in not inventing them all himself. Since then it has become clear to me that, for one thing, it is infinitely easier for a dramatic author to invent his own characters and situations than to manipulate and manage an old story and succeed in investing it with dramatic interest. To work with a given material and produce a result is certainly harder than to be left free to fashion your own material to work with. And though Shakespeare undoubtedly had a wide range for choice even in the old chronicles, traditions, and biographies, still in the nature of things the range so furnished to him was not as wide as that at the command of his own imagination. It seems to me therefore that we ought not to fail to perceive a clear purpose in Shakespeare having thus preferred to look to old sources for the plots of his dramas. The practical consideration that must have weighed with him in the matter must have been the very consideration which we find influencing the professional theatrical companies and audiences alike in Madras to-day, namely, the certainty by reason of previous experience, of the story appealing to an audience. Experiments with new plots may be indulged in by amateurs, but the professional play-wright has a pecuniary stake in the affair. I am not also sure whether even on pure principles of art, it is not desirable that the painting to be thoroughly appreciated, should be of a figure or scene we are acquainted with, that the music should be in a tune we love, and the *dramatis personæ* in a drama should be characters we are acquainted with. But all *a priori* consideration apart, there can be no doubt that we are on the whole distinctly gainers by the system pursued by Shakespeare, in the construction of his plots.

The industry of great scholars has now collected for us in respect of every play of Shakespeare, all the sources from which he procured the raw materials of his plots. The most important point for us is that he has not utilised them as he found them. He has added here and subtracted there, combined two or three into one, made important characters or features unimportant and *vice versa*, touched and improved everywhere, redistributed the light and shade and breathed into the whole a new life and meaning. With the raw material and the perfected work of art, both before us, it is a study fraught with delicate interest and immense instruction, to note the process of the master's mind. Such a study is invaluable to the aspiring dramatic author and absolutely necessary to the dramatic critic. In the course of such study, we shall learn, not merely the peculiar character of Shakespeare's genius but also many an implied general rule of artistic rendering. This is thus a distinct sphere and method of the study of literary art which is full of promise to the discreet and indefatigable worker, and we should be without the possession of such fruitful province if Shakespeare had preferred to invent his plots instead of borrowing them.

We may also be sure that in Shakespeare thus dealing with plots ready to hand instead of putting himself to the trouble of inventing them, we have been great gainers. Shakespeare is said to have been the product of his age and by some the gift of Nature. In either case and according to the reason of the thing, it was well that the economy of Nature prevailed over false notions of originality, and Shakespeare's work was devoted chiefly to work which nobody else could have done, in several cases, only to the giving of the final touches. Another, and by some considered to be quite

[MAY 1905.]

the most important feature of the plots of Shakespeare's dramas, is their study as products of the play of character and circumstance, involving as it does, the delineation of the law of cause and effect in human destiny. This is a subject of engrossing interest and of fruitful contemplation to those who have a taste for the study of the philosophy of human existence. The world of Shakespeare is a wonderful world. Each person is a character and all that he says and does is organically related to the conception of the character by the poet. The character is the unseen cause of the action and speech; and from the action and speech the reader or hearer is perforce compelled to think and evolve the true conception. The harmony between the character on the one hand and his speech and action on the other is perceived, and becomes a distinct source of appreciation. This is what has been called the delineation of character. Then, given a situation and circumstance, the character begins his play. New circumstances come into being and these in turn affect the character and so on till the end, each character also affecting every other for the better or for the worse. Nothing happens without producing its result and leaving its indelible mark on the character. And the effect thus produced becomes in its turn a cause and produces other results. Thus, it is a most absorbing study to watch how Macbeth who must have been by nature ambitious, is first affected by his victory, then by the witches, afterwards by the news of Duncan coming under his roof and by the opportunity it afforded, then by Lady Macbeth and so forth till the character is hardened to the murder, and how after the murder is done, because the character has become formed, Macbeth is unable to sheath his murderous dagger and

murders are done and men fall like leaves, till at length vaulting ambition overleaps itself. So in the case of Othello. I have no doubt he was by nature jealous and almost knew it and he was not worthy of sweet Desdemona. How this weakness is played upon is familiar to you all. I need not multiply instances. The art then, by which, in Shakespeare's dramas, the characters are shown to be acted upon by circumstance and by the other characters and so changed gradually till they ripen for the denouement is called the character development.

There is also another aspect of Shakespeare's characters. For enabling us to understand his chief characters, their delineation and development thoroughly, Shakespeare has invariably filled his dramas with other characters by their side, some of the same class but of a lower grade, some of a different class but of the same genus, some of an opposite class and so forth. In fact in the case of some highly complicated characters there are regular steps provided us for the purpose of ascending to the height of the character indicated by the poet. The same event is shown to affect the different characters differently. They develop differently under the same conditions. They are made to speak of each other and to love and hate each other. The results obtained by all these methods of agreement and difference verily remind us of what are called reaction tests in chemistry. So accurate they are. All these in a very striking way constitute an artistic back-ground for setting off in relief the main figures of the action. This is what is often called character contrast.

After all, and in fact as the result of this character delineation, development and contrast and by the interplay of character and

circumstance, the play progresses from point to point. This is otherwise called the development of the plot. It may often be that the development of the plot and the denouement of the story are very often not as we would wish in the plenitude of our good-natured sympathies. But let it be remembered that the poet is not pandering to our likes and dislikes. There are some plays in which he does it to our heart's content. But in the higher plays and tragedies he is inspired by nothing short of high seriousness and absolute sincerity. He is mirroring not Nature as ordinary men see her, but in the very rigour of her undeviating course, red in tooth and in claw. Weak men are not saved because they are good. And virtuous men are not successful if they are foolish. It seems to me that if you really care to get an adequate idea of the extent to which the law of cause and effect holds sway especially in human life, character, and destiny, you must go to Shakespeare. In our common-place work-a-day world the operation of this law is hidden by the intervention of time, place, and irrelevencies, whereas Shakespeare shows it to us pure in its abstract working. Such a view of life is no doubt calculated to strike terror into our hearts. That every action of ours and whatever may be done or omitted in fun, or even forgetfulness, should leave an ineradicable stamp on our character, and result in far-off consequences, makes us stagger. But such are the facts of psychology. Such in truth is the law of life.

Still another aspect of the plot of Shakespeare's dramas is the total disregard of the so-called unities of time and place. Such rules made *a priori* and followed implicitly fetter the freedom of artistic production. They argue a decadent state of

literary activity. Students of Shakespeare and Kalidasa know how the latter suffered by owning obedience to the thousand *a priori* rules of dramatic composition in Sanskrit. It may form a separate subject for an elaborate enquiry whether the Shakespeare of India has really improved the story of Sakuntala from what it is in the Mahabharata by subjugating his undoubted genius to observe rules laid down for dramatic composition in Sanskrit. Grammar must follow the growth of the language and a Panini tends only to put a stop to all further life. There is no limit to forms of literary art and a Browning in the nineteenth century puzzles a whole generation of critics by his daring novelties. Rules of literary art, as of all other arts, follow logically as they do chronologically, the forms of art. And we all know what the world owes to Shakespeare's setting at defiance the rules of unities, even though he was for that very reason much ridiculed in his own day. Nay, more than this, it is not many years ago that an eminent modern critic entered an emphatic plea for the inductive criticism of Shakespeare's dramas and it seems to me that in the course of a few years we are likely to reap a plentiful harvest by subjecting every drama of Shakespeare to this method of criticism. I have not the space here to treat of the methods, merits and results of this species of criticism in detail, but I shall content myself with merely indicating, that, so treated, the dramas of Shakespeare reveal beauties of construction hitherto little suspected. Thus it has been discovered that the central act of the central scene in several dramas contains the real turning point in the story. Thus it has been pointed out that the opening lines in some dramas indicates the gist of the whole plot: and so on. And verily

these are all fields for the students and critics of the future.

Next to the plot comes the division of the play into acts and scenes. Here also I may observe, is a vast field for study. We may rest assured that Shakespeare did not mark off the acts for convenience of scenic intervals, or distribute the scenes pell-mell. It has already been indicated by some eminent critics that the five acts represent the five stages of a five-fold action contained in each play. The scenes in each act help to bring out the various threads of action right up to the point where the act concludes. Then again there is the distribution of light and shade, of the tragic and the comic. Dissertations have been written on the appropriateness or otherwise of the porter's scene in Macbeth and the grave-diggers' scene in Hamlet. And there are similar scenes throughout his dramas. The object and art of interposing such scenes and the arrangement of scenes in general is a special study in itself and not without a peculiar and characteristic interest of its own.

Next in order we come to the language of Shakespeare. What a wealth of words! What chiselled expressions! What warmth! What colour! What red-hot ideas fresh from the furnace! What metaphors and similes and endless figures of speech! What daring conceits! What fancies and fun! And above all what music! One really stands aghast whether there is anything in the world or out of it, which this man could not have reproduced in words. And all this, gentlemen with but 26 letters. Surely the marvel of an art if ever there was one. If you would appreciate Shakespeare's language well, take any passage and ask yourself why the sentence is constructed in the particular manner

it is; why the particular word is used and not any other of the five, six or ten which might have been used; whether the word is necessary at all; why it is in the particular place in the sentence and so on, without end. Just to illustrate what I mean, supposing that the student questioned himself why in Portia's speech to the Jew in 'Merchant of Venice,' Shakespeare says "Quality of Mercy and not merely 'mercy' or act of mercy" and why in the famous soliloquy of Hamlet the word "live" is not used for "be" and the word "my" for "the" and why the whole should not read "to live or not to live, that is my question," there can be no doubt that whatever answers are at the time given to such questions, the student is likely to come soon to a warm and intimate understanding of the art of Shakespeare's expression. Years ago I read in one of Dr. Bain's books criticisms of some passages from Shakespeare which, however correct and instructive from the point of view of a teacher of the English language, seemed almost inappropriate from the point of view of dramatic passion and situation. The language of Shakespeare must thus be appreciated having in view the demand put upon language as a vehicle of deep emotion or thought struggling to vent itself in expression somehow. Generally speaking, you will find that no single word is put in uselessly or merely to fill up the line; that every word has a meaning behind it and is put in to carry the sense further, or better to bring out an idea or sentiment; and that you cannot without marring the meaning take away a word or substitute or add another. Such is the marvel of style when the truth of matter and the truth of manner, like soul and body, unite to make a living being.

I cannot pass from this subject of language without touching on the suggestiveness of Shakespeare's language. Suggestion of ulterior and profounder ideas and feelings by words that do service for a particular limited

purpose at hand has been almost reduced to a separate fine art in Sanskrit literature. It is there styled "Dhwani" or sound, and separate treatises have been written regarding its nature, scope and use. I must confess that excepting Shakespeare and to some extent Tennyson I have failed to find much of this quality of suggestion in English poets. Shakespeare's dramas, however, abound in them. It is a branch of this species of criticism that has often been ridiculed as a process of "reading into." It is asked whether Shakespeare meant all that is now sought to be fathered on him. Perhaps he did not mean. What then? Is the meaning of a work of art necessarily that which is placed on it by the artist? and is the meaning limited only to what he was conscious of at the moment of production? The work the meaning of which is exhausted by the poet and his generation is not for posterity and the world. The work of art which is in harmony with the highest truth and beauty is in tune with the infinite itself and ever keeps suggesting new and newer aspects of that truth and beauty. There is another aspect of the study of language. I mean, a study of the punctuations, of the pauses, of the breaks in the middle of sentences, of the exclamations, of the asides, of the stage directions and numerous other apparent trivialities in the dramas of Shakespeare. I shall only say to the real student; none of them is unimportant and recent criticism has clearly shown that there is a gleaming thought even behind each of these trivialities. So far I have spoken of Shakespeare's dramas merely as pieces of literary art intended to be read and appreciated. There is an aspect of these dramas from which they may be looked upon as repositories of the habits, thoughts, feelings, aspirations and social and other customs of Shakespeare's day. With this, however, it is the

province of the historian to deal. But these dramas considered as plays to be acted are a subject of special importance to all, chiefly to the members of the association under whose auspices we are met this evening to celebrate the memory of the poet. If there is a conceivable limit to the interpretation of the poet in language, there seems to be no limit, whatever to his interpretation by the actor. In this matter, we, who are in India, can only speak second-hand. Shades of beauty are revealed by the foot-lights which escape any amount of close study in the closet. New ideas come flooding, new interpretations dawn into your mind, and in fact the whole thing looks like a new reading of the drama when one sees it acted. It is because one great art is super-added to another. For the actor who hungers for scope, here is a limitless field in Shakespeare. To act Shakespeare is not easy. To act Shakespeare well you must yourself possess some genius.

Gentlemen, I have detained you long. But before I close I know you will ask me, supposing we take all this trouble and study Shakespeare, *cui bono*? What shall I reap? I shall only mention to you what I deem to be the highest good to be derived from the study of Shakespeare. It is the province and function of high art to reveal to you the beauty of the Universe, and to touch you with sympathy for everything in the world, high and low. By this process you are taught to love the world, with all its vice and wickedness, it may be, and attain to a high philosophic optimism, to a state of mind in which, as Lord Sri Krishna says, the man sees everything in himself and himself in every thing. Surely this is bliss. I fancy Shakespeare sitting like a God, high upon a hill surveying with a sweet smile on his divine lips the world of

his revelation below and beckoning kindly to every ardent student of his works to come up and take a place beside him.

THE PLACE OF COINS IN THE STUDY OF INDIAN HISTORY.*

In considering the subject which I have chosen for this evening, it will be necessary, in the first place, to say a few words about the study of history generally and Indian history in particular. In addressing a society formed for the purpose of historical research, the value and uses of history may be taken for granted. The methods to be followed in studying the subject, and especially the Indian branch, require further attention. Let me remind you, in the first place, that the modern critical spirit is barely a century old in Europe. Its introduction into Indian history is even more recent, and there are few Indian writers of the present day who have absorbed it. To put it briefly, the change involves a more scrupulous investigation of the sources of historical records. A narrative of historical events by any writer is examined with care. The opportunities which he enjoyed for obtaining information are considered. The question is asked whether he can be considered impartial. If he is suspected of inclining towards one side or another, allowance must be made for his partiality. Such methods apply to the consideration of a single narrative, but criticism is not confined to these. The statements of each author must also be compared with those of other writers who have dealt with the same period. Other documents than historical narratives, pure and simple, are examined, and valuable results have been obtained in this way.

Such are the general methods of modern historical students, and it remains to show the result of applying them to Indian history. At the inaugural meeting of this society the learned President, in a luminous survey of the sources available for the study of various ancient civilisations, referred to the scantiness and unreliability of early records for the history of India. I am afraid that it is sometimes assumed by Indians, that European students despise Indian history, and deliberately attempt to discredit the antiquity of Indian civilisation. It is perfectly true that in Europe no events are accepted as historical, relating to India, before the 6th or 7th century B.C. What I wish to impress on you is that in arriving

at such a conclusion Europeans are guided entirely by the rules which they have laid down for the examination of the history of any country. There is not the slightest wish to belittle Indian history, or to deny the antiquity of ancient civilisation. If the rules which are laid down by modern students can be shown to be incorrect, they must be modified, and if on the other hand records of any description can be produced, which, when tested in the manner already described, point to a greater antiquity than is now accepted, nobody will be more pleased to recognise this than European scholars.

It will be admitted by Indians that the ancient Hindus have left very few works which profess to give connected historical accounts. Every source from which information can be derived is therefore of importance. The idea that coins are by no means the least valuable source, in the case of Indian history, may appear to you novel. It has sometimes occurred when I have been hunting about in bazars, and have asked to be directed to the nearest *sarraf*, that people have looked puzzled and asked if I wanted the *sharab* shop. To explain the importance which the study of coins possesses, a short survey of the classes of coins found in India will be useful.

We begin with some small flat pieces of silver which are found all over India, being sometimes round but generally square. They bear no inscription and were neither struck nor cast, but have stamps on them evidently made by punches, whence they are called punch-marked. The stamps are of symbols of various kinds the meaning of which is very uncertain. It has been suggested that they represent the name of the city in or people by which a coin was issued. For example the lotus padma may indicate Padmavati, the old name of Narwar, and the Snake Ahi may stand for Ahichatra, the ancient city near Bareilly, while the bull or cow Vatsa may have been the mark of the Vatsas whose capital was Kosambi, and the armed soldier, in Sanskrit Yuddha, may have been taken by the tribe of Yaudheyas. Again, we find on later coins punning allusions to the names of the kings who struck them; e.g., Raja Hasti has an elephant, in Sanskrit Hasti, the familiar *hathi* of to-day. Thus a figure of the sun may stand for Surya Das or Bhanu Mitra. It may be that such allusions were to the names of money-changers and not to kings. We do not know what the dates of these coins are. Quintus Curtius however records that when Alexander reached Taxila (in the Punjab) about the year 330 B.C., the Raja of the country presented to him 80 talents

of "*signati argenti*," the only possible translation of which is coined money. A Buddhist legend states that a merchant named Anatha purchased the Jetavana or garden of Prince Jeta at Sravasti, and the price was a layer of gold pieces sufficient to cover the surface of the garden. Now we have no very ancient gold coins of India, except gold double staters struck probably in the latter half of the 4th century B.C. and it seems probable that gold was not struck in very early times, being current as dust or in small ingots. But Sir A. Cunningham found two sculptures representing the purchase, one of about 250 B.C. at Mahabodhi and the other of about 150 B.C. at Bharhut, and in each of these men are shown as covering the ground with small square objects which give good reason for supposing that the coins represented were the square punch marked coins we know of. General Cunningham considers they were certainly current in the time of Buddha, say in the 5th or 6th century B.C., and he would even put them back as far as 1000 B.C. It is however certain that in the Buddhist Sutras of the 2nd century B.C. they are called *purana* or old. Copper coins of this type are very rare and as they often have a layer of silver still adhering to them, there is some reason for thinking that those we find are ancient forgeries of the silver ones. It is probable that their place was taken by those copper coins which appear to have been cast, and as a rule bear Buddhist symbols such as the *chaitya*, or a tree in a railing.

Dealing first with the purely Indian coins we have, following the punch marked, different sets of coins which are for the most part found in or near definite places. Thus in the Punjab we have the coins found at Taxila, and those bearing the name of various tribes such as the Odumbaras and Kunindas and Yaudheyas found respectively to the north of Lahore, between Ambala and Saharanpur, and round Delhi. In the United Provinces we have coins found in Bundelkhand ascribed to Kosambi, the coins of Pauchala, of Mathura, of Ajodhya; and in Nepal and Rajputana we have the coins of Ujjain and Eran, and in Southern India the coins of the Andhras. Some of these places and peoples are mentioned by the Greek historians and in ancient Indian books, but their dates are still controversial and need not be referred to further than the statement that the coins probably cover the period from about 200 B.C., in the case of the early Taxila coins, to about 650 A.D. in the case of the Nepal coins.

We must now go back and refer to some

series of coins struck partly in and partly out of India. These are the coins of the Greeks who ruled in what is now Afghanistan and the Punjab. Square copper coins bearing the name of Alexander are known, and it is probable that these were struck in India. A long series of Greek rulers followed, and the historical results derived from a study of their coins are of the greatest importance, and will be referred to later.

Some time in the first half of the 2nd century B.C. a horde from the N. or N.E. seems to have swept down, and we get a series of coins of about 18 so-called Saka (or Scythian) kings and 7 satraps, closely following the Greek types, but with a much debased execution. In the first or second century A.D. however, we come to ground, for according to the Chinese chronicles Kadphises I, the ruler of the Kushans, a tribe of the Yuechi, conquered all the other tribes, invaded Parthia and seized Kabul. His son conquered part of India and was followed by three successors, all of whom struck coins which are found all over Northern India.

About A.D. 79 a new dynasty was founded in Western India, which is now called that of the Western Satraps, and it lasted till nearly 400 A.D. Their coins are found in silver and copper, the former being directly copied from the Græco-Bactrian coins. In the East there arose in the 4th century A.D. the well-known Gupta kingdom whose coins in gold were struck on the Kushan model, but with far greater artistic skill; in silver on the Western Satrap model, and in copper (which are exceedingly rare) of indigenous types. The Guptas ruled till about the year 600 A.D.

After the great Kushans Kanishka, Huvishka and Vasu Deva, the Kushan rule still appears to have continued in the Punjab, but the kings or governors used the types of the former kings, with Indian letters the meanings of which are doubtful. About the first quarter of the 5th century another tribe of Scythians called the Little Kushans got possession of Gandhara, and in addition to the old Kushan type they began to use the gold and silver coins, like those of the Sassanian Kings of Persia with the king's head on one side, and a fire altar on the other. But another tribe the White Huns or Ephthalites was already on the war-path and in fact had probably forced the Little Kushans to advance into India, and about the end of the 5th century had driven them out of Gandhara, the country round Kandahar, probably into Chitral, Gilgit and Kashmir. The White Huns spread down into Sindh, Malwa, Gwalior and the valley

* A paper read at the Muir Central College Historical Society in January 1905 and published in the *Hindustan Review*.

of the Ganges, but in the middle of the 6th century the Indian Princes (including one of the Guptas) combined and defeated them, and it seems likely that the Little Kushans again possessed the Punjab for about 300 years as we find more and more debased types still to be recognized as descended from those of the great Kushans. In the 9th century A.D. however we again get coins with distinct names of them, those of the Hindu Kings of Kabul with a bull on one side, and a horseman on the other, and those of the Hindu Kings of Kashmir with a King and a goddess, very debased imitations of the old Kushan coins, the former type continuing till the conquest by the Ghaznavis early in the 11th century and the latter till the middle of the 14th.

For the United Provinces and Central India from the 7th to the 9th centuries we have debased imitation of Sassanian coins with no inscription, some of copper and some of silver; but we have one type with a representation of the boar or Varaha incarnation of Vishnu and the title Srimad Adi Varaha which we know was borne by Bhoja Deva, King of Kanauj in A.D. 850-900. From the tenth century we have silver and copper coins of the bull and horseman type invented by the Kings of Kabul which were struck by the Rajputs of Delhi and Kanauj and from a hundred years later the gold and copper coins of the Chedis in the Central Provinces. These coins have Lakshmi seated on one side, and the name of the king in old Nagri letter on the others. The Chandels of Mahoba in the Hamirpur district also used the same type from about 1060 A.D. till nearly 1200 A.D.

We have now reached the commencement of the Muhammadan rule in India. The great Mahmud of Ghazni made frequent raids into this country, but his coins belong properly to regions outside, and I will only mention that one he struck bore the Kalima on one side translated into Sanskrit. Muhammad Ghori was the founder of the first Pathan dynasty of Delhi in 1193, and it is interesting to note that while his gold and silver coins follow those of the Ghaznavis, his smaller silver and copper coins were chiefly of the bull and horseman type, while he actually copied the Chedi type in gold. The coins of the Pathans who succeeded him were of gold, silver, copper, and billon of many types. Apart from the coins of the bull and horseman type the Pathans as a rule abstained from putting any figures on their coins, which bear inscriptions on both sides in Persian or Arabic. By the middle of the 14th century independent Muhammadan Kings had sprung up and were

striking coins in Kashmir, in Bengal and in the Dakhin, and fifty years later we have similar dynasties in Gujarat, Malwa and Jaunpur. About the year 1525 A.D. the Mughal emperor Babar entered India, and both he and his son Humayun struck coins at various places; but in 1540 Sher Shah the Afghan expelled Humayun, and he and his successors reigned for 14 years, but were finally defeated by Humayun about 1554 A.D. In 1556 Akbar, the son of Humayun, ascended the throne and the Mughal Kings struck coins till Bahadur Shah II was finally deposed and exiled after the Mutiny. From the commencement of the real break-up of the Mughal empire in the last century a number of States in India began to strike money first in the name of the reigning King at Delhi, but latterly in the names of their rulers. In the Punjab too the Sikhs had their own money. The English appear in Elizabeth's reign to have imported special coin from England for use in their own factories, but in 1671 a mint was founded in Bombay and a local coinage started for circulation in the island and immediate neighbourhood. Under letters patent of James II, dated 1686, the Company were authorised to issue at all their forts copies of the current native coins, but as this coinage had not received the sanction of the Mughal ruler, the coins issued were really forgeries till Farrukh Siyar gave them a formal *firman* in 1717.

Having attempted to give you some idea of the classes of coins to be found in Northern India, it is time to show some of the results which have been obtained from their careful study. These results have been partly direct, and partly indirect. No better example of the direct results can be stated than that of the Græco-Bactrian, Saka and Kushan coins. In the first place, it may be mentioned that these coins bear inscriptions in two languages. One of these languages is Greek, which of course was readily deciphered when the coins came to be examined by Europeans. The other language was unknown, and the characters could not be read by any Indian or European. It was not even known at first whether the characters should be read from left to right or from right to left. After much study, this preliminary difficulty was solved, and the first transliterations were made independently by a German and an English scholar about the same time. Many inscriptions have since been found, written in the Kharoshthi character, as it is now called. These inscriptions have been valuable sources of history but it must not be forgotten that the key to their translation was furnished by the study of coins. The Greek coins also give the names of 25 or 30 rulers who are absolutely unknown to history

with few exceptions. Some details as to their relationships, the extent of country over which they ruled, and other matters, have also been ascertained from the coins themselves, or from the places where they are found. Similar details regarding the history of various parts of Northern India between the 1st century B.C. and the 11th century A.D. can also be gathered from the various series of coins to which I have already referred. It must be remembered that one of the chief difficulties in deriving historical information from the great mass of Sanskrit literature, lies in the fact that we are not able to arrange it chronologically. There are many works which would be of the greatest value in tracing the political and social history of India, but so long as scholars are unable to place them in order, and to give an idea of the approximate period which separates them, it is difficult to make any use of the information they contain. Some of the ancient Indian coins bear dates, and in any case they can be arranged with fair accuracy and certainty from a consideration of the style of execution, and the forms of the letters which are inscribed on them.

With the coming of the Muhammadans we have more reliable histories, but even here the coins help us with far more accurate dates, while the names of the places where they were struck help to map out the extent of the different kingdoms and the kings who ruled them at different dates. Some coins go even further. We read in the books for example that Muhammad bin Tuglak was a man of strong character and a religious devotee. Such statements are liable to be tinged by the personal feelings of the writer, but we find strong confirmation in the coins of this king. In the first place he started entirely new standards of weights for his money. Secondly he made an attempt to force a token currency on his people, brass coin being intended to pass current for silver. On one of these was inscribed "sealed as a tankah (a silver coin) current in the reign of the slave hopeful (of mercy) Muhammad Tuglak," while on the other side was the text from the Koran "He who obeys the Sultan, verily he obeys God". I hope that the measure of obedience his people gave their king is not to be taken as a measure of their religious devotion, for the scheme at once broke down owing to the fear of counterfeits, and the coins were taken back. A consideration of the weights of coins has led to the reconstruction of the old systems of coinage and even given us a clue to the solution of that important question, the relative value of gold and silver at different times. The Mughal Kings had the names of mint

cities stamped on their coins, and by collating the dates on these, we can readily trace the variation in their kingdoms. When Humayun took the city of Champanir, and extracted from the Governor, by the simple method of plying him with wine, the secret of the place where the treasure was hidden, he struck coins on which Champanir is called shahr-i-muharram or the "generous city." A few years ago while I was examining some treasure trove for the United Provinces Government, I came across a hitherto unpublished coin which bore the inscription "Shah Jahangir, the emperor of the time, the son of Akbar, the king of land and sea, struck coins in his camp on the road to the south in the year 1025," and thus fixes the date of one of Jahangir's invasions of the Deccan.

Now I may be asked, if all these discoveries have been made, what remains to be done? Let me read you an extract from a paper published in the number of the J. R. A. S. for January 1900 by Mr. Rapson of the British Museum, one of the best living authorities on ancient Indian coins. "Comparatively few of the very numerous series of Indian coins have yet been systematically collected. The attractions of the Græco-Indian class have apparently diverted the attention of most collectors from a study of the purely native ancient and mediæval coinages. But there can be no doubt of the great historical importance of these latter. Their evidence joined to that of the stone and copper-plate inscriptions furnishes practically the only *data* supplied by India herself for the reconstruction of her history. The extent to which this reconstruction has already been successfully made with the aid of such apparently inadequate and unpromising materials, surely leaves no doubt of the extreme importance from the historical point of view, of the study of Indian inscriptions and coins. The old gibe that Indian dates were merely so many pins set up to be bowled down again is now anything but true. The outline of Indian history is securely drawn, and many of the details are already filled in. The future progress which scholars will be able to make in this work depends principally on the amount of new material with which they are supplied by those who have opportunities of making discoveries and observation in India."

I have dealt chiefly with indigenous coins, but I would point out that there is still much to be done with the Græco-Bactrian coins, and probably new kings will be discovered. It must be remembered that the system of calling in coins of previous rulers is a recent one in India. So many fresh coins of the Pathans have been discovered

since Edward Thomas published his chronicle of the Pathans thirty years ago, that my friend Mr. Nelson Wright is contemplating a new edition. A few years ago when I was arranging the coins in the Lucknow museum, I came across a rupee of a puppet king who nominally reigned at Delhi for a few weeks, which was previously quite unknown. The coins of the Mughal kings which were neglected till the late Mr. C. J. Rodgers took them up, are still very far from complete. There is not a single museum in this country which has a really first class collection of all kinds of coins to be found in India. The object of the Muir College Historical Society is to promote the study of history in all its branches, and I hope that some others of my fellow-members may be induced to take up this fascinating portion of the great subject of Indian history. There is no country in the world where ancient coins are so plentiful as India. Every year thousands are turned up by the plough and the spade, or washed out of the ground during the rains. The study is perhaps difficult at first, as the characters on the ancient coins are unfamiliar, and many coins are incomplete. A little practice however soon makes the work of reading easier, and I shall always be glad to assist any member who finds difficulties. The Muir Central College is now recognized as an institution to which coins are presented by Government from the acquisitions made from treasure troves, and in time I hope that it will possess a collection of coins worthy of a great institution, and what is even better, that there will always be some members of this Society who are able to decipher the coins, and appreciate the information to be derived from them.

R. BURN.

A COURSE FOR D.LIT.

BY THE REV. E. DALE, M.A., D.LIT.

Many London graduates can, I suppose, look back, like myself, upon the time when, as humble and very diffident Matriculants, they entered upon their University course. Then, no doubt, they saw much hard work ahead, and hoped for nothing more ambitious than a degree, and with it the close of all strenuous reading. But now, after graduation, they find themselves in a very different frame of mind, turning their attention to a Post-Graduate course with the Doctorate as a final goal.

Perhaps a short description of a recent experience may serve to remove something of the hesitation and uncertainty which too often act as deterrents to those who would proceed to the

higher degrees. As one looks back upon small beginnings, the whole course takes a more just proportion, and becomes a far less formidable undertaking than it once seemed to be. Experience leads to a confident declaration that but three things are required as essentials before one sets out in quest of such a degree as that of the London D.Lit. And these three essentials, of almost equal importance but placed in regular sequence, are enthusiasm, direction, and determination.

Enthusiasm, at the outset, the student must possess: a keen, intelligent enthusiasm for the particular branch of learning in which the course is taken; and there are now so many branches from which to choose that it is hard to believe that there is not one branch of research study to attract each zealous aspirant. Research has in itself a subtle fascination, peculiarly its own, which makes for, as well as calls for, unbounded enthusiasm; and enthusiasm transforms what might otherwise seem an irksome labour into a hobby which one may ride easily and pleasurably over the roughest and stoniest places.

The enthusiast, I know, is often derided, but enthusiasm has in days gone by made many small men great. It is an invaluable asset, worth far more than means or time or even brains. With it, as much may be accomplished in an occasional couple of hours as the student lacking it would do in an eight-hour day, and that without any depreciation of quality. True enthusiasm is always economical. Usually our enthusiasm become centred upon definite objects which, for us, stand out from the monotonous level of all other objects; and here is a touchstone for our choice of subject. That in which one naturally takes delight, that which carries one on with it, is the only subject to choose when the Doctorate is in view. Naturally the object of an enthusiasm should be just that which makes up the greater part of life and work; and here again the student is led in the direction of his ultimate choice.

Research soon makes a vast difference in intellectual capacity: it means much in every way when one has learned to read against, instead of with, a book; when one discovers that even the most moral of books may lie. Even in minor scholastic duties such a training soon makes its value known; no mere book-reading can compare with it. In my own case I have been exceedingly fortunate in being able to draw into one study practically all the

foundations of my regular educational and ecclesiastical duties, comprising English, History, Latin, Theology, and Education for Training College and University Students. Even while reading for M.A., I was seeking a subject which should touch upon all these, so that the enthusiasm for Literature which was already generating should not dissipate itself in the air without doing work upon every side. But it must be confessed that my ideas were then very elementary, indefinite, and chaotic.

Hence the place of direction as the next essential in the sequence. I had graduated B.A.

after a course with University Correspondence College, and, as soon as opportunity allowed, had again availed myself of its course in English for M.A.—and with immediate success. This encouraged me to hope that the D.Lit. was not beyond attainment; and to University Correspondence College I applied for an opinion on the point and for general advice. I met with every encouragement and valuable assistance.

Already there had come to me a desire to work upon such a subject as "The Development of the Anglo-Saxon Conscience," but this was vetoed by the University Authorities as falling outside the purview of the branch in which the M.A. had been taken.* Afterwards Mr. Wyatt, the Senior Tutor in English at U. C. C., prepared a list of subjects to suit my taste and my desire; and by him I was furnished with an excellent send-off in the form of a Bibliography and many invaluable hints and directions.

Choice of a Subject. upon the chosen subject. To Mr. Wyatt's capable and scholarly direction the chief credit for my success is due. Thus the choice became "The Development of the National Character and Social Life, as reflected in English Literature"; to be restricted afterwards, as the matter grew into an unwieldy bulk, the year 1400 A.D. being made the limit of the study. My aim was to show the development of the Englishman from such a character as that of the antique hero Beowulf to that of Chaucer's worthy and pious "Parson of a Town."

Here there was undoubtedly a grand subject of unlimited scope; it will be seen at once that there are innumerable opportunities for bringing out a fine theory of development in many phases, in character, religion, education, morals, politics, manners, and customs. I have always had a

* The regulations have since been altered.

tender veneration for the Parson since I was first introduced to him many years ago; and now and again I still meet him in the flesh, and compare him as he is with what he was when Chaucer wrote of him. Thus a personal element was added which tended to stimulate still further the enthusiasm of the commencement.

So the choice was made; and with every confidence that success was somewhere along the line upon which I had set out, perhaps near, perhaps far off, but certainly along that line and no other, the work was begun. All depended now upon determination, the third member of the sequence. But it is a splendid spur to know that it is only a matter of holding on long enough to reach success. Besides, when the whole thing is bound up with all one has to do, half the work is a necessary duty, and the other half comes easily as a hobby.

About two or three hours extra each day, which might legitimately have been given as a recreation to collecting moths or stamps or picture-postcards, or perhaps to photography, served to produce some ten or twelve pages a week, often going over the same ground again and again, enlarging, revising, rearranging, striving after a better literary form and style, until within two years the Thesis of 280 pages was approved, and within two years and a half the degree was conferred.

Method of work. pages a week, often going over the same ground again and again, enlarging, revising, rearranging, striving after a better literary form and style, until within two years the Thesis of 280 pages was approved, and within two years and a half the degree was conferred.

I am convinced that the three essentials were but enthusiasm, direction, and determination.

THE COLLEGE OF JOURNALISM AT COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

In the *North American Review* for May 1904, there appeared a long article on the above subject by Mr. Joseph Pulitzer, who has founded the College of Journalism and permanently endowed it in Columbia University. This article was an answer to the criticisms passed on the college. Under the heading "What should be taught—and how," in the college, Mr. Pulitzer just takes up style. His idea of what the ideal newspaper style should be may be gathered from the following quotation: "Yet one style will not answer the manifold requirements of a newspaper. There must be a different style for each kind of work—polemical, descriptive, analytical, literary, satirical, expository, critical, narrative—and the mind of the editor like a trained musical ear, must be able to detect every note out of place."

An argumentative editorial on the tariff must not be written in the view that would be appropriate to a pathetic description of a mother's search for a lost child, nor must a satirical dissection of a politician resemble a report of a bankruptcy case. Referring to law, Mr. Pulitzer desires that only the leading principles of law should be taught in the College of Journalism. He says "The fundamental things—the settled principles of law—that touch closely the life and the welfare of the people can surely be taught in a series of lectures by eminent lawyers, aided by the standard text-books. Nearly forty years ago, preparatory to my admission to the bar in St. Louis, I not only read but studied Blackstone; and I have never seen the day in my whole journalistic experience when I did not feel thankful for what I then learned of the principles of law. A regular course in ethics, a more extended reading of literature than in a college career, 'the art of going at once to the proper source for any needed piece of information'—these should find places in the programme of the College of Journalism. In History, the following general subjects may be taught in a general manner: the history of politics; the growth and development of free institutions and the causes of their decay; revolutions, reforms and changes of Government; the influence of public opinion upon all progress; legislation; taxation; moral movements; slavery and war; conflicts between capital and labour; the history of colonisation and the history of journalism. The elements of sociology, economics, the history of arbitration, the use of statistics, some of the modern languages (French and German being specially noted by the author), the leading principles and the latest discoveries of physics, chemistry, biology and astronomy, the study of newspapers and of past journalism—these also must be taught. About the importance of the new venture, Mr. Pulitzer says "A cynical, mercenary, or demagogic press will produce in time a people as base as itself. The power to mould the future of the Republic will be in the hands of the journalists of future generations. This is why I urge my colleagues to aid the important experiment which I have ventured to endow. Upon their generous aid and co-operation the ultimate success of the project must depend."

Reviews and Notices.

ENGLISH MEN OF LETTERS: ADAM SMITH BY FRANCIS W. HIRST. (MACMILLAN & CO.) Price 2s. net.

Books like the *Encyclopædic*, the *Koran*, the *Bible* have transformed societies and made history. Though not of the high potency and vigour of the books above mentioned, *The Wealth of Nations* has in a lower plane been productive of the greatest practical and theoretical results. As Walter Bagehot says, its author prepared the way for the abstract Science of Political Economy. And he inspired the Free-trade movement advocated by Cobden, influenced the financial policy of Napoleon through M. Molliet. No mean achievements for one who struck the careless observer as a well-to-do lunatic.

There were heroes before Agamemnon, and confining oneself to England one could find writers who had hit upon many of the economic truths we now associate with Adam Smith. Sir William Petty was a determined opponent of the mercantilist views. Nicholas Barbon and Sir Dudley North were opponents of trade restrictions and mercantilism. But how little these views were accepted would be seen from the fact that only 9 years before the publication of Adam Smith's book appeared J. Stewart's *Inquiry into the Principles of Political Economy* wherein he confuses 'money with capital, value with price and wages with profits.' And yet a year before this book on the other side of the Channel had appeared Turgot's *Essay on Wealth* in which were unmistakably expounded those principles that Adam Smith was to make so popular.

If only we could adopt the fancy of Swift and there should be a reclamation of goods by the owners, how many passing rich now in the world of thought would show wonderfully poor, slight and unmeritable. An attempt of the kind has been made by the historical school and its leader in Germany, Professor Schmoller, has "placed Adam Smith somewhere below Galiani, Necker, Hoffman, Thünen, and Rümelin." (p. 181.)

Mr. Hirst thus explains such freaks of criticism: "The reason why economists of the modern historical school so often fail as valuers of men and books, is that they are enjoined by the very laws of their existence to be 'learned'; and learning requires that obscure and deservedly forgotten writers should be rediscovered and magnified at the expense of surviving greatness." (Id.)

The glory of Adam Smith is that, though the ideas embodied in the book had been foreshadowed or explicitly put forth by earlier writers, especially by the Physiocrats, he was the first to co-ordinate them properly, expound them with a wealth of concrete illustration, define practically the limits of the new science, and lay the foundations broad and deep on which the modern structure has been raised. *Opus superabit materiam*. Adam Smith presents the thought of his predecessors in such a form that in his hands, says Mr. L. L. Price, it may be regarded as new. And says the same writer 'if we look carefully into the writings of those who have come after him, we discover that in many cases he may without unfairness be described as having anticipated the essential points of their teaching.'

The publication of the lectures on *Justice and Police* vindicated the originality of Adam Smith. Dugald Stewart stated in his memoir of the author that no MS. of these lectures had been preserved. But luckily an accurate copy of the lectures taken down by a student with the signature of 'J. A. Maconochie, 1811' on the front cover was rescued by Mr. Charles C. Maconochie from a garret room in 1876, and Mr. E. Cannan, getting to know of the find, undertook to edit it. The task has been admirably done. As the MS. copy can be traced back to 1762-3, years before he left Glasgow, and before the date of the *Reflexions* in the *Epheméris*, there can be no question that the Economic ideas he gave forth in the lectures reflected his own political wisdom.

In these lectures Political Economy comes in as a part of the course on *Justice, Police, Revenue and Arms*. Under the head of *Police*, the lectures give "a rough draft of the *Wealth of Nations*, containing (with some noteworthy exceptions) the main arguments and many of the illustrations which appeared a dozen or more years later in the book. ... In Mr. Cannan's words, 'it enables us to follow the gradual construction of the work from its very foundation, and to distinguish positively between what the original genius of its author created out of British materials on the one hand, and French materials on the other.'" (p. 79.)

The lectures correspond closely with the later treatise, except for the additions on colonial policy, expenditure and the theory of taxation, and they have, what the treatise has not, a theory of consumption. For a full analysis of the lectures we must refer our readers to Mr. Hirst's book. The relation of the lectures to *The Wealth of Nations*

is fully explained and a final demolition made of *Das Adam Smith Problem*.

We have dealt at some length on *The Wealth of Nations*, for it is on that book mainly the author's fame rests, and the whole world with Mr. Pitt and other statesmen have been learning from the theory of Moral Sentiments, it must be mentioned as occupying an important position in the development of the 18th century ethical theory. The central idea of the ethical system as he expounded it is the importance he attaches to sympathy—an aspect of human nature ignored in *The Wealth of Nations*. We need not dwell on it further.

The biographical part of the work based mainly on Mr. Rae's *Life of Adam Smith* supplemented by independent research has been admirably done. The book is an opportune addition to the series at a time when there is a disposition to belittle the teachings of Adam Smith.

செந்தமிழ் Nos. 4 and 5 of Vol. 3). EDITED BY R. RAGHAVA IYENGAR. (Each No. 8 as.) published by Madura Tamil Sanga Press.

We thank the publishers for a copy of the high class Tamil monthly. We find in the numbers before us two instalments of செந்தமிழ் that Pundit V. Swaminatha Aiyar is bringing out. Mr. J. M. Nallasami Pillai writes on Buddhism, Mr. T. A. Gopinatha Rao on Tirupati, the Editor on Kamban, &c. The Journal is calculated to do great good in spreading a knowledge of the wealth of Tamil literature and in making accessible to those ignorant of English the results of Western learning. May we suggest the style need not be 'high.' செந்தமிழ் will cease to be செந்தமிழ் if it will bate a jot of its dignity. Still as the conductors are familiar with the severe simplicity and unadorned utterance of the best thought in European literature, is it not a good thing to attempt to transfer these useful features to Tamil literature?

EXPERIMENTAL AND PRACTICAL GEOMETRY FOR BEGINNERS, BY HALL AND STEVENS. (MACMILLAN & CO.)

The old method of teaching Geometry to young boys by making them get by heart Euclid's definitions and some elementary geometrical truths having proved unsuccessful in the majority of cases, various attempts are being made to make the study of that subject easy and interesting.

The object of this book is to enable the boys to have a clear conception of the definitions of Euclid and of some elementary geometrical principles and to use them intelligently. The boys are first introduced to some geometrical solids from which they are made to see and understand for themselves the meaning of most of the definitions. Then a few important propositions about the properties of straight lines, angles and parallel straight lines are given and they are illustrated and explained practically by diagrams drawn with the help of drawing instruments and the students are asked to test the accuracy of such illustrations by actually measuring them or by some other practical methods. The results of such tests are so convincing that the principles demonstrated leave a strong impression in the minds of the students and are therefore remembered always. By this means the further study of the subject is rendered easy and intelligible. We have glanced through the book and find it to be a useful book for beginners.

"THE INDIAN CITIZEN," BY AN INDIAN CITIZEN.
SATAKOPACHARI & CO., MADRAS

"This book is intended to be a hand-book on Indian Citizenship in the hands of every one who desires to know all about India, its present condition and administration, and its future welfare." "Almost all possible subjects are treated of, at least in an elementary manner." These are the modest claims of the author. As Sir William Lee-Warner's book "treats of the same subjects from a different point of view" the author has produced this book "representing the point of view of the people," more freely expressing "all the advantages and benefits of British rule without reservation or delicacy." And what is the performance? Who are the people whose views the author professes to represent? We see that he characterises the arguments of educated Indians as "misconceptions," "some false ideas," "criticisms" (unjust it must be assumed) "some wrong notions," and so on. Then does he represent the 277 illiterate millions whose appreciation of British rule is based on absolute ignorance of how other nations are progressing in the world? Anyhow, the author is over-bold when he says that his book represents "the point of view of the people." The author's title to represent the Indians will be settled by one or two quotations. "The initiative, skill, and self-relying grit will probably be always wanting, so that India cannot but be in England's leading strings throughout." "We notice that there are no Indian officers

either in the army or the navy. By nature they cannot make superior military or naval officers." "That they (the Indians) live on very little food is true, but their habits are such that they stint in food and comforts, and spend their savings in social demonstrations. Even if wealth accumulates in their hands, they will live in the same way." After thus mis-representing the people "without reservation or delicacy," the author reveals what is to be the greatest blessing of British rule "It is Providence who in His own good and kind way, so that the people of India may all unite in one common faith to worship Him truly and sincerely, has thought it fit and opportune to make this country wax in greatness." And what is that common faith? "The 'natural' religious of India have done their work well in the past. The revealed religion of Europe, according to the ideas of Europeans, should perhaps do greater work in the future." We have noticed the book at greater length than might have been necessary. We are bound to say that the first seven chapters are well written. If the author had merely stated facts and refrained from uttering his *obiter dicta*, he might really have done something useful.

"THE PARAPHRASE OF POETRY," A MANUAL FOR SCHOOLS, BY EDMUND CANDLER, B.A., (CANTAB.)
GEORGE BELL AND SONS, LONDON.

Ability to paraphrase is commonly accepted as a useful test of proficiency in English, and this book is intended to help the learner to paraphrase well. In his preface, Mr. Candler dwells on the uses of paraphrase and opines that good paraphrase is possible if passages be selected carefully. "The purely lyrical, the highly imaginative, the impassioned and spontaneous, the poetry that owes most to the glamour of rhythm and cadence are not for paraphrase." Then, if proper passages can be given the exercise may be fairly attempted. The author gives the familiar directions, and paraphrases a pretty large number of pieces as models. Some fifty pieces of poetry, selected from various authors, are given at the end as exercises for the student. The book may be profitably used by our Matriculation candidates.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

DEPARTMENTAL NOTIFICATIONS.

Educational Department.

Mr. D. A. Hobday, B.A., Assistant Inspector of Schools, Tinnevely division, is to act as Headmaster, Government Madrasa-i-Azam, during the absence of Mr. C. W. Moss on leave, or until further orders.

Khaja Khan Sahib Bahadur, B.A., Sub-Assistant Inspector of Muhammadan Schools, Central Circle, is to act as Assistant Inspector of Schools, Tinnevely division, during the absence of Mr. Hobday on other duty, or until further orders.

Mr. S. Mangesh Rao, B.A., is appointed Vice-Principal, Teachers' College.

Mr. S. Subramania Aiyar, B.A., is appointed First Assistant, Teachers' College.

Mr. M. Venkataratnam, B.A., is appointed Second Assistant, Teachers' College.

Mr. H. J. Allen, M.A., (Barrister-at-Law), is appointed Principal, Presidency College, during the absence of Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck, M.A., on leave, or until further orders.

Mr. H. S. Duncan, M.A. is appointed Professor of English in the Presidency College, during the absence of Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck, M.A., on leave, or until further orders.

Mr. C. Nagoji Rao, B.A., Rao Bahadur, to do duty as Principal, Kumbakonam College, *vice* Mr. H. S. Duncan, M.A., on other duty, or until further orders.

The above arrangements will take effect from the date of reopening of the Presidency College after the ensuing midsummer vacation.

Major D. Simpson, I.M.S., is appointed Professor of Midwifery, Medical College, Madras, in succession to Lieutenant-Colonel A. J. Starmer, I.M.S.

Major F. J. Crawford, M.D., I.M.S., is appointed Professor of Anatomy, Medical College, Madras, in succession to Major D. Simpson, I.M.S.

Major O. Donovan, I.M.S., is appointed Professor of Physiology, including Practical and Chemical Physiology, Medical College, Madras, in succession to Major F. J. Crawford, I.M.S.

Major E. H. Wright, I.M.S., is appointed Professor of Medical Jurisprudence, Medical College, Madras, during the employment of Lieutenant-Colonel W. B. Browning, I.M.S., on other duty or until further orders.

Mr. S. Soundararaja Aiyangar, is appointed Assistant Inspector of Schools, Tinnevely range, with effect from the date of retirement of Mr. T. S. Lakshminarayana Aiyar. To join on the forenoon of 8th May, 1905.

Miss M. Scott-Coward, Superintendent of the Presidency Training School for Mistresses, Madras, is granted furlough on medical certificate for four months and four days, with effect from the 17th June.

Mr. J. M. Hunter, Principal, Rajamundry College, has been permitted to return to duty within the period of his leave.

Mr. V. S. Narayana Rao, Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Chittoor Range, is granted privilege leave of absence for two months on full pay, with effect from 1st June.

Mr. C. Muniswami Naidu, Supervisor of Primary Schools, Chittoor Sub-Range, is appointed to act as Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Chittoor Range, in the probationary class during the absence of Mr. V. S. Narayana Rao, on leave.

Mr. M. Abdul Kalek, Supervisor of Muhammadan Primary Schools, Madras, is appointed to act as Sub-Assistant Inspector of Muhammadan Schools, Central Circle, in class IV, during the employment of Khaja Khan Sahib Bahadur, B.A., on other duty.

A STUDENTSHIP under the Tata Education Scheme has been awarded to Mr. B. Sanjiva Row, B.A., a student of the Presidency College, Madras, to enable him to undergo a course of studies in England. Mr. Sanjiva Row is a native of South Canara, and is only 20 years of age. He had a distinguished career in the University and was to have gone up for the M.A. Degree examination this year. Mr. Sanjiva Row intends competing for the Indian Civil Service.

THE Annual Report of the working of the St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, is to hand. The total strength of the College in all classes on 31st December 1904 was 1317, as compared with 1442 on the same date of 1903. The fall is considerable, says the Report, but occurs chiefly in the Secondary classes and, being attributable partly to the number of Secondary Schools now in Trichinopoly and partly to stricter discipline in promotion, is one that may be regarded with equanimity.

The results in all the public examinations were good. A pleasing feature of the Report is the long list of donors of prizes which strikingly illustrates the popularity of the institution.

THE prize distribution of the St. Mary's College, Madras, came off in the last week of April. The number of students on the rolls on the 31st March 1904 was 466 while on the corresponding date this year the total was 404 owing to the abolition of the B divisions of the VI and V Forms and the restricted admission of new pupils. The college did fairly well in the public examinations.

THE S. P. G. High School, Vepery, held its prize distribution in the last week of April. The number on the rolls at the end of 1904 was 332 against 394 at the end of the previous year. The school collections too were less by Rs. 320 odd. In the Matriculation Examination the pupils of the school did not fare well, only two having passed out of fourteen.

In the Lower Secondary Examination the results were good, 17 out of 24 having come out successful.

THE Annual Meeting of the Muhammadan Educational Association was held on the 24th April with Mr. Justice Boddam in the chair. Mr. Muhammad Azizuddin Sahib delivered an interesting address. He emphasised the necessity of looking after the Muhammadan boy from a child one year old through the whole course of education. Everything about him including bodily cleanliness needed improvement. The Chairman, who is one of the most steadfast friends of the Muhammadan community, dwelt on the necessity there existed of more Muhammadans coming forward to help the National Fund of the Muhammadan Educational Association. He pointed out that gentlemen who were not members of the Muslim Community have come forward with liberal donations while many Muhammadans have been very lukewarm in their sympathy and help. He called on Muhammadans to be a little more brisk and appealed to them to subscribe liberally towards the National Fund.

THE National High School Day was held on the 22nd April at Trichinopoly. The Hon'ble Mr. L. A. Govindaraghava Aiyar made an interesting speech of which the following is an abstract.

He said that owing to a variety of considerations, the subject of education had assumed a very great importance. India was passing through a stage of transition in all the aspects of her existence, namely, religion, society, politics and industries. Of all these none exercised so potent and lasting an influence as education, and it was our duty to devise a sound system of national education.

But we were told that India was not a nation, as there were a large number of conflicting elements in the country. He would confidently say that those who held that view paid but a poor compliment to English supremacy in the country. Whatever might be the case with the past, now we had elements which tended to a national life. Coming to the question of education he would say that any system they might adopt must be in keeping with the characteristics of the Indian people. There must be a strong ethical background to it. Any wholesale transplanting of Western methods would not answer our purpose. He said that the proposers of toasts that evening referred to the imparting of religious education in that school. There might be differences of opinion as to the need and practicability of giving religious instruction in schools, but, so far as Trichinopoly was concerned, local circumstances demanded that there must be an institution where Hindu youths would be taught their own religion and well grounded in its principles so as to counteract missionary efforts. He was glad of the good work done in that direction by the National High School.

The speaker next referred to the need of educating their boys in Sanskrit, which was their classical literature, and also to the development of a sound Vernacular literature, the absence of which was a drag on our progress.

After a brief reference to the value of female education, the speaker appealed for a better treatment of the Panchamas, and said that, if no better consideration were shown them, they would grow disaffected towards their community. He also advocated more attention being paid to the native system of gymnastics which would in a way enhance our love of country. Continuing, the speaker said that having seen what kind of education we needed, the next point to consider was how best to avail ourselves of that system. One important step would be the instituting of hostels under the supervision of managers who would not only preach morals to their wards, but also practise them themselves. However sound our plans and ideas of national education might be, we could not hope for success in our efforts unless we gave up the life of contradictions which we were leading, ceased to look up to Government for help and relied mainly upon ourselves, and each of us felt that it was his duty to give his mite to the education of Indian youths and realised that he was doing something which would benefit not only his own generation, but generations yet unborn.

DURING the Shakespeare Commemoration Week in April, the Suguna Vilasa Sabha acted "The Merchant of Venice" in Tamil, "All's Well That Ends Well" in Telugu, and "Othello" in English. Two lectures were delivered on Shakespeare, one by Mr. V. V. Srihivasa Aiyangar presided over by Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck, and the other by Mr. K. S. Ramaswami Sastri presided over by Mr. V. Krishnaswami Aiyar. The Sabha held a successful Shakespeare Carnival on the 29th instant. On the same night the members of the Triplicane Hindu High School Literary Society enacted scenes from "the Merchant of Venice."

THE Annual Meeting of the Madras Teachers' Guild was held on Saturday, the 29th April, at the Wesley College, Royapettah, Mr. S. Sathianadhan presiding. There was only a small attendance of members.

THE ANNUAL REPORT.

The Report for the past year was read by Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri, one of the Secretaries. We take the following extracts from it:—

The strength of the Guild is as follows:—Honorary Members, 2; Associates, 5; Affiliated Associations, 3; Madras Members, 135; and Mofussil, 45. There were only two changes in the staff of the officers of the Guild. Miss Parsons, B. A., L. T., retired from the Ladies' Secretaryship, and Dr. C. B. Rama Row from the Council. Miss Parsons' place was not filled up, but in the place of Dr. C. B. Rama Row, Mr. N. Ramanujachariar, M. A., of Pachaiyappa's College, was elected. A set of the Special Reports of the English Education Office was purchased and added to the Library. The Reading-rooms were, as

usual, in rotation at the Madras Christian College, Wesley College, and Doveton College. For the use of these rooms the Guild is indebted to the authorities of these Institutions, and its thanks are due to the teachers who have acted as librarians at the various places. The library was re-arranged this year, and a new and full catalogue has been prepared. Perhaps in consequence of this, better use is now made of the library than during some years past.

The idea of starting a Benevolent Fund for teachers having fallen through, proposals for a Provident Fund Scheme were laid before the Council. In the beginning of this year the Council resolved to ascertain what support the scheme might receive from managers of institutions and a circular has been addressed to them with that object. The Guild has lost one of its strongest supporters and most energetic workers in the person of the Rev. F. W. Kellett, who died while on leave. The Guild met on the 13th August, at Pachaiyappa's College, to consider measures for a Kellett Memorial. The Special Committee appointed at that meeting issued an appeal, and addressed about a thousand persons in all. About Rs. 1,000 has been promised and of this amount Rs. 780 5-0 has been collected up to date. The Honorary Treasurer's balance sheet shows a balance of Rs. 458 3-6. This includes the Rs. 200 set apart as the Guild's first contribution towards the Benevolent Fund.

The adoption of the Report was then duly proposed and seconded.

MR. W. E. HOARE'S SPEECH.

MR. W. E. HOARE, speaking about the Report, observed, with regard to the proposals for a Provident Fund Scheme, that all Colleges, High Schools and Middle Schools ought to have a Provident Fund for Teachers. They would gain enormously if the Guild, as an Institution, instead of starting a Fund, pressed this matter on the attention of Government, in season and out of season, with a view to have such Funds started in the larger institutions of the Presidency, and thus showed to teachers at large that something tangible and definite had been done. It was necessary that the Guild should have an organ of its own to voice and put forward its views. He would like to see the Teachers' Guild take over and work in union with one of the existing educational journals, in which their debates and their views generally could be put forward. With regard to the smallness of the attendance at the Annual Meeting, though he did not wish to justify it, he ventured to observe that several members kept away from the Guild Meetings because they felt that most of the subjects discussed, and papers read, were not very practical. It was necessary that those who attended the meetings should not feel that their time was wasted. At the last Educational Conference, for instance, there was a little too much of the solitary view on questions which were perhaps not very practical. The absence of many from the present meeting did not prove a want of educational interest, but he was afraid that it was because the Guild

was out of touch with the educational wants of the day.

Rev. Pollard and Messrs. S. Varadachariar, and K. B. Ramanatha Aiyar, also spoke on the subject. The last-named gentleman replied to the observations of Mr. Hoare, saying that the senior educationists and men of high status did not as a rule take much interest in the Guild's work.

THE CHAIRMAN'S SPEECH.

The CHAIRMAN remarked that, as one of those connected with the Guild from the very commencement, he was not prepared to take the pessimistic view taken by some of the members. Looking at the small company around him he could find at least seven members who were most enthusiastic in starting the Guild, who, throughout, had been loyal to the Guild, and who had worked for it with all their might. It was true that the attendance at the present meeting was not as large as it had been at some of the other gatherings, but it must be remembered that some of the gatherings of the past had additional attractions in the way of music, refreshments, and other things, and a large number of people were attracted, who, so far as the working of the Guild was concerned, were passive agents. So far as the working part of the Guild was concerned, he did not think there was any falling-off. With regard to the question of non-attendance, it must be remembered that teachers were a most hard-worked class, and found it very difficult after a hard day's labour to go a long distance to attend meetings. For his own part, he had not been able to attend the Guild meetings for want of time, and he believed that was the case with many others who had been absent, but who still had at heart the welfare of the Guild. They were all extremely thankful to Mr. Hoare for many very practical suggestions. Two of these struck him as being important. One was that the Guild should take up for discussion subjects of present-day interest. In the choosing of subjects for discussion, or of papers to be read, it was necessary that all the members of the Guild should be consulted and suggestions invited from them. Another good suggestion was, instead of trying to start a Provident Fund or Benevolent Fund, to induce Educational Agencies to start Provident Funds in connection with all old institutions. That was something which, if done, would produce beneficial results.

The Report was put to the meeting and adopted. Office-bearers were elected, and after a few concluding remarks from the Chairman, the meeting terminated with the usual votes of thanks. The present Secretaries are Rev. C. Pollard, Mr. S. Vasudevachariar, and Miss Parsons.

BOMBAY.

The Hindu Education Fund was started in Bombay in June 1901 and registered as a Charitable Society under Act XXI of 1867 on the 14th August, 1902. The object of the Fund is to assist students

[MAY 1905.]

who desire to study in England for Indian Service Examinations or visit foreign countries for the purpose of Technical and Scientific Education. Those who pay one month's income or at least Rs. 300 in a lump or by instalments are enrolled as members of the Fund. There are now 99 members on the roll. Mr. Dravid of Yeotmal has contributed Rs. 10,000. A few gentlemen from Kolhapur have contributed Rs. 9,000. Eleven others have paid sums ranging from Rs. 500 to 2000, forty nine from Rs. 300 to Rs. 500, and the rest Rs. 300 each. Forty other gentlemen have promised to join the Fund. Donations subscribed by the members amount to about Rs. 55,000, and the promised donations to about Rs. 18,000. Nearly Rs. 20,000 have been spent in paying loan scholarships to the five students sent by the Trustees to England and Japan, whilst the balance has been invested in proper securities. Of the five students who are at present receiving aid from the Fund three were selected, out of several applicants. Mr. Dhavle, who is a Cambridge graduate, left India in June 1901 and is now a student of Trinity College, Dublin. Mr. Bhide, who was a student of Fergusson College, joined St. John's College, Cambridge, after his graduation. Both of them are studying for the Indian Civil Service Examination. Mr. P. M. Bapat, who is a Mangaldas Scholar, went to Edinburgh in 1904. He is studying Electric Engineering. Mr. G. N. Potdar who was educated at the Nizam's College, Hyderabad, is a student of the Science College, in the Imperial University at Tokio in Japan and has taken up the course in Manufacturing Chemistry. Mr. Mandhale, who is an L.M. & S. and L.R.C. P. (London) is studying at Liverpool for the Indian Medical Service. Dr. M. G. Dashmukh, M.D., the Hon. Mr. G. K. Gokhale, and four others are the Trustees of the Fund, and Dr. G. B. Kher, the Honorary Secretary. The Trustees propose to send one or two students to Germany or America every year, for higher technical or scientific training should the funds admit of such a course. But as usual, they are handicapped for want of sufficient funds. They have, therefore, issued an appeal to all classes of public-spirited and generous Hindus to assist the Fund by enrolling themselves as members of the Fund. The object of the Trustees is to encourage poor but deserving Hindu youths of whatever caste or creed to travel to foreign countries for obtaining the best educational facilities and they have made an earnest appeal to all classes of Hindus to support them in their efforts by liberal and timely assistance. —Gujrathi.

BENGAL.

The "Research Prize in Comparative Indian Law," was instituted in 1902 by Babu Jogendra Chandra Ghosh and consists of the value of Rs. 1000. The subject for the year 1906 will be:—

Discuss the theory of adoption as expounded by the Hindu Smriti Sastras, and compare the Law regarding the adoption of an only son therein contained with the decision of the Privy Council and of the

different High Courts and other Courts in British India on that subject.

Candidates are required to send their essays to the Registrar, Calcutta University, on or before the 1st day of July 1905.

One of the Herbert Spencer Indian Travelling Fellowships, recently founded by Mr. Shyamjit Krishnavarma, M.A. (Oxon), has been awarded to Babu Sarat Chandra Mukerji, M.A., B.L., Vakil, High Court. Babu Sarat Chandra Mukerji is a distinguished graduate of the Calcutta University and is well-known for his sound scholarship and wide culture. He is a son of the late Babu Sital Chandra Mukerji, a veteran journalist, and the brother of Babu Satya Chandra Mukerji, M.A., B.L., of the Allahabad Bar.

The Annual Meeting of the Senate of the Calcutta University was held on the 14th April with Mr. A. Pedler in the chair. The report and accounts for the past year were adopted. On the motion of Mr. Justice Pargiter, Mr. Kali-Churn Bannerji was unanimously appointed to be Registrar subject to the new regulations that would be established under the Act and the appointment of the Registrar thereunder. A committee of 5 gentlemen was appointed to consider the Preonath Dutt legacy.

The Registrar reported to the Senate that a sum of Rs. 2,00,000 had been allotted by the Government of India to the Calcutta University for 1904-1905, out of the special grant of five lakhs which the Government of India had decided to make for the benefit of the University and Collegiate education, and in Council desired that this grant to the Calcutta University should be expended, were as follows:— (a) Payment of travelling allowance of Fellows residing in the mofussil—Rs. 5,000 has been allotted for the purpose. (b) Inspection of Colleges—In order to meet the initial expenditure connected with this proposal the sum of Rs. 15,000 has been specially allotted. (c) Acquisition of land for the use of the University.—The balance of the grant, Rs. 1,80,000, has been set apart to be utilized for this purpose.

It was moved and carried that a vote of thanks be offered to the Government for their gift. Another committee of five gentlemen was appointed to select a suitable site in the neighbourhood of the Senate House for extending the University premises, to take steps for acquiring the land so selected, and to suggest the purposes for which buildings should be erected on the land so acquired.

The Society for the Advancement of Scientific and Industrial Education of Indians have sent the following students to foreign countries:—

1. Babu Kalicharan Nandy, B.A., B.L., Mining and Electrical Engineering, New-castle on Tyne; 2. Babu Dhirendri Kumar Ray B.A., Pharmacy, Edinburgh; 3. Babu Indu Bhushan De, B.A., Agriculture, America;

MAY 1905.]

4. Mr. Basheeruddin Abdu Taher, B.A., Leather Industry, America; 5. Babu Lalit Mohan Sen, Mechanical Engineering, Glasgow; 6. Babu Indu Bhushan Vidyanta, Weaving, Spinning and Dyeing, Japan; 7. Babu Santi Pada Gupta, Enamel, Button and Soap, Japan; 8. Babu Jogendra Prosad Bose, Printing Ink, Soap and Pencil, Japan; 9. Babu Mohesh Chandra Ray, Silk, Button and Horncomb, Japan; 10. Babu Ananda Prokash Ghose, Matches, Cement and Lacquer-work, Japan; 11. Babu Jagannath Sabai, Weaving, Spinning and Dyeing, Japan; 12. Babu Laksheswar Barthakur, Mining and Pencil, Japan; 13. Babu Purnachandra Ray, Glass and Choories, Japan; 14. Babu Nishikanta Banerjee, India Rubber, Japan; 15. Kumur Amindra Narain, Agriculture and Fibres, Japan.

Those who will proceed to foreign countries in June; 16. Babu Gopal Chandra Sen, M.A., B.L., Manufacturing Chemistry, Edinburgh; 17. Babu Jatinendra Kumar Das Gupta, Mechanical Engineering, Glasgow; 18. Mr. Mujiruddin Ahmed, Silk and Matches, Japan; 19. Mr. Anwaruddin Ahmed, Leather Industry, Japan.

The Hon'ble Babu Bhupendra Nath Bose in addressing the Mymensingh Conference on April 23rd made the following remarks on

PRIMARY AND FREE EDUCATION FOR THE MASSES.

Gentlemen: Provincial Conferences have this advantage over the meetings of the Congress that they can deal in greater detail with local questions. In the foreground, I have naturally and necessarily placed the questions which affect our life and interest as a nation but other questions of great importance also await our attention, the principal amongst them being the education of the masses. An uneducated mass is a source of danger and weakness to the State. Education is the paramount duty of the State, specially the education of the poor. The Government of Bengal cannot be said to have done its duty in this direction so long. It has let matters drift to the great detriment of its own interests and the interests of the people. A few figures will explain what I mean. Not to speak of other countries, but taking the other provinces of the Empire. Bombay spends on primary education Rs. 170 per 1000 of population, Berar Rs. 75, Assam Rs. 83 and we spend only Rs. 11 per 1000; and of this Rs. 11, the provincial revenues contribute 78 per cent., local funds 67.3 per cent., the rest being met by fees and other sources of revenue. I shall not trouble you with details, but I may say, by way of illustration, taking the latest figures available, viz., those for the year 1903-04, that of the total sum of Rs. 7,18,614, spent on Upper Primary education, only Rs. 44,622 was contributed by provincial and Rs. 2,24,211 from local funds, and the rest of the expenditure with a small contribution from Municipal Funds was met from fees. Of the total sum of 30 lakhs (speaking in round numbers) spent on primary education for boys and girls, the Provincial revenues contributed Rs. 1,43,000, the local boards 7,48,000 or the Municipalities 53,000 and Rs. 16,36,000 were derived from fees, that is to say, more than half the cost of

elementary education in Bengal is borne by the agriculturalists and artisans for whose children this education is primarily intended. I might say, for those people contribute equally with the landed classes toward the district funds from which such a heavy contribution is levied.

In most civilized countries, elementary education is compulsory and free: why should it be so heavily handicapped in one of the poorest countries in the world and with a backward and illiterate population? Our Government can certainly achieve what the Native States of Baroda and Mysore are trying to. Even under the present state of things, nearly every boy in 3 from amongst the classes who attend primary schools is sent to school. If the burdens were lightened, there is no doubt that a great impetus could be given to the spread of education amongst the masses. As in other countries, so in ours elementary education ought to be free, and it is not difficult to make it compulsory. The masses have remained submerged for centuries. There has been no buoyant force to lift them up. To the eternal credit of England be it said that she has not followed in India the traditions of the past. Knowledge is no longer the monopoly of the few but the heritage of all,—not an exclusive goddess who will receive worship from privileged hands but a beneficent deity who will accept any votary who has got the devotion and the spirit. And therein, to my mind, lies the meaning of the inscrutable dispensation of Providence by which the East has been brought under the West. But though our Government has removed the barriers and given the impetus, it has not followed up its policy with whole-heartedness. We are glad that the Government is now awakening to its responsibilities and that the grants on primary education are being enhanced. We are thankful to the Imperial Government for the grant of 10 lakhs of Rupees made for primary education in Bengal. We welcome the efforts of Government to devise some means for the wider diffusion of knowledge amongst the masses, and to render elementary education more attractive to those for whom it is intended. We trust, however, in this connection, that the Government is by this time convinced that it is neither necessary nor desirable to write text books in English and then translate them into the dialects of Bengal that they may be read and understood by the Bengali agriculturalist and the Bengali artisan.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.

But if the Government has a duty with regard to primary education it has also a duty in regard to higher education. The total direct expenditure on higher education was Rs. 5,87,000 in 1903-1904. The indirect expenditure on scholarships amounted to 1,35,000, and taking buildings, direction, inspection, it would amount to about Rs. 4,50,000. On a liberal computation we may take the total expenditure direct and indirect, at Rs. 12,00,000. This is a very small expenditure on higher education for a population of 74 millions and very small expenditure

indeed for a State with an available income of nearly 7 crores of Rupees.

It is an expenditure or rather parsimony wholly unjustifiable any way you look at it. What is the basis of the purity of the services, judicial and executive, on which the Government takes such a just pride but higher education? What gives the backbone to the professional classes, who, because they are such fearless critics of Government, may not be over much liked and are often maligned, who act sometimes as a stimulus to Government and discharge the function of His Majesty's Opposition in England, without the opportunities which the Opposition enjoy? But for them, Jove would be found nodding and the speeches of our rulers would fall flat like stale soda water and not effervesce like sparkling champagne which charms and also inebriates. The duty of Government is clear: if it wants to elevate and purify its services, the only panacea is education, the only stimulus is a just and equitable treatment.

Public attention may be diverted by elaborate commissions, the public voice may be choked by bulky resolutions, royal pledges of grace and mercy and justice may be distorted by brilliant sophistry which serves to obscure what it professes to explain, but the cardinal question remains if the people are to be elevated they must be educated.

Gentlemen, the Universities have been reconstituted and it is claimed for them that they will give an impetus to higher education which was lacking under the old system. Let us hope it will. Let us hope the new system will work with sympathy and that it will conduce to the elevation of our people; but we fear. On a recent occasion while validating the illegalities of the Universities, His Excellency, referring to the University of Calcutta, was pleased to observe that the prophecies of those who opposed the University Bill and have predicted that the Senate would be Europeanized had not been fulfilled and that there was an actual excess of 8 Indian members over the European. Gentlemen, there is a saying amongst us that what is pastime to the gods is sin to the mortals: in our mythology superior persons were classed as gods. It may be permissible to His Excellency to start and demolish an argument which was never advanced. To us, men of the East, it is not so permissible. Our contention was not that the Senate would have a majority of Englishmen, but that it would have always an overwhelming official majority classing therein the English members, official, semi-official, and non-official and the official Indian members. In the list of nominated members, apart from 6 "ex-officio" fellows, out of 71 members, 53 are Englishmen and Indian officials and quasi-officials. How a Senate so constituted pays regard to Indian interests was shown by the recent elections of members by the faculties, who out of a total number of 8, elected 7 officials, and who constituted a Syndicate in which there would have been no Indian but for the faculty of law. I will go into further details. The Senate, through its

faculties, had to elect 10 members, of whom 8 were given by the faculties of arts, science, medicine and engineering. These faculties elected 7 officials, pure and simple. The faculty of law alone elected 2 non-officials. Then followed an incident which probably the Government itself had not anticipated. The faculties of this Senate in which His Excellency was pleased to observe that there was a majority of 3 Indians proceeded to appoint a Syndicate. Would you believe that, excepting from the faculty of law, no Indian was elected? We have got a Syndicate of 10 members, of whom 8 are Europeans and 2 Indians, both elected by the faculty of law; but for the faculty of law, the whole Syndicate would have consisted of Europeans only and the direction of the education of Bengal, with a native population of 73 millions and a half, would have remained in the hands of a body composed wholly of Europeans. Such a thing would be impossible and intolerable in any other country but India.

Gentlemen, I need not disclose to what lengths the Syndicate so constituted had gone in appointing the various committees of the Senate, how carefully all independent men were excluded. But in this connection I may be permitted to thank, on behalf of the entire educated community, the Rector of our University Sir Andrew Fraser, who with a truly statesman-like instinct used his personal influence to infuse some element of independent Indian opinion into the composition of these committees. But for him the non-official Indian element would have been nowhere. Gentlemen, this is not the only service Sir Andrew Fraser has rendered us in matters educational, for his heart is in the work of education. Let us hope that in the remaining years of His Honour's administration the reproach which has so justly attached to Government for its neglect of this most important branch of administration will be removed. But while not minimizing the responsibility of the Government, may I be permitted to observe that, in matters of education specially in the higher branches, we, the people, have not done our duty: where are the foundations, where the scholarships, where the prizes, where the facilities which public spirit in other countries has given to education? Until that spirit is created amongst us, until our rich men come to realize that the best way to perpetuate their names is to connect them with some great work of public utility, until our educated community feel that they who owe so much to the education they have received, have a debt to repay to the country which has given them the education, real progress cannot be hoped for at all.

At a meeting of the Ranchi College Scheme Committee, held on the 23rd April, the following Resolutions were carried:—(1) That Raja Premada Nath Roy, Maharaja Manindra Chandra Nandi of Cossim-bazar, and Dr. Denison Ross, Principal of the Calcutta Madrasah, should be invited to join the Executive Committee. (2) That the Hon. Mr. H. W. C. Carnduff, C.I.E., should be invited to act as Secretary to the Executive Committee during the absence

on leave of Mr. A. Karle. (3) That a donor to the scheme of Rs. 40,000 and upwards should be entitled to have one of the hostels named after him; and that a donor of Rs. 10,000 and upwards should be entitled to have his name recorded on a tablet in some conspicuous part of a hostel. (4) That each member of the Executive Committee should be empowered to collect subscriptions on behalf of the scheme. The amount of promised subscriptions up to date is Rs. 2,80,550.

The Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased generally to accept the recommendations made by the Committee appointed to consider the question of commercial education at the Presidency College, Calcutta, and to direct that the following prospectus, showing the courses of study, the examinations, the rates of fees, and other cognate matters, as now provisionally decided upon, be published for general information:—

COURSES OF STUDY AND DELIVERY OF LECTURES.

(1) Arrangements have been made for instruction and examination in two different courses of study—one to be a complete course every part of which shall be obligatory, and the other to consist of a series of lectures or classes, all or any of which may be attended at option. The lectures in the former course shall be delivered during the day, while those in the latter shall be delivered in the evening only.

DAY COURSE.

(2) The following shall be the subjects prescribed for the day course:—

(i) English (modern) and specially English correspondence, including commercial correspondence, letter drafting and précis-writing;

(ii) arithmetic, including commercial and mental arithmetic;

(iii) one of the following languages namely, Bengali, Hindi, Urdu, Uriya, French, German or Latin;

(iv) one of the following subjects, namely, book-keeping, shorthand-writing or type-writing and

(v) commercial history and geography.

The course shall extend over a period of two years at the end of which an examination shall be held in the prescribed subjects, in all of which the candidates will be required to pass. No candidate will be allowed to pass unless his answers on every subject are written in a good legible handwriting.

EVENING COURSE.

(3) The following shall be the subjects prescribed for the evening course:—

(i) outlines of political economy;

(ii) banking and currency;

(iii) commercial and industrial law;

(iv) annuities and insurance;

(v) book-keeping;

(vi) shorthand-writing;

(vii) type-writing; and

(viii) English (modern).

In this subject special examinations shall be held, candidates being allowed to take up each separately and to obtain certificates of having passed in it.

AWARD OF CERTIFICATES AND PUBLICATION OF RESULTS.

(4) Certificates shall be awarded by the Education Department to students passing the examinations, and shall require endorsement by the Secretary to the Bengal Chamber of Commerce, and lists of successful candidates, without classification, shall be published by that Chamber and by the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce.

ADMISSION.

(5) There will be no age limit for candidates for either course.

Candidates who have passed the "C class" Examination of High schools or the Entrance Examination will be eligible for admission to the day course, but others will be admitted only if they satisfy the Education Department, by passing a preliminary test-examination of a similar standard, that they have sufficient general education to enable them to derive advantage from the lectures. Candidates who have not attended the lectures in the day course, will be allowed to compete at the examination only if they have passed the Entrance or the "C class" Examination or satisfied the Education Department, by passing a preliminary test-examination, that they have a reasonable prospect of success. The form of certificate to be issued to students who have passed this examination, as laid down in paragraph (2) above, shall show whether the student has passed the "C class" or Entrance Examination or not and also whether he has duly attended the lectures prescribed for the day course. Those only who have passed the "C class" or Entrance Examination, and after attending the full day course of lectures have passed the prescribed examination, will be considered to be eligible for the full commercial certificate.

Candidates who have attended the lectures in the day course, will be eligible for admission to the evening course and allowed to compete at the examinations but others will be admitted and allowed to compete only if they satisfy the Education Department by passing a preliminary test-examination that they have sufficient general education to enable them to derive advantage from the lectures, or that they have a reasonable prospect of success, as the case may be. The certificates issued on the result of the examination in this course, as laid down in paragraph (3) above, shall show whether the students have attended the lectures prescribed for the day course and have passed such examination and also whether they have attended the evening course of lectures.

FEES.

(6) The fees shall not exceed Rs. 3 per mensem payable for the whole school year for the entire day course, and the like sum for each series of fifteen lectures in the evening course on—

- (i) banking and currency;
- (ii) commercial and industrial law;
- (iii) annuities and insurance;
- (iv) English (modern).

The fee for each course of thirty-two lectures on the outlines of political economy shall be Rs. 5.

As the evening lectures on book-keeping, short-hand-writing, and type-writing will be on advanced portions of those subjects and will continue over a considerable period, the fee for each course shall be Rs. 10.

(7) The setting of the papers for the examination will be left to an Examination Board, which shall be constituted for the purpose by the Director of Public Instruction, and upon which the Education Department, the Bengal Chamber of Commerce and the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce shall be represented.

PRIZES.

(8) Three gold medals, offered by the Remington Type-writer Company, shall be awarded on the results of the examination on the evening course of lectures on type-writing to the three students awarded the highest marks for efficiency.

Should any other prizes be offered hereafter, the fact will be announced and the terms on which they are offered for competition published in due course.

OPENING OF CLASSES.

(9) The evening course of lectures on political economy began on the 7th March last. The new classes in the day course will be opened next June.

2. The Government of Bengal will be prepared to consider applications for grants-in-aid, which will probably take the form of contributions towards the salaries of the necessary lectures, to enable other colleges and high schools to introduce schemes of education on the lines laid down in the case of the Presidency College by the prospectus above; but these will be dealt with separately and considered on their merits as they are received.

3. Four scholarships of Rs. 16, Rs. 12, Rs. 8 and Rs. 8 *per mensem*, tenable for two years respectively, are under existing arrangements, available for candidates admitted to the day course who have passed the "C class" Examination; and candidates who have obtained similar scholarships at the Entrance Examination will be permitted to hold them during the day course.

PUNJAB.

Miss I. A. SIMS has been appointed Junior Inspector of Schools, Punjab, in the Provincial Education Service, Punjab, on Rs. 200 *per mensem*, with effect from the 9th January 1905.

Mr. J. C. GODLEY, Inspector of Schools, Rawalpindi Circle, has been transferred to the Amritsar Circle. Mr. W. T. WRIGHT of the Lahore Central Model School has been posted as Inspector of Schools in the Rawalpindi Circle.

The authorities of the Dayanand Anglo-Vedic College, Lahore, have made arrangements for teaching the Japanese language. A new class will be opened in a few days, and the teacher selected is Mr. Goto, a graduate of the Tokio Imperial University, who has already arrived here. Indian students proceeding to Japan to receive a technical education had to spend nearly a year in that country in learning its language.

Foreign Notes.

In connexion with the reopening of the Aberdeen Art Gallery, the University of Aberdeen conferred the honorary degree of LL.D. (April 7), upon John B. Bury, M.A., D. Litt., F.L.S., Professor of Modern History in the University of Cambridge.

The University of Oxford has conferred the honorary degree of D. Litt. upon Mr. Edward Arber, F. S. A., Emeritus Professor of English at Birmingham University, and Fellow of King's College, London; and the honorary degree of D. Sc. upon Prof. E. B. Tylor.

"A TREMENDOUS hypocrisy" is Mr. G. B. Shaw's description of the modern system of education. As to the raw material, "a child is a savage, cruel, noisy, dirty, frightful, inquisitive being, indiscreet to the point of telling the truth on all occasions, and regardless of the feelings of others." The only good point about schools the same authority holds to be that they save children from the demoralising influence of the middle class home. The teachers are "necessarily gross impostors."

The highest education must be controversial—philosophy, religion, etc., taught by masters of different schools and creeds, the pupils to judge for themselves. Some fortune-telling would be good—it would show that all our secrets are the same. We commend these views to the serious consideration of the Arts Faculty of the Calcutta University. For Indian students several other subjects might be included in the programme—such as astrology, phrenology or alchemy.—*The Statesman and Friend of India.*

MR. CARNEGIE'S gift of £2,000,000 in aid of Scottish University education is, of course, not forgotten. It has had many results: some perhaps hardly anticipated. Thus the *Manchester Guardian* of the 29th ult. says: "The condition of things has completely changed in Scottish University towns. The cost of lodgings is much dearer, the standard of living has been raised, and students cannot live now with the Spartan simplicity of their fathers and grandfathers." One result the gift has not had is to increase materially the number of students at the Scottish Universities.—*The University Correspondent.*

UNIVERSITIES and Colleges are, it seems, to receive in future the substantial benefits which Mr. Carnegie has hitherto showered especially upon public libraries. The inauguration of the new philanthropic policy is marked by the gift of \$20,000 to the Rochester University and \$30,000 to the Syracuse University—both institutions in New York State. The donations are, in both cases, contingent on pound for pound being raised from other sources.—*The University Correspondent.*

The Educational Review.

As years pass by institutions whose usefulness is patent may naturally be expected to increase in strength and popularity.

The Teachers' Guild, Madras.

If there is not such an increase there is either a doubt of the usefulness of the institutions themselves, or there is suspected something wrong about the way these are worked. Just such a doubt, such a suspicion found expression at the last annual meeting of the Madras Teachers' Guild. Mr. Hoare called attention to the fact that the majority of those engaged in the teaching profession were still unconnected with the Guild. He was inclined to attribute this indifference on the part of the teachers to the fact that the Guild did not deal with matters sufficiently practical, that the subjects chosen for discussion were not such as would come home to teachers' bosoms, and he suggested that the most effective way of making the Guild assume the position it ought to have was an improvement in the above-mentioned directions. We are not satisfied that Mr. Hoare's is the whole of the diagnosis of the evil.

We are all agreed that the Guild will be popular exactly in proportion to its success in making the teacher's profession respected by the Philistines. High pedagogy may be good, but some appreciable addition to the teacher's salaries, some addition to the available resources of the teacher, is better. This lesson has been often impressed upon the members by the President, once in his last annual address at the December Conference and again in his farewell speech at the Wesley College. And the Guild has been acting on the advice and doing the best it can to improve the

prospects of the teacher by securing favourable terms of life assurance, for the members of the Guild and by taking steps for starting a Provident Fund. But all this, measured by the appetite of the recipient of such benefits, may seem a ridiculous trifle. And this little will be deemed great enough only by little men.

Take the grossly utilitarian view of the Guild's work. Those engaged in the Government schools and colleges, with their pension and furlough rules, and post office insurance schemes, are not likely to care for what the Guild can do for them. Again those engaged in the better sort of Mission schools and colleges have arrangements for pensions or for a retiring bonus fund and do not find the prospects held out by the Guild glittering enough to attract them. It is only when we touch the bottom of the educational service, i.e., only when we come to the class of teachers engaged in the lower ranks of the Mission service or those engaged in the less well-conducted Mission schools, and also to the class engaged in Native schools and colleges, we reach the men to whom the benefits held out by the Guild seem something tangible enough to seize.

Take the less grossly utilitarian aspect; what the Guild may do to raise the ideal of the teacher's work, and to bring about an *esprit de corps*. This, while it has its attractions for the humblest in the profession may be supposed to have been the most influential motive that has enlisted the co-operation of the comparatively better-to-do.

An examination of the last list of the members of Guild shows how few of the higher class of teachers are members, how ill the Government colleges are represented in the Guild, and how the bulk of the members

are from the Mission and private schools and colleges.

If the matter be looked at purely from the point of view of what the Guild will do, to individual teachers, as, we are afraid, there is a tendency to do (and this, we think, is the real secret of so many teachers not joining the Guild), there can be no room for such men as (to mention only the most prominent) Dr. Miller and Mr. Bilderbeck. They and other men of the same stamp are there to show that they are of the profession to which the humblest among us belong, that they do not feel it unworthy of their position to recognise their kinship to teachers of all ranks. Deprived of the inspiration and guidance of such high priests of the temple, the work of the Guild will degenerate into an unmeaning tinkling of cymbals. And it is this aspect of the matter that we wish to bring before the professors and principals, headmasters and teachers of schools, and we would suggest that he of the ten talents has duties no less exigent than he of the single talent, in the matter of doing active work to elevate the profession.

It was a graceful thing for the Teachers' Guild to recognise, as it did, the valuable services rendered by Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck as its President. The highest service one in the position of Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck can render such a body as the Guild is the recognition of himself as its representative when the prominent position he might fill would redound to the credit of the body of which he was a member. Such a service the President was able to render when he expressed his views in the Imperial Legislative Council as the spokesman of the Guild. The honorary duties of the President of the Guild, Mr. Bilderbeck discharged as conscientiously

as the paid duties of his professorship, and what that means all those can judge who know the high ideal of duty he has ever had before him.

Replying to the thanks of the Guild expressed by Rev. J. Cooling, Mr. Bilderbeck took the opportunity of vindicating that body from criticisms passed on its work and its want of following. He was of opinion that the Guild had done a distinct service to the profession by its having contrived to exist all these years. He called the members' attention to the fact that the appeal to the practical needs of the teacher would be more effective than exhortations to follow in the footsteps of higher pedagogy. He referred to the Provident Fund Scheme and told the members what steps had been taken with regard to it. The managers of Native schools and colleges were not willing to do anything to better the teachers' prospects. Not so, the larger Missionary bodies. They had schemes of their own in greater or less degree of forwardness to provide funds for pension or gratuity to retiring teachers or to their families when left without adequate provision. The correspondence with the managers of schools further brought out the fact that, even in cases where they were willing to fall in with the suggested scheme, they were not prepared to accept the Guild as their agency for carrying out the arrangement. These enquiries so far yielded only negative results, but they were still of positive value. The Guild knows exactly the position of affairs and has learnt whom it can count on for co-operation and what it must do to secure greater confidence in itself. Finally Mr. Bilderbeck expressed his high appreciation of the unselfish work done for the cause of education by European and Indian gentlemen and hoped that the

Guild with the help of such men might become as influential a body as Teachers' Guilds are elsewhere.

Mr. Bilderbeck goes home for the present to enjoy a well-earned holiday. The period of furlough is so contemporaneous with the pension period for service that it is generally believed that the leave is preparatory to retirement. But we have seen in the Educational department the privilege of service even after the period of superannuation given to men inferior in attainments and conscientiousness to Mr. Bilderbeck, and so it will not be extraordinary if after all he should be accorded a similar privilege. We doubt if Mr. Bilderbeck would care for it. But as men with the high ideal of duty and rare scholarship of Mr. Bilderbeck are none too common with us here, we wish he were permitted or persuaded to serve some time longer in the Presidency. We would rather say *au revoir* than *adieu*.

We are disappointed to find that the suggestion thrown out by us, Shakespeare Commemoration in Madras, that the several colleges here and elsewhere might celebrate the Shakespeare Week by having some of his plays enacted, has been taken up only by one High School in the city and by an Association of dramatic amateurs. The *Suguna Vilasa Sabha* that has been doing great service to purify and elevate the taste of the public of Madras had three of Shakespeare's plays performed and in this connection there were two papers read on the study of Shakespeare's plays. One of the papers will be found elsewhere in the present number. As the Chairman of the evening, Mr. Bilderbeck said, the address of Mr. V. V. Srinivasa Aiyangar was marked by

spontaneity and sincerity. While approving generally the line of thought followed by the lecturer, the Chairman did not agree with him in thinking that in studying Shakespeare one should have previously experienced the character and situations that he presented before him. Sympathetic insight can, he said, supply the lack of personal experience. Still as regards appreciation, it will be admitted, the larger the personal experience of the reader, the keener will be the enjoyment of the dramatic rendering of such experience.

The Hindu High School, Triplicane, very successfully staged the *Merchant of Venice*. The acting reached a high level of excellence and Shylock and Portia were sympathetically interpreted. The rendering showed that the young actors had thoroughly understood the play and that—the thorough entering into the spirit of the play—is the benefit to be most prized.

We hope the example set by the Sabha and the School will spread in the city and that moribund schools and colleges will not be behindhand in the matter.

We should be glad to suppose that the Pachaiyappa Club performance of *The Midsummer Night's Dream* on a scale of elaborate thoroughness was also in this connection. As no mention was made of the idea of Shakespeare Commemoration before or after the performance, and as the play was acted some days after the close of the Shakespeare Week, we guess that the authorities were not anxious to identify themselves with the movement. It is a pity. As we know that no labour is spared to make the Club performances a success, the accession of the Pachaiyappa Club to the ranks of professed Shakespeare Commemorators would be a tower of strength to the movement.

In refreshing contrast to the apathy of the Indian public in this matter there was the greatest enthusiasm in London and elsewhere and a good many Shakespearean plays were enacted in the London theatres in the Easter Week which coincided with the Shakespeare Week. The difference is explainable. Yet we should have expected here a little more of co-ordinated enthusiasm as regards Shakespeare, and we have been disappointed.

The increasing activity of the Muhammadans in the field of education is full of the happiest auguries for their future.

The leading men of the community under the sympathetic guidance of such well-wishers as Mr. Justice Boddam have come to realise their responsibilities in the matter. We are glad to find that mofussil associations have been started at Cuddapah, Karnool, Attur, Salem, Udumalpet, Bangalore, Tinnevely, Cuddalore, Tindivanam and Nellore and we learn with pleasure that useful work is done by all these branch associations. Among other matters, providing hostel accommodation for the Moslem youths and the consideration of suitable religious text-books engaged the attention of the Committee of the Association. We congratulate the members on their work for the year; and we hope the coming years would show increased activity and usefulness in the work of the Association. One feature of the support given the cause of Mussulman education deserves special attention. As much as Rs. 7,642 came in aid of the Association from members who were not members of the Muhammadan community. Though it speaks volumes as to the wide sympathies of the helpers, it is not good that the members of the community should get

accustomed to seek for help elsewhere. The only sound basis for the regeneration of any class or community is self-help. We hope the Chairman's words on this matter will be laid to heart. He says that the Association was formed in 1901 with a view to help the Muhammadans. "From that time up to the present moment, in spite of the honest and energetic efforts of a few gentlemen whose names he could mention, the total amount collected for the National Fund was Rs. 14,880 out of the Rs. 14,000, how much was attributable to the Muhammadan community? Rs. 7,645 including the donation of H. H. the Nizam Rs. 5,000." Comment is needless.

Elsewhere we give a fairly full list of the changes embodied in the latest edition of the Madras Educational Rules. The changes are important and on the whole progressive. A few are here selected for special comment.

The rules for recognition of schools have been greatly added to, and though they are embodied in the code for the first time now, we heard of them in anticipation in connexion with the National High School, Napatam. Gradual development, the limits of competition, the Department's previous sanction, guarantees of financial stability and of good management are familiar expressions. The restrictions now placed on the opening of new schools are mostly necessary. Only they need to be worked in a large and liberal spirit. 'Local educational needs' in particular is a consideration which, if exclusively and narrowly attended to, may result in preventing the growth of new types of school and of the time when the educational system of the land will stand on a truly national, and

therefore the only permanent and secure basis. No objection is taken to any of the new conditions in itself; but we desire to urge that the Department should not be content with maintaining the *status quo* and avoiding all conflict, but it must in addition look to the future of education in the country and work its code in the best interests of that future.

The recent episodes about certificates of age to private candidates for Matriculation have led to some wholesome rules. No pupil may hereafter be admitted to a school except on an application signed by his guardian stating among other things his exact date of birth; head-masters are made responsible for the correctness of these age entries; leaving certificates ought to mention the date of birth of the pupils leaving. As we have already pointed out, no immediate cleansing of the admission registers of schools can be looked for; but in a few years these records will have become trustworthy evidence of the age of school-pupils.

Leaving certificates may not be granted in future except on the written application of guardians. Some rules are put in to check the arbitrary and inequitable demands of fees made by head-masters before granting leaving certificates. We guess that a certain head of an institution in the Ceded Districts will feel that Rules 41 and 42 are specially aimed at his vagaries. But men of his stamp will never cease to exercise powers improperly, and if rules were to be made to defeat their tricks, the Education Code would soon attain a size sufficient to rejoice the heart of a lawyer.

Private managers till now enjoyed absolute freedom in the levy of fees; hereafter they are free only to a large extent. They must charge reasonable fees, and will not be allowed to enter on a Dutch auction for fees. These are

wholesome limitations, though their vagueness—unavoidable from the nature of the case—will give rise to plenty of controversy in any concrete case to which they may be applied.

Three registers are now added to those that institutions under private management are required to maintain—a masters' attendance register, an acquittance roll, and a log-book. In most well-conducted schools the first two, we daresay, are already maintained. The last is a useful and welcome addition.

No recognised school can have more than 40 in any class hereafter. Till now this limit applied only to schools under public management, private managers being free to put even 50 boys in the same class. Even 40 is in our opinion too high a limit. For a primary class it is absurdly high. However, the Department waits on public opinion in the matter, and public opinion matures but slowly.

Head-masters will feel particularly thankful that promotions declared on the opening day of the year are hereafter to be absolutely final. These long-suffering men are thus exempted from one of their tortures. Rightly considered, it is no credit to our educational practice that the Department should interfere in such a matter. But the ignorance of the average Indian parent and the meddlesomeness of the average private manager will compel the Department, we are afraid, to legislate in other matters also.

Of great significance to the teaching profession is the new scheme of general teachers' certificates. Between the written and the oral examinations for these certificates there is to be an interval of 3 years during which the 'probationary teachers,' as they are called, should put in at least 18 months' approved service as teachers. Their work during pro-

[MAY 1905.]

bation is to be judged by inspecting officers and recorded in a service register. This will ensure the application by these probationary teachers of the principles they acquire in the training schools to the actual conditions of the ordinary schools, and will also help to weed out the most unpromising of the recruits before the official stamp is finally set on them.

Beyond a theoretical uniformity we are not able to see any real advantage in making it necessary for L. T.'s to obtain a departmental certificate of the first-grade collegiate. No further examination being prescribed, it seems needless increase of work to the Director's office. Is there not also a possible confusion? For graduates who did not appear for the L. T. Degree examination there was in old times a first-grade collegiate certificate given after passing a written and a practical test. There are several teachers now who hold such certificates. The term first-grade collegiate certificate therefore will have one value departmentally, but connote two different courses of preparation and two different standards of qualification. Perhaps, however, it was considered desirable to bring L. T.'s within the disciplinary power conferred on the Director by Rule 147. The L. T. diploma cannot be suspended or cancelled by that officer, though Rule 147 in its last part seems wide enough to bring L. T.'s also within his control.

H. E. Lord Ampthill announced in his Budget speech the extension to two years of the period of training for primary teachers. The new rules embody this improvement and the course of study for this grade includes the subjects of general instruction. The theory of teaching is dropped out altogether. This step in advance is fraught with much good to the cause of primary education.

Another noteworthy change is that the minimum general qualification for the head-mastership of an upper secondary school has been declared to be the B. A. degree and not the F. A. certificate. At present there are few F. A.'s, who are heads of high schools. The rule therefore does not involve any sudden improvement upon current practice.

We note with much wonder, but little understanding, the expression 'M. A. degree examination' replaced by 'post-graduate courses' and the names of the F. A. and B. A. classes changed to first-year, second-year, third-year, and fourth-year University classes. The principle underlying these changes is not intelligible. Is it a foreshadowing of the abolition of the M. A. degree? Or does it indicate the establishment of other post-graduate courses besides the M. A.? Have the changes received the approval of the University authorities? If not, we should have a double system of nomenclature.

Some of the many changes made in the new Madras Educational Rules are verbal, some consist of mere re-arrangements of subject-matter, while others are of great significance. It may be useful to our readers if we present together the more important of these changes.

The chapters are the same as before and appear in the same order. The rules, however, are numbered continuously throughout the chapters, so that we have 147 Rules in all. The appendices have increased from 25 to 32. One of the old appendices is dropped, viz., application for admission to the Practical Test for Teachers' Certificates. Eight are newly added:

C.—Classes of communities and localities declared backward.

MAY 1905.]

H. Form of Application for Admission to Schools.

L. Register of Attendance of Masters.

S. Application for Sanction of Stipends.

W. Register of leave granted to Normal Students.

X₁. Form of Attendance Certificate.

Y. Application for Admission to Technical Teachers' Certificate Examination.

Z. Application for Admission to Gymnastic Teachers' Certificate Examination.

S. and X₁ are not fully described. S. relates to Stipends in Normal Institutions, X₁ is the form of certificate to be sent by the heads of training institutions in the case of candidates for the Preliminary Examination for General Teachers' Certificates.

Chapter I, p. 1. Public Institutions are defined thus: "Institutions which impart secular instruction and conform to the standards of efficiency and courses of study prescribed by the University or the Department are classed as "public" or "recognised" institutions."

The old definition was clumsy and spoke of the benefits of inspection and supervision as a form of State aid, a term confined ordinarily to pecuniary help.

Pp. 2 and 3. The expression 'M. A. Degree Examination' is dropped and replaced by 'post-graduate courses.' Instead of Senior B.A., Junior B.A., Senior F.A., and Junior F.A., the classes in colleges are to be called Fourth Year University Class, Third Year University Class, Second Year University Class, and First Year University Class. B.L. and F.L. Classes are to be Senior University and Junior University Classes. The Licentiate in Teaching department is hereafter to be styled the First-grade Collegiate Department.

Chapter II. p. 6. Two new Rules Nos. 11

and 12 are introduced for the recognition of Schools.

"11. In the case of secondary schools the Director shall satisfy himself as to (a) the organization and development of the school by approved methods and upon approved lines,

(b) the educational needs of the locality,

(c) the financial stability of the school,

(d) the constitution of the managing body,

(e) the scale of fees charged as compared with those charged in other institutions in the same locality,

besides the other matters specified in this chapter, before according recognition.

12. In the case of primary schools recognition shall depend upon satisfactory evidence of the educational needs of the locality as well as of the other matters specified below in this chapter."

Rule No. 13 lays down that the headmaster of an upper secondary or high school should be a B.A. Under the old rules even a First in Arts man was eligible.

P. 7. Under "professional qualifications of Assistants," the following clause is added:

"The teacher of Drawing shall ordinarily hold a Technical Teachers' Certificate in Drawing; in upper secondary schools, a certificate of the Intermediate grade; in lower secondary and primary schools, that of the Elementary grade. The instructor in Gymnastics and Drill shall hold a Gymnastic Teachers' Certificate."

P. 8. The maximum strength of a secondary or primary class is fixed at 40 by Rule 20.

P. 9. A new provision (in Rule 21) runs:

"Two departments of the same school will not be recognised as separate institutions unless separate buildings are provided."

Rule 24 lays down 8 square feet and 80

cubic feet per pupil in *all* schools. Formerly primary schools had only to give 6 square feet and 60 cubic feet per pupil.

The provision as to the dimensions of dormitories is repeated from the new Grant-in-aid code.

P. 11. Rule 31 prescribes that the promotion-arrangements made on the first working-day of the year shall be final, and "no alterations shall be allowed in it except for the purpose of correcting mistakes."

Rule 34 prescribes that no pupil shall be admitted into a school except on a written application in a certain form signed by his parent or guardian. This form includes a column for 'date of birth,' and a note is added in these terms (p. 126):

"Satisfactory evidence in regard to the date of birth must be insisted upon. Head-masters will be held responsible for the accurate entry in the admission register of the date of birth."

The new leaving certificate form under Rule 35 includes 'date of birth, as entered in the admission register.' Two other changes are, first, that the class or form from which the pupil leaves must be entered in *words*, and secondly, that information is required as to the last standard examination for which grant was paid, its date and the optional subjects.

Rule 37 requires that "application for a leaving certificate shall be made in writing by the parent or guardian of the pupil."

P. 12. The rules governing the fees to be claimed before granting leaving certificates are substantially the same as those that are now in force; but two new rules are added.

"41. When a pupil has been admitted at reduced rates fees shall not be calculated at higher rates for the purposes of the above

rule; and a pupil admitted as a free scholar shall be considered for purposes of eligibility for leaving certificates as unconditionally free.

42. When a pupil is allowed to continue his studies in an institution during any term on the assumption that there are no arrears of fees for previous terms, leaving certificates shall not be refused on the plea that such arrears exist."

The following is also new:

"46. When a pupil is dismissed or expelled under Rules 49 and 50, the head-master shall not grant a leaving certificate until the expiration of the period for which the Director has debarred the pupil from admission into a recognised school. After that period has expired the leaving certificate shall be granted subject to the above rules; but in such cases the head-master shall endorse it with the words "dismissed for false representation" or "expelled for misconduct" as the case may be."

P. 13. With regard to the wearing of shoes the old rule is qualified thus: "But in plague-infected areas shoes of an English pattern together with socks may be worn in class even if trousers are not worn."—Rule 51 (b).

P. 14. Three additional registers are required to be kept up by all recognised schools; a register of attendance for masters, an acquittance roll, and a log-book. (Rule 52)

Two rules are newly introduced under the heading "Recognition of Individual Classes."

"58. In order to allow of the gradual development of a school, recognition may be granted to one or more classes at a time subject to the above-mentioned conditions and to the other rules contained in this chapter and in particular to Rule 54. This recognition may be either "temporary" or "permanent."

54. A recognised school shall not, without

the previous sanction, of the Inspector in the case of primary schools, and of the Director in the case of secondary schools, open a class or classes either higher or lower than those for which the school has been recognised. When such classes are opened with proper sanction a formal application for recognition shall be made within six months from the date of opening them, and if recognition is not accorded the classes shall be closed at the end of the term in which the refusal of recognition is communicated. The rules relating to admission and withdrawal, discipline and registers shall be observed with respect to such probationary classes."

Chap. III. p. 17. Under 'Discipline' the following clause is new.

"Whilst, in ordinary cases, the punishment for misconduct or unbecoming behaviour outside colleges would naturally be the duty of parents, the college authorities should, when serious misconduct is brought to their notice, enquire into it and deal with it as they may deem necessary."

Chap. IV. p. 20. The latitude given in the levy of fees to private managers under the old rule is somewhat restricted in the second para of Rule 68.

"In institutions under private management the rates and levy of fees will be left to a large extent to the discretion of the managers, but the fees must be reasonable, and recognised institutions will not be permitted to compete improperly by unduly lowering the fees."

P. 21. Rule 72 (d) is new and runs:—

"A receipt signed and dated by the head-master or by some one deputed by him shall be granted for every payment of fee made under the above clauses. The receipt shall show the form or class in which the pupil is reading."

P. 23. Rule 76 prescribes a fine of *one anna* for each rupee of fee paid after the fixed date and of *two annas* for each rupee of fee due on re-admission.

Chap. V. Under Courses of Instruction the new rules omit all marks which are prescribed for Arithmetic in the different standards (page 28).

Under English Recitation four pieces are prescribed newly for the 6th Form, as for the other forms (page 48).

In Geometry it is directed newly that "the propositions need not be taken in Euclid's order, and Euclid's methods need not be followed. The pupils should be taught to make simple constructions with the use of scales, ruler, and compasses."

Under the History of England the end of the 19th century is the limit, not 1858 as before.

Chapter VI. (The rules do not come into force until a date to be notified hereafter).

The Practising School attached to each training institution is called a 'Model School.'

P. 72. Under 'Curricula' Elocution and Blackboard work are clearly defined. *e.g.* the former has "Practice in reading prose and poetry with good enunciation and effective emphasis and intonation, in the language in which the students teach in the 'model school.'"

In the Primary grade a difference is made between the course for masters and that for mistresses.

The period of training in the case of the primary grade being hereafter two years, the course includes general subjects, as First Language, Arithmetic, Geography, Nature Study, Drawing, Kindergarten Occupations, and Training; Experimental Geometry, Civics, and Drill and garden work (for masters only); Needle-work and Calisthenics (for mistresses).

only). The following are recommended as optional subjects: Second Language, Music, Manual Occupations, Hygiene, Agriculture. Teachers of this last grade are apparently to have no instruction in the theory of teaching.

The period of probation for students under training which is at present two months for all grades, is to be one term for the primary grades and 50 days for the other grades.

Chap. VII. In Training Institutions under private management, liberty is given to the manager to make suitable rules with regard to the leave and dismissal of students.

Chap. VIII. The Gymnastic Teachers' certificate will form a kind of certificate by itself and will be of one grade only.

Licentiates in teaching shall obtain Teachers' Certificates of the First Grade Collegiate on application to the Director without further examination.

Teachers who pass the written examination of other grades will be *probationary teachers* for three years, and will be regarded as certificated teachers for departmental purposes. Each probationary teacher will receive a combined certificate and service register. The service register will contain information about his period of service and the remarks made on his work by inspecting officers. At least 12 months' approved service must be so recorded in the register before a probationary teacher can apply for the final or practical test. In such final

examination he will have to give a lesson in the presence of the examiners to a class of 15 to 20 pupils. The subject of the lesson shall be of a kind not to require elaborate preparation and shall be announced to the candidates half an hour before they are required to give the lesson. The rules regulating the duration of the lessons and the minima required for passing the examinations, and the rules that made a distinction in marks between trained and untrained teachers are now dropped. The points to be noted by examiners in the teaching of the candidates are set forth in detail, and the examiners are not required to assign marks, but to write "a brief report on each candidate's work noting the points in which he showed most strength or weakness, characterising the result under each main heading as excellent, good, fair or poor and recording their opinion as to whether the candidate should be held to have passed the examination."

The class of the completed certificate (first or second) will be determined by the Board of Examiners, and will depend on the results of the two examinations and the nature of the other remarks in the service register.

It must be added that some of the new rules noted above, though they are not to be found in the 1901 edition of the Madras Educational Rules, are actually in force now, being embodied in departmental circulars or notifications.

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THE SCOTCH UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.

ALL authorities on India agree that she is going through the inevitable stage of transition, through the contact of the West with the East. How long India has to be content to be in this stage of transition and whether she is actually going through this stage in all the aspects of her civilisation, culture and thought, in the city as well as in the village, I do not propose here to discuss. But suffice it to say here that some things that are of absolute importance to our national prosperity and permanence are either ignored altogether or treated with an enthusiasm that is more marked for the letter than for the spirit of the thing. As long as foreign travel is the privilege of the select few and education in a European or American University is the monopoly of the very rich, and as long as the vast mass of the educated men of India have to be content with mere glimpses of the conditions of the Western world under the existing circumstances, it is no wonder that many aspects of Western culture and civilisation are treated either with indiscriminate contempt or superstitious veneration. If the rumours one hears are trustworthy, Sri Sankaracharyar should be gratefully congratulated for his graciously declining to exercise his prerogative to forbid foreign travel and thus indirectly venturing to for-

ward a movement on which certain sections of the Indian communities look with disfavour. Since I left India six years ago, I must own I have seen a great deal of change in the attitude of the most conservative parties here. I was not a little surprised to note that the city of Madras has founded an Association to encourage foreign and sea-travelling and one of the prime movers of this Association was to my astonishment one of the very persons who dissuaded a friend of mine from going to Scotland, on the ground that he would have to dine with the British people and eat beef. But it is so gratifying that the time have so soon changed and changed for the better. The marvellous rise of Japan is no doubt opening the eyes of India and making her realise her innate possibilities. Japan's wonderful power of adapting herself to her environment and her great tact in appropriating the Western systems of industrialism and modernism are having thrilling effects on the sensitive temperaments of the Indians. The despair of India that she could never match a Western power in the arts of peace and war is now shown to be groundless, and our entire confidence and glorification in the achievements of our forefathers in the remote pre-historic periods is now known to be unprofitable, if not dangerous. To encourage foreign travelling on a large scale and to combine whatever is considered good

in the West with all that is known to be solid and great in the East is the general trend of public opinion in India. India is now congratulating, admiring and adoring Japan. Noble as these sentiments are, we know too well that after all imitation is the sincerest form of flattery. India's salvation therefore consists in following the illustrious footsteps of Japan and being thoroughly actuated by the craze of Japanising India. To achieve this end, anything that helps us to understand our real position in the affairs of the world and shows us our glaring defects, ought to be welcomed, though it is not often pleasant to our flesh and blood to do so. Nothing helps us so much to understand ourselves and feel humiliated by the contrast with all that is noble and great in the world around us, as foreign travelling when actuated by a desire to criticise rightly and appreciate heartily the various phases of life we come across. Foreign travelling is now becoming more common than ever before, and several young men leave their homes in search of Western culture and learning. Of all the services open to the youth of India, perhaps the most fascinating and the most romantic is the Indian Civil Service, through its guarantee of a princely income and the highest social status. Law, Medicine and Commerce may yield higher profits in the long run—but they necessitate more patience and humbler beginnings in life. To the ambitious youth nothing appeals more strongly than something that assures him of a regular income and raises him in the esteem and respect of his fellow creatures. To say that the Indian youth has not got the administrative ability to cope with the demands of the times is gross ignorance of the existing conditions in India, for a survey of the Indian States of the present day disproves the state-

ment altogether and speaks volumes on the capability of the Indian statesmanship. Though it involves a large outlay and long separation from home, the necessity which compels foreign travelling, may be made to be pregnant with possibilities of great benefit to our country. For the greatest administrative ability and the ablest statesmanship cannot always save a great nation. The needs of a progressive community are various and one can never be sure whether the foundation on which one is standing is the safest and the most reliable, unless one has seen many similar things in different parts of the world. As our present economic drift is so insecure and as our national poverty is so acute and helpless, anything that lessens the cost of education in a good foreign University cannot help proving a great benefit to a great many students in India. It is for this reason that I take the liberty of bringing the Scotch Universities before the Indian public. In this first article of mine (to the *Educational Review*) I intend confining myself to the general education given by the Scotch Universities and the chances an Indian student has of taking the degrees conferred by the Arts Faculty of these bodies and for competing at the same time for the I. C. S. Examinations.

The students are expected to pass the "Preliminary Examination" of the Scotch Board of Examinations before they are enrolled as University students in Scotland. The preliminary examination is considered a very trying ordeal by the examinees in Scotland. The percentage of those that pass the examination is very low. But a steady worker of moderate ability need not be afraid of a failure. The examination is in the following subjects:—(1) English language and literature including British History and Geography (2)

Mathematics; (3) Latin, Sanskrit or Arabic; (4) a modern language or an Indian language which might be the candidate's own mother-tongue. But in the case of Indian students some of the examinations of the Universities of India are considered equal to the "Preliminary Examination." For instance a Matriculate of the Madras University is exempted from the examinations in English, Histories, &c., and also Mathematics in the lower standard and Sanskrit or second language in which he has passed. Then he will have to pass an examination in the language which he has not passed in and Mathematics on the intermediate standard. Those who have passed the F. A. examination are exempted from the examination in Mathematics on the higher standard; whereas graduates are exempted from all the examinations of the "Prelim." The examination in Mathematics on the intermediate standard is the same as that of the F. A. Junior portions of the Madras 'Varsity and on the higher standard the same as for F. A. University examinations. Students that intend working for the Arts degrees alone, are required to pass the examination in Mathematics on the intermediate standard. The examinations in the languages consist mainly of translations which the Indian student need not find very difficult to answer. A student must complete the "Prelim." before he begins the study for the degree unless he passes at least in one subject and gets a special permission from the Senatus to take a few qualifying classes in the 'Varsity. But he will not be allowed to sit at any of the degree examinations till he has done with the "Prelim." It will be some comfort to know that candidates are allowed to pass the examinations in four separate parts and it will take a student two years to complete the

"Prelim." at this rate, as the examinations are held twice a year, (i.e.) in March and September. Having completed the "Prelim.," the student is expected to "matriculate," which consists in paying a fee of one guinea and signing in the University Album. There are two terms in the year generally, the one beginning in May and ending in July, and the other commencing in October and ending in March. The summer term lasts about ten weeks giving altogether 50 days for lectures and practical work, whereas the winter term lasts about twenty weeks with 100 working days. In the winter term there is a break of a fortnight at Christmas. The course for the degree examinations extends over three summer and two winter sessions or three winter sessions. Most of the students, who are natives of Scotland, take out the classes in winter and enjoy the whole summer in the country or at home, doing some light work for the coming winter session. I would advise the Indian student to take the winter classes and keep the summers quite free to get about the country or to divert one's attention to something else. For instance, those who intend to take a degree in Law or to be called to the Bar in London might easily do the work in the summer recess from April to October of each year. But if one wishes to economise time and money it is best to begin in summer, as three summers and two winters mean less time than three winters put together.

There is only one degree conferred by the Arts Faculty (i.e.) the Master of Arts degree, the Scotch 'Varsities having dispensed with the B.A. degree altogether. For the M.A. degree one has to pass in seven subjects, four of which are compulsory, the remaining three being left to the option of the candidate to choose from a great variety of subjects.

The former may be arranged thus :—

(1) Natural Philosophy or Mathematics ; (2) Moral Philosophy or Logic and Psychology ; (3) English Language and Literature or British History or Constitutional History ; (4) Latin or Greek or Sanskrit or Arabic. The latter may be any three of the following subjects :—(1) Chemistry ; (2) Botany ; (3) Zoology ; (4) Geology ; (5) Political Economy ; (6) Roman Law ; (7) Philosophy of Law ; (8) Education ; (9) Fine Arts.

But in all the seven subjects the candidates for the degree must combine together Natural Philosophy and Chemistry or Moral Philosophy and Logic and Psychology. The degree examinations are held twice a year (*i.e.* March and October and are conducted in the examination hall. The method of the examinations is usually writing answers to questions, but in Science subjects candidates are expected to undergo an oral as well as a practical examination besides the writings in each subject. The number of marks required to get a pass in the degree examinations is about 50 % of the allotted number of marks to each subject, which is higher than that required by most of the English 'Varsities. Some preparatory classes and some practical Science classes are held during the summer term. But most of the lectures on the subjects required for the degree examinations are delivered during the winter term. About 100 lectures in all are delivered on each subject and they mean the most exhaustive treatment of the subject. Beginning the subject only in October and hearing 100 lectures on it in the course of five months and to be expected to be prepared to undergo a degree examination in March or April, seems a very arduous task at the outset. To get in all the seven subjects in time one has to take out two subjects the first winter,

three in the second and the remaining two in the third winter. The student is not bound to take up these subjects in any required order, but he may please himself as to the number and subjects of the classes he takes. The attendance at the various classes is compulsory and attendance is ascertained by calling cards 26 times during the winter session at which the student must be present at least 14 times. He must also be at the three class examinations held during the term by the professor and secure not less than 33 % of the marks allotted for each subject. Only then could he get a class certificate which will permit him to sit at the degree examinations. Many students have a preparatory year at the 'Varsity and thus take four winters to complete the course of study for the degree. The examinations in Natural Philosophy and Mathematics are considered to be the most difficult ; next to them come Chemistry, Logic and Psychology and Moral Philosophy in their order. The others are not so difficult and about 70 % to 80 % of the candidates get through the examinations successfully at the first trial. Most of the Indian students take Sanskrit as their language branch for the degree, which should prove a great boon to them. In Edinburgh and the other Scotch Universities one professor is expected to lecture on only one subject, at a time.

When the student has passed in all the seven subjects required for the degree, he will be permitted to attend the convocation called in Edinburgh the "capping ceremony" and take the degree.

Hitherto I have been writing only of the ordinary pass M.A. degree. Honours degrees are also conferred by the Scotch Universities. In the honours course of study the student is expected to have a thorough knowledge of the group of subjects he is going to choose.

He must pass the compulsory subjects of the ordinary M.A. pass examination and then pass the special Honours Examinations in any two of the following :—(1) English Language ; (2) Rhetoric ; (3) British Histories ; (4) European History ; (5) Mental Philosophy ; (6) Moral Philosophy ; (7) Economic Science ; (8) Mathematics ; (9) Natural Philosophy ; (10) Indian Languages ; (11) Semitic Languages, &c.

The honours studies should be very wide and extensive to get a respectable pass and it requires at least one full winter to do justice to them. These subjects are arranged under various groups (*i.e.*) Mental Philosophy group includes Mental Philosophy and Moral Philosophy. Economic Science group includes Economic Science and Moral Philosophy or History and the History group includes all the histories including constitutional histories. The Language group includes the English Language and Literature, Rhetoric, &c. The Philosophy group necessitates a knowledge of Greek without which a candidate is not allowed to take honours in that group. The honours examinations are held only once a year (*i.e.* April) and the whole group must be taken at one time, which should be within five years since the candidate's Matriculation in the 'Varsity. The candidate will not be given a pass unless he shows a special knowledge of the group of subjects he takes up and the successful candidates are arranged in three groups. In the first class are placed those who secure 75 % of the allotted marks and upwards ; 66 2/3 % in the second class ; 55 % in the third class. When once the candidate comes down in the honours examination he will not be allowed to take the examination again. I should therefore advise the student to take the ordinary degree first and then take the honours. He would have then got suffi-

cient knowledge to be profited by his study for the honours. An intelligent and industrious student may manage to take the honours degree in three winters though a great many native students of Scotland take four winters for the course and even five (winters). Those who have taken honours are specially recommended to take the examinations for the I.C.S. The University of Edinburgh has lately undertaken to prepare students for the I.C.S. examinations. Since then there are many students who have got into the I.C.S. from time to time. The Philosophy branch is no doubt given a great deal of attention of late years, but it does not pay well in the examinations. History and Mathematics are the strongest points in the University of Edinburgh, as far as the I.C.S. examinations are concerned, the professor of History being Mr. Lodge, the brother of the famous Physicist, Sir Oliver Lodge, and that of Mathematics is one Mr. Crystal, an eminent Mathematician. A few years ago eleven men from Edinburgh who made a speciality of the History branch went up for the I.C.S. examinations and it was gratifying to find that year that ten of them got in, the unfortunate eleventh one having fallen ill just previous to the examinations. The men that generally top the list in Economic Science and Political Economy are Edinburgh men being trained by Professor Nicholson, a man of great European fame ; the two brothers, Professors James Seth and Pringle-Pattison Seth teach Moral and Mental Philosophies respectively, often succeeding in creating a love for their subjects in the students by the efficiency of their treatment and the charm of their personalities. A good student properly trained stands a good chance of getting into the

I. C. S. by studying at Edinburgh or at the other Scotch Universities.

The expenses at the Universities for those studying in the Faculty of Arts are much less than those at the English Universities. Ten guineas a year is considered the average expenses for the class and examination fees in Edinburgh. The fees for each class in the winter session is three guineas and the total examination fee for the M.A. degree is five guineas. But if the student comes down in a subject he will have to pay again a fee of half-a-guinea for reappearance in the same subject. As far as the life in Edinburgh is concerned, one cannot say anything very definitely as to the expenses required to meet its demands, for it depends so much on the individual student. I think five or six pounds a month could secure one decent board and lodgings even in Edinburgh which is more expensive than the other Scotch University towns. Roughly speaking an Arts student may manage with £100 a year all put together, whereas £120 a year is a liberal allowance even including some expenses of travelling. Many Scotch students manage with much less as they are natives of the country and know how to get at things rightly. If the student could manage to get the degree in three summers and two winters he might manage the whole with about £250 to £300. When the chances of getting into the I. C. S. are so few one might rightly grudge spending much more money on such an enterprise. The outfit and the passage both ways might run up to £100. So with a capital of £400, one might safely launch the enterprise. With £500 one might manage to stay long enough to take both the chances at the I. C. S. Some students might manage with much less and to some it may seem

almost impossible to live so economically; the above is only a very rough sketch of the expenses of life there.

I would advise the Indian student to allow himself at least £5 a year for debating Societies and Athletic Clubs, &c. If the object of going to Britain is merely to get a few degrees and get into higher services, I for one, think that in many cases it is not worth the outlay of money and the ordeal of leaving home and staying in a foreign country. Intellectual accomplishments and professional training are no doubt very desirable qualifications. But the most important aspect in an individual that appeals to most human beings about him and that makes or mars his manhood is his social life. There are many sides to the social conditions of different countries and there are various phases of the modern conception of civilisation. These great questions can be studied not entirely in the loneliness of the libraries but in the open streets and in the social life of Britain. Nothing does more to educate a man, to liberalise him and make him critical and sympathetic than mixing with people of different nationalities and opinions and sharing their social life on equal terms. Therefore one must make up one's mind to accept the "at-homes," join the debating societies and take an active part in sports and games, if one wishes to derive the full benefit of the life in a foreign University. In fact social life is the best aspect of the British people and one will understand them at their best when one shares their social life.

Unfortunately the social life is not such a very marked feature of the Scotch 'Varsities as that of the English 'Varsities. But as far as Edinburgh goes, every effort is being made now-a-days to remedy the defect and to encourage some aspects of the social life. The

reader need not belittle the Scotch 'Varsities as education is so cheap there. Some very eminent men have been turned out by these bodies and Dr. William Miller and Dr. Duncan (one of the Directors of Public Instruction) are some notable instances near at home. After all it is not the 'Varsities that make great men, but it is the men that make use of opportunities given them and work their way up in spite of many obstacles. The modern idea of specialisation has its own evils. One cannot really specialise in any one subject without studying other subjects and realising their relation to this subject. The Scotch 'Varsities aim at giving an all-round instruction in the ordinary M. A. degree examinations and then a special instruction in the honours course. I think this system achieves the ideal better than one stunting the grasp of the mind by confining tender and immature minds to narrow and isolated grooves of facts in the name of specialisation. Moreover, cities like Edinburgh and Glasgow have splendid institutions for Technical instruction in all its various departments. An Arts student that has some spare time may easily take up some classes either during the day or at night and acquire some knowledge of one or two technical subjects, which will be of great use to him and his country, if he makes use of it when an opportunity offers itself. I firmly believe in the importance to the individual and to the nation of many young Indians going to foreign 'Varsities. I, for one, think that time need not be uselessly spent on the 'Varsity examinations in India if one intends going to Scotland and especially to Edinburgh—the foremost 'Varsity in Scotland. Average ability, a good command of the English language, a little pluck, independent spirit, a critical and yet an appreciative temperament are essential

to a brilliant success, in the real sense of the word. Only such metal could be of some service to the world at large.

D. S. RAMANUJAM RAO.

UNIVERSITY ANSWERS IN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY—TEXT-BOOKS AND TEACHING.

EVERY school that sends up candidates for the Matriculation examination has now received a copy of the Examiners' instructions based on a knowledge of the answers given at the last Examination. The University authorities have laid the teachers and the pupils of high schools under a great obligation in letting them know the defects that have to be remedied before examiners can be satisfied with the quantity of answers to questions that the pupils show and that teachers have enabled them to show. Failures in History and Geography are much more numerous than was expected when science was made part of general knowledge subjects. The too large percentage of failures at the Matriculation examination in all the subjects taken together led to a discussion at the Madras Teachers' Guild (thanks to the body doing some useful work and to its energetic members) as to the advisability of allowing examination papers to be given on payment of penal fees. The article on "The Matriculation Misery" in "The Educational Review," (March Number) by Mr. C. K. Govinda Rao took up a line of argument deserving discussion whatever may be the difference of views that arises from it. In this connection, the circulation, by the Registrar, of the Examiners' Instructions in a subject wherein failure is least expected, is most opportune. In earlier days, some of the present-day junior teachers used to bear as students from their seniors

[JUNE 1905.]

that the late lamented Mr. W. A. Porter of the Government College at Kumbakonam once circulated instructions on the answers in Science of Matriculation students. The method now adopted by the University authorities is, therefore, nothing new. It is but following an example already set, but forgotten for too long a time until its present revival makes us hope that the University will take some more steps to alleviate misery and ensure public confidence. Even before the appearance of the discussion at the Teachers' Guild and the paper on "The Matriculation Misery" already referred to, "The Indian Journal of Education" (September Number, 1904) contained an article on "The Teaching of Geography" giving also an elaborate list of useful publications on the subject that are calculated to help the teacher's clear understanding and subsequent exposition to his pupils. The writer of the article is to be highly thanked as he carries out his daily work at Pachaiyappa's College in the spirit of the remarks made and as his remarks come after his experience. Mr. K. A. Viraraghavachariyar will do well to continue to give further information of such value. In the meantime, others may also take part in bringing to public notice some aspects tending to throw light on the discussion.

ANSWERS IN RELATION TO TEACHING.

The fact that students should answer satisfactorily implies that teachers should instruct well enough to help them. This is not a point always understood. An elementary knowledge of the geography of the world is imparted before the pupil finishes the Lower Secondary course. Then as it is taught again for three years in the high school forms, it is but proper to expect the teachers of the subject not to waste time on the list of towns, and such minor

points as the students can easily understand for themselves. If examiners previously went too little into the subject and confined themselves to minor questions chiefly—such as exports and imports, the present examiners expect too high a standard of knowledge for the teachers and pupils to be prepared so soon. It is this that demands great effort and attention on the part of teachers. Men of knowledge in various sciences may find a great deal of scope in the application of such knowledge to geographical facts and men of wide general observation in travel and voyage may reasonably put many sound practical questions. These, the European examiners are capable of—but, what can Indian teachers do when they have not had favourable opportunities and when they have not travelled or observed even within the limits of India by reason of poverty or by the want of a wide-spread enlightened feeling that travel and voyage are necessary factors in the education of an individual in the true sense of the word? They may at least theoretically acquaint themselves with the ideas that standard writers give in their text-books, gather current information from the latest and best periodicals and use the results of general study in the exposition of the subject. Here, as in everything else, the difficulty is for the struggler in life to find time and convenience for studying and meditating on general ideas and much more to think of bringing them to bear on practical work. What is worse is that managers and parents come in to condemn teachers without troubling themselves to know the actual conditions and think of improving them. When this may be said to act by way of impediment to good work, the teachers that have real interest in the welfare of school children cannot

altogether free themselves from any sense of responsibility. It is possible for them to understand the theory of teaching geography when Prof. Geikie's book on the subject is available at a small cost. It is possible for them to refer to two such good books as Huxley's *Physiography* and Thornton's. Certainly they can select such a good text-book as Messrs. Longmans and Co.'s, used in well-known institutions like Pachaiyappa's and the Hindu High School, Triplicane. They can help their students by explaining the more difficult points in it that students cannot, with their defective knowledge, be expected to have a clear grasp of.

THE USE OF TEXT-BOOKS IN TEACHING

greatly determines the amount of interest that the pupils evince on account of the teacher's influence. It is the personal qualifications of the teachers that go a great way. Concrete examples must be taken by way of specimen, as vague generalisations are of no great avail. Let us take the difference of climate between the west and east of England or of India. Before pointing out the general principle underlying it, certain points in the lessons about the countries ought to be made clear. Even in the Lower Secondary Forms, where G. Duncan's smaller books are used, it is quite within the limits of an ordinary teacher, if he is only painstaking to take the example of Indian *thattees* having water poured on, in front of rooms in the hot weather where coolness is greater the nearer the men are and less the more distant they are, and to elicit answers from pupils. If the pupils had sat on the banks of a lake or a tank during hot hours and then gone away, the difference noticed may be elicited. Even supposing all the pupils had no chance, it is enough to find out one or two, as it will

create interest in other pupils. When this has been done in the Lower Secondary department, the high school teacher may proceed to point out the common principle that underlies the difference in the climate. If this he does not, he makes his pupils feel time and work heavy, and then there can be no good done by teaching.

To take yet another instance,—the Himalayan watershed and its influence on trade and production—it cannot be difficult for the Lower Secondary teacher to point out the sources of the Ganges and the Jumna and to trace in at least a very elementary way the ways in which the valley between the parallel ranges serves as a great store. In the high school, the teacher has the further advantage that the student has learned from his science-teacher the causes of monsoons, even if the geography-teacher is not well-grounded in Physics. The rough knowledge that he should try to have ought to help him to interest the student to understand how such a large quantity of water is stored up and gives rise to large rivers. If the productions of the different provinces through which they pass are known, the particular trades can also be brought within the reach of the boy's knowledge. The depth of the rivers can be elicited and its bearing on trade. If this is done, the student finds pleasure and this naturally stimulates the agreeable feeling of the teacher in seeing young faces interested and made happy. The happiness or the misery of the teacher lies partly in himself and it is for him to determine for himself how far he makes his life pleasant.

It is unnecessary to go into the particular instructions given in the circular. The attempt has been made to show by taking two instances how without pleading want of appli-

ances and extensive libraries, the limited resources at the disposal of the teacher can be profitably used to better the condition of teaching, if only there is willingness to do work with care. It does not always do good to be content with passing condemnatory remarks on the nature of text-books. The living personality standing before the student is, after all, an element that mere text-books cannot supply. And, for teaching to be well done, in the secondary department as a whole, the lower secondary and high school teachers must work in harmony, the former receiving guidance and the latter helping in such a manner as to bring about uniformity and continuity in school-work.

The use of drawing has also been included amongst the instructions in the circular. Here also, difficulties in the way of accomplishment are likely to be pointed out. The older teachers are not good at drawing, the younger ones that learned it in their school days either never practised it at college and later or never tried to combine the knowledge of geographical facts with the application of drawing to it. If the class teacher knows the theoretical methods, he can get the help of the drawing-master in the school who has the technical skill and ask him to instruct the boys in his presence. But, if the class teacher is one of the type of the teacher that was mentioned above as the writer of the article possessing the requisite general educational qualification and knowledge, he can imitate his able fellow-worker in drawing maps on the board that represent a particular product like cotton by marking out the parts of the world wherein it is grown, manufactured, exported or imported and then describing various points in connection with the growth of cotton and trade therein. In such a case, questions like the

one set at the University as to the influence of the American Civil War on cotton trade are not likely to be the terror that they are now to students. It is not expected that every high school can get a staff like that which Pachaiyappa's at Madras can command; but, with proper encouragement, it will not be difficult to make the best of the available resources by the mutual co-operation of the class-teacher and the technical master in drawing. Even if the teacher has not travelled to observe different classes or races in the different parts of India, he can note such as come in view in the bazaar and in the town on festival occasions, such of the people as go on pilgrimage to Rameswar or to Benares and Haridwar and even induce the student to state what might have fallen within his observation. Though the general impression founded on such a meagre scale is rarely a correct representation of the actual on a large scale, still it is a little better than simple cramming.

OBSERVATION SUPPLEMENTING BOOKS.

It creates a desire to see men and things and draw inferences from what comes before the eye. Thus, the colour of the skin of the European and that of the Punjabi from near the Himalayas can be compared and the cold climate as affecting the skin in contrast with the blackness of skin produced by a hot climate may be partly elicited from the pupil and partly supplemented by the teacher. The dress of the European and of the Punjabi may be next taken for comparison. The latter wears a coat containing cotton between two linings—an inner and an outer or one of rough wool. The familiar European dress is well-known. Herein is a point to which the teacher can draw his pupil's attention. Thus the connection between dress and climate can be made a mat-

ter of interest and instruction even to the younger pupils of the school.

PICTURES.

There are now-a-days small printed cards containing pictures of beasts, birds and men of various parts of the world with verbal descriptions on the reverse. They can be had for a few annas from Bombay.

To this may be added magic lantern exhibitions.

THE HELP YET TO COME.

In America people are not content with the period of training. They specialise later on and when specialists give model lessons or special lessons in particular branches, teachers' institutes encourage them and those employed in the same subject are promoted year after year if they attend the course deliberately arranged during vacations and improve their work in the spirit of the knowledge so obtained. University authorities, departmental agencies and managing bodies may co-operate to introduce a similar system here. An American lady gave the information that an American teacher went on a voyage round the world, to observe men in their own country and take photographs of them, of animals and products, samples of grains or other growth easy to carry and exhibit them when giving lessons. The Teachers' College Christmas Vacation Lectures have made a beginning however humble, and it is hoped that further efforts will be made to improve matters. Then, the stagnation and the deterioration that now prevail will be removed and teachers will be constantly brushed up from year to year, thus aiding their own happiness and their work.

REMOVAL OF A COMMON MIS-APPREHENSION.

But, before the ground can be prepared for such a seed, there is a wild weed that

must be rooted out. The general opinion expressed without the slightest trouble to think is that the teaching of Geography is one given the easiest work to do, as he has but to take up his book and tell the boys to go on. It is not commonly understood that the subject requires many-sided attainments and that, for all practical purposes, it is difficult to get men with all the qualifications required when specialisation after general learning is wanting. Yet, it is not too much to expect that every teacher can, if he wills, use the subject as one laying the foundation for future culture.

TEACHING OF HISTORY.

The connection between History and Geography is well-known to teachers. Yet, the difficulties mentioned with regard to Geography come in when the drawing of a map for a particular period, war or incident is concerned. They may be tided over in the same manner. It is true that the number of subjects and the portions prescribed do not allow of slow and steady culture on the part of the pupil. The chief difficulty that the pupil meets with in the Lower Secondary forms and even during a half of the high school course is his want of familiarity with the language through which he has to learn. If Lower Secondary teachers give a short introduction briefly stating the subject-matter, then the detail and next the recapitulation, it will be aiding the pupil to prepare the lesson at home. It is only the narrative form that can catch the pupil's attention. When the pupil proceeds to the fourth form—the lowest of the high school ones, patient labour of the teacher is necessary before his pupil is trained to read his lesson properly, discriminate between the more and the less important and enable him to state, in consistent form, the succession of facts in connection

with particular periods and men. In the pre-Matriculation form, the pupil may be led to link together facts connected with one particular topic and occurring in different parts of the book.

When the student comes into the Matriculation standard after this kind of previous training and preparation, he will be easily able to follow the teacher in his explanations of the text-book supplied by reference to at least one standard writer. In this case, the complaint of college professors that Matriculates are not able to follow lectures delivered in English will become less and less forcible. To keep pupils and teachers informed of current facts of administration, the Government of India has ordered Lee-Warner's *Citizen of India* to be taught in Forms V and VI, while Madras University rules simply require a knowledge of Indian administration. In any case, the requisite is a knowledge of the events of the day and of the concrete phenomena that have to be understood in order to serve as a corrective to mere book-learning. Of course, the teacher reads a daily or two; but it is a pity that what takes place in Parliamentary discussions concerning this country is not read of even in "India," and that teachers rouse themselves to it only after questions bearing on them are set.

Moreover, even without a knowledge of political science or economy, common experiences of life in mercantile transactions and banking may be made use of where a necessity is felt. To illustrate past events, any current facts that are well-known may be taken when they serve the purpose of better understanding. All bearing of general study on the subject is omitted as every one has read some book on method.

The crying need is that the teacher should not put questions that require single words or sentences for their answer, but must per-

severe in helping the pupil to analyse and give a consecutive description of a great event or person, to state only as much as is relevant to a question and to show he has been enabled to understand the relative importance of different parts and events.

To help both the teacher and the pupil, a suitable library containing the necessary books of reference is a desideratum. In Indian History, for example, all the volumes of "The Rulers of India" series published under the direction of the late lamented Sir William Wilson Hunter, all the writings of orientalisists, such works as Elphinstone's, the books of Mr. R. C. Dutt and others may be kept in the library. In English History, standard works may be kept on similar lines.

Alas! how few are the high schools that contain any book of reference worth the name such as Mr. Ilbert's book on the Government of India. It is no use to say "Is the teacher working such wonders as to deserve the help?" By all means condemn him after proper opportunities are afforded. There is even positive discouragement from those concerned in the intellectual progress of the school-children. Is it not too frequently said that the student and the teacher may very well content themselves with a bare text-book or two? A headmaster was known to supervise the work of his assistants and to startle the history-teacher by his pronouncement that the reading of a passage from an eminent historian to explain the skeleton of Sinclair's book was too much of a luxury to be any more tolerated by him. With guidance and control of this kind, what miracle can be worked in a century when a miracle is no more dreamt of? That there is sympathetic and intelligent help given by knowing men is not denied. But, it is equally true that it is not everywhere found

and that, therefore wise guidance must be secured as far as possible. Yet, in the teaching of history, as of geography, much may be done with the assistance of what is available, if the teacher is willing to work and if he is encouraged, as much as is possible, with the limited resources that may be available. As Mr. Yates once remarked, nothing need be said of the discouragements and hindrances that may arise from administrative difficulties and weaknesses when the question is one of the actual condition of teaching. The better means of improving it by administrative methods may be left to be dealt with by others abler than the humble writer of this article.

Less is said of history than of geography, as the needs of the one are better known than those of the other.

C. R. SRINIVASA RAOACHARY.

THE GARDEN THAT I LOVE.

'Tis not where trees and plants luxurious grow,

Where leaf and flower and fruit are fresh and fair,

And cool and fragrant is the distilled air;

Where shades abound and gentle breezes blow

And murmuring streams in sparkling crystal flow;

Where roam the deer, and frisk and start and stare

And tiny birds do seem to sing of joy for e'er

And nature hath for man her best to show:
But 'tis in schools where children smile and shine

And hope and faith and love like blossoms
teem

And future fruitage looms still large and
fine,

Where tender tended youth just gains
a gleam

Of truth, the work that waits, the blessed
strife,

And little man is made or marred for life.

VIVIAN.

THE SELF-SUPPORTING STUDENT IN AMERICAN COLLEGES.

There are in most American colleges three kinds of students: those who earn none of their college expenses, those who earn some and those who earn all. The proportion of non-self-supporting students is large, but large are also the numbers of the self-supporting men and women; indeed, self-support is one of the most prominent features of the American college life of to-day. It is also a most elusive subject upon which to gather information, and the following statistics and opinions concerning various phases of the subject are, in general, only the willing but frankly subjective estimates of American college presidents or their representatives.

The term "self-supporting" designates in this article both those who earn all their college expenses and those who earn only a part. The article will endeavour to treat of the self-supporting student of a "sub-freshman" or prospective collegian, of the expenses that loom up before him, of his opportunities as an undergraduate for work at the college and in the vicinity, of his earnings, his scholarship and his social standing in the college community. He is a large factor, numerically and economically, in the college world; and indeed it may be seriously asked if the typical "college man" might not be represented more truthfully by the self-supporting student than by the much more familiar hero of the college tales, illustrated weeklies and athletic fields.

Sixty college presidents or their representatives have responded to a request to furnish the

statistical information given below. Several large educational divisions are fairly well represented. The North Atlantic Division is represented by 22 colleges; the South Atlantic Division by 3 colleges; the South Central Division by 4 colleges; the North Central Division by 25 colleges; and the Western Division by 6 colleges. A regrettable absence of answers from Southern Colleges makes much desirable information unavailable concerning a section of our country particularly interesting in its relation to the self-supporting white student.

"Going to College" has never been more popular than at present. The "World Almanac" for 1904 gives a total attendance of 119,496 students in our universities and colleges, at the close of the college year 1901-1902. This fall's "largest entering classes" were especially numerous; great endowments, new and mighty buildings, the development of professional schools, the newspaper interest in educational and athletic matters, and the wide-spread impression in our schools that college gives the best preparation for the work of life, have centred more strongly than ever the eyes of the preparatory school student upon the goal of a college education. To most students the college course seems a necessary luxury. Parents make heroic efforts to put the child through college, and the students themselves, when it is necessary, join the self-supporting army to wage as Yales puts it a "four years' warfare" for the four years' course.

It is difficult to estimate how many students are deterred by financial reasons from undertaking a college course. Twenty-nine colleges out of 60 do not know, or give no answer; of those replying more definitely, 19 believe many preparatory-school students would go to college if they could afford to, while 12 colleges think the number but few. And, indeed, the student who is trying to decide if he can make college expenses and earnings meet might receive "self-help" from a score of colleges and rise from their perusal with no definite impression save a headache. Bates college "sees no reason why a healthy, vigorous student should hesitate for financial reasons to enter"; Wesleyan University believes that "any person in good health can go through a college if he will" and similar reports come from Harvard, Cornell, Ohio State University and the University of South Dakota, the President of which writes that he knows of students leaving the University for financial reasons who dressed better than he did. But St. Lawrence University "could double its attendance in six weeks if it could assure all persons that they could earn their

way without interference to their studies." Yet the University of Minnesota states that, "self-supporting students are invariably able, through the kindness of instructors, if necessary, to arrange some satisfactory programme." Western Reserve University prints that, with term-time earnings and vacation opportunities, any thrifty and enterprising young man can pay his way through college. Later in the same pamphlet, one who has "been through the mill" says he would not advise the boy to endeavour to learn all his college expenses, save in cases of exceptional ability in skilled work. The fact seems to be that the exceptional self-supporting student can earn his way, as do, on an average, 25 men in each class of the Yale Academical Department; but most students must drop out or borrow money, as do half the students of St. Lawrence University, who fail from lack of funds to complete their college course, or those men in the University of Pennsylvania whose efforts to earn money exhaust practically all their time and strength. College presidents agree that pluck, endurance and an absence of false pride are necessary, and President Thuring of Western Reserve, says frankly that the self-supporting student must have an amount of pluck and worthy self-confidence that most men do not possess. Two additional opinions are noteworthy. Denison University thinks that 50 per cent. of those wishing to attend college are deterred by financial *excuses*, but only 2 per cent. by financial *reasons*. Marietta College believes that many stay away from college, not because they feel they cannot make their way, but because they are unwilling to lose the time that might be devoted to business and the acquisition of financial independence. So the tide of self-supporting students continues to flow toward the colleges, and the needy freshman finds plenty of company. From Maine to California the self-supporting students form a respectable and much respected army. In only 4 out of 59 colleges are they estimated as falling below 10 per cent. of the total enrolment, namely, at the Universities of the South, Cincinnati, Missouri and Utah. But in Colby College, Illinois College and Baker University 90 per cent. of the students are believed to be working, wholly or partly, their way through college. Bates College and Rutgers College report 80 per cent. or over and Dartmouth and the Universities of Vermont, Minnesota and Kansas 70 per cent. or more. Two colleges report between 60 and 70 per cent.; 11 colleges between 50 and 60 per cent.; 3 between 40 and 50 per cent.; and 9 again between 30 and 40 per cent. Harvard reports the number to be very large; the Universities of Illinois,

Michigan and Wisconsin have no data on hand; the University of Chicago gives over 50 per cent. Yale and the University of Pennsylvania report between 10 and 20 per cent., and Cornell University about 25 per cent.

The figures vary generally, not according to the location of the colleges, but by individual institutions. Two colleges, for instance, in Kansas report 70 and 90 per cent. respectively and the other 35 per cent. Missouri reports 7 per cent. and Minnesota 70. By great divisions of the country, we find that the average for 22 North Atlantic colleges is 48 per cent.; for the 3 South Atlantic colleges 50 per cent.; for the 4 South Central colleges only 18 per cent. The North Central Division with its 25 colleges reaches an average of 45 per cent.; the 18 State Universities have an average of 34, and the 34 other colleges an average of 47.

As has been stated, these figures are based upon opinions of colleges rather than upon data at their disposal. Comparatively few colleges have made careful attempts to discover the proportion of self-supporting students in their midst, although, as will be indicated later, the colleges are endeavouring more and more to meet the demands for work rising from the student army of the unemployed. Consequently, it is quite possible that an average of 45 per cent. of self-supporting students or 53,773 in a total enrolment of 119,496 may be proved later not representative; but it is also true that the average may be either larger or smaller. The college head often cannot tell what the college hands are doing. Students are reticent about their private affairs, and, as one correspondent phrased it, the college president sees many things only through a telescope.

It is equally difficult for the prospective college student to estimate what his necessary and incidental expenses are likely to be, for not only the college expenses vary more or less according to the size and location of the institution, but the estimated "low," "medium" and "high" annual expenses published in most college catalogues vary not only in what is included as necessary (tuition, registration, laboratory, gymnasium, library and other fees, board, room, &c.), but also somewhat in the degree in which they include such other expenses as clothing, amusements, athletics, laundry, travelling, social dues, &c. So it may happen that the "necessary minimum expenses" of \$105 may be higher because of what is omitted than the statement of another college of \$186.47. Nor can the freshman tell definitely from his neigh-

bours' experiences. The University of California has published an exhaustive and illuminating statistical expense account of each of the students, prepared by the students themselves; but the total annual expenses range in this collection from \$100 to about 450. Yet they are declared to represent not "average" but "low," college expenditures.

Average the "low" expense estimates of 58 colleges, we have \$216; the "medium" estimates of 41 colleges \$340; and the "liberal" estimates of 50 colleges give us \$471. It is very probable that the figures upon which the "low" average is based are sufficiently close to the really necessary expenses to make the result of some value as an approximate "national" average, "medium" and "liberal" estimates are of course more variable. The average "low" expenses of 24 State Universities are \$170; of 39 other colleges \$242, the difference in favour of the State Universities may be explained partly by their low or free tuition, and by the lower cost of living in the Central and Western States where the State Universities are most prominent and strongest. College expenses in the East average considerably higher than elsewhere. In the North Atlantic Division 22 colleges give as a "low" average \$279; 3 South Atlantic colleges \$184; 4 South Central colleges \$173; while 24 colleges in the North Central Division average "low" \$182 and 6 Western colleges \$167.

The problem, then, before the self-supporting student is, approximately, how to earn at least \$200 from September to September. He finds at the college offices only a limited amount of "work" and scores of applicants among the students. This labor problem is a constant source of anxious perplexity to the president and his secretary, or the committee on self-help. The college can, to be sure, employ a few students as janitors, bell-ringers, farm-hands, care-takers on the college grounds, and for ordinary carpentry and mechanical work. Students can act as waiters and dish-washers at the college and fraternity eating houses; they can be proctors, monitors, theme-correctors, assistants in the laboratories, library and gymnasium; at the college offices clerical work to a limited amount is frequently offered. But all that the college can directly offer in its own service would be but a morsel for the appetite of such a student body as that of the University of Minnesota, for instance, with its 70 per cent. of self-supporting students. A few college presidents have unsuccessfully experimented with college woodyards, spool and chair-

leg factories, etc. But the pay for college work is rarely over 20 cents an hour.

So the colleges have, in increasing numbers, done the next-best thing in instituting free "self help" agencies, appointment bureaus on the general plan of the teachers' agencies. The student announces that he desires work and the college bureau seeks it and recommends the student. Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Pennsylvania, Tufts, Maine, Brown, Chicago, Tulane, and California are but a few of the colleges thus acting as unpaid middle men. In this work the college branches of the Y. M. C. A. lend ever-increasing and valuable service, a general secretary being located at many of the larger universities, who, frequently at the expense of the college, canvasses the college town and neighbourhood for opportunities for student employment.

The kinds of work done by students, though not unlimited in extent, are practically endless in variety. Dean Hurlburt of Harvard says that it is far easier to enumerate the things students do not do than to tell the ways in which they earn their money. The writer of this article is strongly tempted to dwell at length upon these "student industries" as offering most picturesque and suggestive commentaries upon college life; but reference can be made, fortunately, to several excellent articles treating this romantic side of the question of self-support, and to the self-help publications of California, Chicago, Western Reserve, Columbia, Yale, Maine, Denison, Minnesota and Wesleyan.

It will be apparent upon the slightest reference to these pamphlets that the college student is not afraid to "tackle" as varied occupations as are listed in a city directory. His ingenuity, frankness, pertinacity and cheerfulness are his great stock in trade. He earns from a dollar to a thousand. He enters college with \$300, and goes to his summer work with a cash balance of 30 cents; or he appears in September with a debt of \$10 and comes into commencement week \$25 to start him out on his summer canvassing. He does everything all the year round in all sorts of ways.

His occupations can be classed, in a rough way, as skilled and unskilled. He takes care of furnaces and lawns, houses and gardens, and receives a room and perhaps a part or all his board; waiting on tables or washing dishes nets him from a part to all of his food. By manual labour, one Chicago student earned last year all his expenses, including tuition.

A young fellow at Columbia drove struck on Saturdays, while waiting for something better to turn up, and came to the end of the year with \$350. Only a small proportion of the college expenses, however, can generally be earned at the unskilled rate of 15 to 25 cents per hour.

Between skilled and unskilled labor are found many student occupations. Students organize boarding clubs, collect bills, canvass, deliver newspapers, light street-lamps, and act at college as agents for a thousand different things. As a tourist guide one Columbia man earned \$225 in a season; a student at Minnesota paid his way through college by driving a laundry cart twelve hours a week. A half-dozen Yale men have acted as a company of pall-bearers, and Wesleyan men have made a market for farm produce from home. Skilled labour is remunerative, the student gravitates most readily toward tutoring; its fees are never less than 50 cents an hour, and often rise to several dollars. Columbia reports several students as thus earning in a season \$850 a piece. Seventy-one students of Yale earned by tutoring in 1902-1903 a total of \$8,652, an average of nearly \$122. A successful life-insurance canvasser at Pennsylvania earned all his college-expenses, his commissions during 9 months amounting to \$3000. Lecturing, preaching, managing playgrounds and recreation centres, teaching in night schools, newspaper reporting, clerking, running stereopticians, coaching small boys in studies and games, stenography and type-writing—such are a few of the many occupations of fairly large earning power. The general secretary of the Brown Y. M. C. A. quotes preaching as "earning from \$1 to \$10 per week; teaching from \$1 to \$3 per night (20 weeks per year, 3 to 5 evenings per week); clerking from \$3 to \$5 per week, afternoons and one evening; tutoring from 50 cents to \$2 per hour; and type-writing 40 cents per hour."

The average amount earned by self-supporting students is problematical. More is earned in city colleges than in institutions in small towns; but the lower college and living expenses offset in some measure the difference. Statistics from Columbia show the earnings of 273 students in term-time during the academic year of 1902-1903 to have aggregated \$39,435.57 making the average earnings of each student \$144.45. When this sum is added to \$163.54, the average earnings of each of 192 students during the vacation of 1903, we have some light upon what the average self-supporting student can do in one city college; his earnings are \$308, about \$150 less than the estimated "low" annual expenses of Columbia.

Student occupations in vacation time are even more varied than term-time "jobs," for in the summer the student is hampered by neither location nor recitation hours. Vacation is literally the student's time for making hay. He turns up everywhere, selling stereoscopic views at the Vermont side-door, harvesting in the Kansas wheat-fields, managing a summer stage-line running into the Yosemite cooking for a Minnesota lumber-camp, setting type for a Pennsylvania county weekly. He registers you at the hotel desk, shows you to your room, seats you at the dining-table, checks your baggage, sells you your ticket, and takes in his various capacities your tip, all for the cause of education. He surveys the railroad you are travelling upon, calls out the stations, and shovels the fuel into the engine. And he travels considerably more than the majority of his college professors.

The self-supporting student must evidently exercise considerable skill in adjusting his hours of recitations and his hours of labour, that may be carried without failure. It is an open question how much the self-supporting students are hampered by their outside work. Not all college executives state the case so strongly as does the president of St. Lawrence University, who believes it to be "simply impossible for a student to work all the time or a considerable portion of it and do good work at his studies." Bates says that "students engaged in outside work must be methodical to a degree requiring unusual decision and energy." On the other hand Cornell University thinks that in the majority of cases the student's college does not suffer, because the time spent in labour is taken from time otherwise devoted to idleness, pleasure or recreation; a view held also by Dickinson and Minnesota. South Dakota believes the student can do well, if only he has earned something during the summer.

But only 3 colleges out of 59 believe that self-support is no hindrance to college work. Fifty report that outside work is somewhat hampering, or that it is a hindrance, although only 2 colleges seem to consider it seriously detrimental. A student, as at Harvard, may have to choose between competition for a possible scholarship, meaning consequent total attention to class-room work, and an actual opportunity to earn money, that means, however, renunciation of college financial aid. Not all outside work hampers the student; tutoring, assistance given in laboratory or library, night-school teaching and similar occupations are excellent training for the college man. The extremes are well indicated in two students, one of whom, at California, works several hours daily on a deli-

XI

very wagon of a clothes-cleaning firm, taking the time absolutely from college-work, while the other student, in post graduate work at Chicago, stated recently to the writer that he had earned the previous season over \$2000 at tutoring in the vicinity of the University.

It takes indomitable grit to earn one's way through college, and, as Beloit puts it, entire self-support is advisable only in exceptional cases. But for him who is ready for the fight, there is encouragement in the possibility of applying to other college centres the words of Mr. R. A. Myres, Secretary of the Columbia University Committee on the employment of students that "a good man almost always find employment" and that "the resources for earning money in New York city are almost unlimited, and have as yet hardly been tapped." Yet the majority of wholly self-supporting students probably find it necessary to "drop out for a year" once or twice during the college course, to earn as a motorman, machinist, book agent, or in some other of a hundred trades, sufficient money to complete the college course. And many students do not hesitate to follow in their senior years the advice of several Universities to borrow money, to be paid back as soon after graduation as possible.

Concerning the scholarship of self-supporting students the opinions expressed are very favourable. Of 60 colleges only 3 rate the class-room work of the labouring student as lower than that of his financially more secure colleague. On the other hand 17 colleges believe in the higher scholarship of the self-supporting student, and 26 other institutions state that there is at least no difference in the average rank of the two classes of students. Ten colleges "could not tell" and 4 returned no answer, it is, then, apparently, safe to assume that, although the self-supporting may be so hampered in his work as to drop out of a college sooner or later, the college generally suffers nothing by his presence, but rather gains from the standpoint of its average scholarship.

There are exceptions, of course, in both classes of students, but it is gratifying to notice the frequency of such supplies as that of Yale, that 15 of the 19 highest appointments fell in the class of 1903 to self-supporting students, although in each case they were only about 15 per cent. of their class in the graduating body from the several schools of the University. "This showing," the report continues "is undoubtedly higher than annual averages would continue to be, but it is safe to say that the scholarship of self-supporting students is higher than that of the others."

At Columbia, Mr. Myres chose recently in

alphabetical order the latest college records of 51 students that had applied for work to Committee on the employment of students, and of 51 that had not applied. Only the limited time at his disposal made impossible a comparison of the complete registration of the college. "The figures," Mr. Myres reports, "certainly give the palm to those working their way through college, and such action is probably just. But on the other hand, I find that the sterling, wholly responsible man is about as hard to find among those working their way as elsewhere." And it is then suggested that all final comparisons of self-supporting and non-self-supporting students should be deferred until 20 years after their graduation.

Lehigh says, very simply, that "self-support does not affect scholarship at all. If a student devotes too much time to outside work his scholarship suffers. On the other hand, a poor student naturally has fewer diversions than a well-to-do student, and so is apt to study harder." Cornell finds, not in the self-supporting student, but in the independent student with a small allowance, the man with the highest average. So it seems evident that scholarship in general does not suffer from the effects of self-support. As Tufts puts it "the self-supporting students have a higher sense of their responsibilities, and Dartmouth believes that the systematic work of the working students and their appreciation of an education is conducive to faithful work." The self-supporting collegian may not be able to stand the pace, but he is a good pace-maker while he lasts.

That the American college is a democratic institution, in which worth counts more than wealth, is the sentiment of many replies to the question as to the social standing of the self-supporting student. Not only are the working boys accorded college honors, but class distinction and fraternity fellowship are offered with a most satisfactory readiness to the self-supporting students. Of 59 colleges, 47 report "no difference" in social standing. Dean Hurlburt in answering from Harvard, voices admirably the sentiment strongly expressed by many other colleges. "At Harvard there is absolutely no difference between rich and poor, so far as social standing goes. Sometimes a man has to devote himself so closely to his studies that he has no time to take part in the social life of his class, and is known to a few only; but I believe that a man makes of himself what he wants, except when he starts out to obtain social recognition. Usually, a man of this sort fails. The thing that counts here is to be a worker in some one thing, and a man may win distinction in any

way he pleases. To be taken in one of the undergraduate clubs a man must be 'clubbable,' and if he is this the men asks nothing more. I have known men who have paid every cent of their way into societies which those in the undergraduate world who value society think the most desirable, and men of the greatest wealth who wanted club life, but who were uncongenial, left out. . . . The part of college life I wonder most at and most admire as the years go on is its splendid democracy."

The University of California adds this word: "Any difference in social standing would arise from early training, disposition, personality, habits, tastes, and amount of time and money available for mingling in the interests and pursuits of other students. Of course, the man who is 'hard up' financially may be 'hard up' too in early training, manners and adaptability." Leland Stanford states pertinently that depends entirely upon the class that forms the judgment.

It is hardly to be expected that the situation is the same in all colleges; there will always be students who are not thoroughly convinced of the dignity of labour. Then the colleges report a "slight" difference in the attitude of mind toward the self-supporting student, the Southern colleges being rather more inclined apparently to feel a distinction." Mercer University reports: "self-supporting students are valued by their fellows in all college matters, except possibly as regards their eligibility for fraternity membership, simply upon their individual merits. In the question of eligibility for membership in some of the fraternities and of standing socially among the ladies who are interested in college matters (we have not co-education), ready money has its effect as elsewhere in life."

At the other extreme stands the reply from Baker University that "the students here consider that there is a little premium upon the man or woman who works. Hence some of our students who financially do not need to work, take on nevertheless, a little labour." And at Wabash the self-supporting students are the leaders in all the student organizations, so the almost unanimous verdict of college executives as to "no difference" may be taken with the grain of salt that flavours the letters from Harvard, California, Mercer and Baker, without in the least questioning the undoubtedly vigorous presence of that "splendid democracy" in the American college student body that is so proudly written and read in the letters just quoted.

There are many phases of the life of the self-supporting students that for reasons of space must remain untreated in this article. The health of

working students, the topographical relation of their homes to their colleges, their careers after graduation would be fruitful subjects of investigation.

And no study of self-support in American colleges can be complete without their attention to the whole subject of the financial aid extended by the colleges in the form of scholarships, gratuities and loans. Since such aid, however, has many of the characteristics of a gift, it has been only barely touched upon in this article, which has aimed to consider the student wholly from the side of his work and its results upon his college life.

Until further statistics materially alter the results obtained from the above-mentioned statements of college executives, it may be said of the self-supporting American student that he and his fellows are going to college in large numbers and constitute nearly one-half of the entire college student body of the United States. It is difficult to estimate how many more students would go to college, did they feel that they could earn their college expenses; for those who undertake the "four years' warfare" the annual expenses can be hardly less than \$200. The college itself can offer to the student comparatively few opportunities for work within its walls and boundaries, but the self-help bureau will try to find work for him that, if industriously pursued will bring him from \$100 to \$150 between September and June.

This sum, added to what he can earn during the summer, should meet about two thirds of his college expenses. His college will be somewhat hampered by his outside labour, but if he gives to learning his lessons the same energy he devotes to earning money, his scholarship will be fully as good as the average. His social standing will not be impaired by his self-support, unless the time put upon his outside work causes him to neglect ordinary social duties and opportunities. His four years of college may have to be extended through to five from lack of funds, but if he has pluck and seriousness he can win the battle. He can count upon having the respect of president, faculty, and students, and in his hours of hard work he can console himself with the thought that his enforced labor is very probably developing within him the qualities of pluck, endurance and thoughtfulness that later on in life will stand him in excellent stead.

ORLANDO F. LEWIS.

—North American Review.

TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY IN HIGHER CLASSES.

At the Evening Meeting of the members of the College of Preceptors on March 15, Mr. J. R. Langer in the chair, Prof. Lyde, of University College, London, gave the following lecture:—

In addressing a meeting of teachers on this subject I should like to dissociate myself from a number of persons who, without having had one hour's experience of ordinary school work, presume to criticize school teaching with all the confidence of ignorance. And, in putting before you what is in the nature of a specimen lesson, I wish to apologize to all except any very young teachers who may be present. There has been a very great improvement in recent years in the school teaching of geography, and it has come almost entirely from inside the profession—not from outside. Official ignorance of this improvement is characteristic, because it owes nothing to official inspiration. It is part of the notable effort made by teachers in recent years to improve their own methods. It began long before the various societies for the improvement of geographical teaching existed at all, and therefore could owe nothing in the first place to them. And I am not aware that it received any valuable encouragement even from the Royal Geographical Society.

As a schoolmaster, a public examiner, and an occasional inspector, I have followed the course of the improvement very closely since the year 1886 or 1887, and I know of only two, or possibly three, outside influences. As far as my knowledge goes, all the teachers who began the movement were using Mr. Chisholm's admirable "School Geography," and owed to it the improved lines on which they taught. In recent times I believe, too, that Mr. Mackinder's brilliant personal work has been inspiring. I have also seen some very good work done by teachers who had been through the Oxford School of Education—I do not mean the Oxford School of Geography.

Otherwise the improvement has come from inside the profession; but I think that it has been greater in junior than in senior teaching, except in the case of teachers who use no text-book. I am, as I have said, before in this hall, a firm believer in books—for all classes except the very youngest and the highest—and I am an equally firm opponent of the various modern mechanical "aids" to geography teaching, except in the highest classes. I never used such aids myself; but they have a great attraction for many teachers,

and at least they cannot do the harm to the imagination of senior pupils which they undoubtedly do to the imagination of juniors. Further, the seniors can grasp "lectures," and can take the requisite notes without an undue demand on one's forty-five to sixty minutes a week. At the same time, one assumes that the seniors have text-books, brought up from the junior classes, for reference; and one can frame the lecture to suit the corresponding pages of the text-book.

One's general scheme is drawn up, not for casual refugees who come to the school for a few terms to be "finished," but for those pupils whose parents have been wise enough to send them to you young and mean them to stay with you for some years. With all but the very youngest of these little people, when they first come, I assume that you have used a reader—I tried for five or six years to do without a reader, but gave up the attempt—and, if the reader is good, they have read and been taught correct simple ideas of great geographical areas and phenomena. Then, as they come into middle forms, they will have worked at fuller and more complex text-books; so that we may assume they have a considerable body of correct geographical knowledge, which has been acquired in such a way that it has been a perpetual training of the imagination and the reason.

What do you want to do with higher classes? The mental training must still be the same—if for no other reason than that righteousness is always the best policy. So we will continue to work on what we believe to be the most truly educational lines—not only because it is righteous, but also because it pays. A little less information—I don't call it knowledge—is a cheap price to pay for much more mental power. But, with your righteous eye on educational method, you may have the unrighteous one on the immediate future of the pupils, whose school-time is coming to a close. And, while your first aim is to turn out citizens with well balanced imaginations and well developed reasoning powers, you want also—subordinate to that—to turn them out with a good comprehensive grip on the geographical control of economic, historic, and political phenomena: in itself amongst the most interesting and most useful kinds of knowledge.

Now, your senior classes have all the necessary materials, even if latent; they may have forgotten details—and this forgetfulness is such a terrible source of worry, perfectly unnecessary worry, to many teachers, especially to women—but their

minds cannot have lost the impress of the educational process gone through in acquiring those details, and the details themselves are easily revived. What you want, therefore, is to focus their knowledge—to help them to get clear, comprehensive ideas of natural geographic units as units, and of these units in relation to other units and the world in general.

For this reason, and with this object, I came to the conclusion that, whatever had to be omitted—a hard saying for overconscientious teachers, again mainly women, who cannot bear to omit anything—I would not give more than one lesson, or lecture, on each area, and yet would make each area—unless flagrantly wanting in natural geographical unity—co-extensive with an important political country. Even, for instance, in the case of the Balkan Peninsula, it is feasible to treat, say, Serbia as controlling all the great river-valley railway routes, and Bulgaria as controlling all the important military roads across the "buffer" range of the Balkans. That is to say, you will emphasize the personal identity and the international relations of each area.

I do not believe at all in specializing in the geography of higher classes, and I don't believe greatly in introducing much new material. No amount of special knowledge, e.g., of meteorology or cartography or geology or natural products, is as valuable as sound generalizations, in which the previous knowledge of the pupils is revived and brought to a focus. Nor do I think that the classroom is the place for the methodical reading and elucidation of some geographical author, even if he were twice as discursive as "Satan" Montgomery, and your pupils could afford to buy all his works. I would not go on stuffing pupils with new matter up to their last day at school, any more than I would prepare them for examination without full revision for two or three months before the examination. You do not want to send them out into the world with a mass of undigested facts, which may or may not be digested eventually. You do want to round off their knowledge and unify it—to bring out its greatest possible utility—to make it not knowledge, but power, the power to interpret and use the known and to find out the unknown.

But I need not elaborate this. I feel sure that, whatever differences of method we may have, our aim is the same. And, therefore, it only remains for me to put before you, for your criticism and approval or disapproval, an example of the sort of generalization which I used to give. I choose Japan as the area, partly because of its political

importance just now, but mainly because of its geographical position and character. I have no political views to express, even if I wished to express any.

It has been said that Europe, in its present form, is geographically a peninsula of Asia, and that Asia in its present political condition is a dependency of Europe; and the curious resemblance of Europe to Asia in some of its most significant features is at least as obvious as the political relations of the various parts of Asia are important. Amongst many other instances of resemblance, one has been specially noted recently—that between the two island kingdoms of Britain and Japan, to windward of their respective continents, in temperate latitudes, with a vast length of coast well provided with good ports, and with large supplies of coal behind these ports. These two Powers between them control the "sea mobility" of Asia, as Russia and Turkey control the "land mobility"; and they administer important agricultural areas, the general tone of which, as judged by the most characteristic creed, is antagonistic to that of the more pastoral areas administered by the Russian and Turkish Powers.

Russian Asia is almost entirely an area of Arctic and inland drainage, in which attempts to develop mobility by water are foredoomed to failure, and the conditions of which favour the rapid spread of climatic phenomena and thus involve great uniformity of climate; its characteristic tone is the Shamanism of its cold deserts.

The hot deserts of the Turkish and Persian area are, on the contrary, distinctively Muhammadan in "tone," and the peninsular and isthmian sites which they occupy about on border seas, so that their inhabitants become naturally "buffers" between land and sea, continental and oceanic, influences.

The British control of the Indian Ocean rests on a base of agricultural wealth and typical Brahman "tone" in an area the rivers of which rise behind the edge of the great continental tableland, and therefore give access (more or less difficult) from the oceanic to the continental domain. Eastward the Malay-Polynesian area represents purely oceanic influences; but the indentation of that area by a French territory, in the present state of political alliances, represents practically continental influences.

The fourth great division is typically that of the Yellow man, with a typically Buddhist "tone," and involving both oceanic and continental control, divided between the two most important representatives of the two great branches of the Yellow

race; but in the meantime, owing mainly to the civilizing influence of oceanic environment and the political importance of oceanic control, the "lowlanders" have become a real power in Japan, while the Tibeto-Chinese "highlanders" are still stagnating.

By a rough classification, the yellow "lowlanders" may be divided into hunters and shepherds, and in past ages the occupations of the original Japanese, as of all the kindred peoples whose home was in the central lowlands of Northern Asia, would be hunting, fishing, and stock-raising—the typical industries still amongst their "cousins" in Lapland and Finland and in Eastern Siberia. Under conditions equally favourable to hunting and fishing, much more favourable to agriculture, and exceedingly unfavourable to pasture, the Japanese were almost bound to maintain their old skill in hunting and fishing, but to substitute agriculture for pastoral habits. This change, in itself a great one, was the natural result of the much greater change—from the heart of a continent to the isolation of an island home, from a vast extent of lowland to one of the most hilly areas of the Earth; and it was followed by a further change of "tone," by which Buddhism was imposed on Shintoism—the gorgeous on the simple, colour on form.

The islands are a portion of an old shore of Asia, and are formed mainly of very old rock rising to a considerable height out of very deep water. The oldness of the rock suggests a poor soil but a probability of mineral wealth; and the immense difference of level between the mountain peaks and the neighbouring ocean floor suggests, in such a climate, distinct liability to seismic and volcanic phenomena. The great mass of this old rock is of igneous origin, but of two very different types. The base consists of rock which was cooled very slowly at great depths below the surface of the Earth, and afterwards upheaved by side-pressure due to the cooling of the Earth's crust; such rock so upheaved in such a climate is bound to become very rich in China-clay, and will probably be rich in copper and tin. The superstructure is volcanic, cooled very quickly above the surface of the Earth, and deficient in minerals except sulphur and kindred substances. The relations between the granite base and the volcanic cones makes the passes across the country comparatively low, and affords very picturesque scenic effects—common objects in Japanese art.

It must not be inferred, however, that the volcanic area in Japan is very extensive; the contrary is the case. But the volcanic districts

are very distinct, and in the most natural places, e.g., at the two ends of the islands, where mountainous spurs descend into very deep water, and along a curious "broken back" in the centre of the main island. The only volcano of the former class that is particularly interesting is Aso-san, which has the largest crater known in the world; but the latter class contains, between Tokyo (Yedo) and Toyama ("Little Yedo")—so called because of the resemblance of the Noto peninsula to that of Kadsusa—the best known peaks in Japan.

The "Great Ditch," which marks the line of activity, runs from Fuji-Yama ("Heaven"), past Asama-yama, to Tateyama ("Hell"). The precise point on Tateyama from which the most devilish noises and vapours come is called definitely Figoku ("Hell"); like Fuji-yama, it is the objective of countless pilgrimages, and *on dit* that "the view from Hell is as fine as that from Heaven, but 200 feet lower."

Volcanic eruptions seldom occur, but are destructive; earthquakes are daily occurrences, but usually slight. But there are exceptions to both statements. The famous series of earthquakes which in 1891-2 formed a "Little Ditch" parallel to the "Great Ditch," between Mia Ura and Wakasa Bay, included 1,495 distinct shocks at Nagoya and the appalling number of 2,588 at Gifu, every house along the twenty-mile road between the two towns being overturned! And the resultant "Little Ditch" curiously confirmed the local superstition that "Earthquakes are caused by the burrowing of a huge caterpillar."

The latitude of the chief islands and their sea environment work strongly in favour of an even temperate climate, but the position between the huge land mass of Eurasia and the equally huge ocean expanse of the Pacific involves very marked contrasts: and, though the actual extremes are not great, the islands are cooler and damper than other islands in the same latitude, e.g., the Azores.

The high humidity is due to the narrowness of the islands compared with their length, the position of the mountains so near the coast and at right angles to the two prevailing winds—the N. W. wind outflowing from the Siberian "Pole of Cold" in winter, and the S. E. "Monsoon" reaction in summer—and the warmth of the Kuro Siwo, or "Dark (Blue) Stream." The low average temperature is due partly to the pale (green) Kurile Current, or Chishima Siwo, "Current of the Thousand Isles," and partly to the fact that their land-wind, unlike our warming

Son-Westerns, blows in winter and is icy cold, while their sea-wind in summer tends to lower rather than raise the temperature.

From the position, physical character and climate of the islands, the lecturer went on to deduce the typical products and scenery, laying special stress on the extent to which dense undergrowth crowds out pastoral grasses—the suitability of the climate and the river water for various textile operations—and the highly developed artistic sense of the people.

Prof. Lyde having replied to questions put to him by members of the audience, a vote of thanks to the lecturer concluded the proceedings.

THE LADDER OF EDUCATION.

The teacher who honestly studies the labouring class as a material for his art, will find attaching to it various most severe conditions. According to the speaker at Guildford, labouring youths have no ideal of their own; and in one sense this is possibly true. Yet I think a little more knowledge of the labourer would convince us that, though he harbours no fanciful dream of what he ought to be, he is not without a lively sense of what, in order to live, he must be. Of the ideals we gratuitously form for him he is to some extent aware; but he dares not let them blind him to the yet sterner conditions thrust upon him by necessity.

What are those conditions? They are summed up in the truth, which education has shrunk from admitting, that the dirty work and the nauseating work of the world has got to be done by somebody; that millions of men and women must inevitably be employed at unskilled drudgery, and must even be set apart and be as it were specialised and expert at exhausting and monotonous tasks. A certain large proportion of our people is doomed to that fate, and no education can save them from it. The work must be done; and if here and there an individual, or a hundred individuals escape up the ladder of education, others must step in and fill the vacated place. The individual labourer may rise; the labouring class remains at the bottom of the ladder. It is therefore idle to speculate upon them as if they might be something else; idle, and even cruel, to try to educate them for occupying some other sphere of life. We may shut our eyes to the unpalatable truth, and pretend that one man may be as fortunate as another; but no delusion on that point ever for an instant possesses the

labouring folk. If on the one hand they are dimly conscious of our wish that their character should be of the contemplative Christian public schoolboy type, on the other hand they are absolutely convinced that it must be of such a type as will enable them to endure their appointed fate.

This is the first condition to be recognised by the educator who would not be an unserviceable amateur, but an accomplished artist. If the ideal character proposed to the labourers is one that would be incompatible with the fatigues of quarrying or the disgust of cleaning sewers; if it would falter at the hardness of night work on the permanent way of the railroad, or shrink from the exposure and misery of the brickfield, or break down under the exhaustion of stoking a furnace (I name but a few of the innumerable forms of unskilled labour), the ideal may be a very beautiful one, but it will never get any nearer to realisation than the essays and speeches that are made about it.

By observing this condition, the educator would learn the first lesson of his art, and he ought to be as sure of this as a carpenter is sure that wood is not malleable. There are things that society wishes; but there are also the restrictions of necessity. The University man disapproves of the young labourer's indifferent tobacco, deprecates his unpolished manners, entreats him not to swear, urges him to play cricket; and then necessity comes in with a counter warning, reminding him that tastes proper for Oxford and Cambridge would not endure the prospect of a whole life spent in a labouring man's clothes; or that a sensitive spirit would never hold its own against, say, the hustling ganger on the dock-extension works. It teaches him that graceful manners might be dangerous on the railway sliding; that much courtesy would interfere with his tired fun, when he and his gang at last knock off work and are trailing home. In short that sensitiveness of the civilised person, which recoils from offensive sights and sounds and smells, and is afraid of the wet and hates mud and grease, and has no appetite for food unless the table is daintily set, is forbidden to the labouring classes. They may not cultivate nerves and have teeth that can be set on edge. It is at their peril if they dabble in any of the arts that soften. To be effeminate (or womanish, as the speaker at Guildford has it) is for them to court the hospitality of the workhouse or the repose of the grave. And it is within these limits that civilisation's ideal for them must be accomplished, if at all. Perhaps we

do right in desiring that they should be polished and courteous gentlemen; but I am sure that we do wrong if we forget that this character must be moulded on the callous strength of the navy.

If our amateurish ideal for the labourer is thus circumscribed by the exigencies of his work, his poverty comes in to make one ashamed to think what we expect of him. Probably no outsider can appreciate the position of youths called upon to behave as irreproachably as, let us say, a bank clerk, yet denied all the apparatus by which the clerk supports the burden of civilisation. Yet some estimate of the situation may be attempted. Imagine all institutes and places of amusements closed, all meeting of friends at home impossible, the home itself crowded and uncomfortable, books unattainable, games like chess and draughts and billiards inaccessible, no place of resort open but the streets or lanes and the night-school; and into this desolation turn loose, without money in their pockets, a few dozen clerks to see what they do with themselves. Unless they are experts they may not play cricket (I am a little weary of the everlasting mention of cricket in this connection), because the only pitch has not room for all and is surrounded by ropes, and the game can hardly proceed in the modern style without costly trappings; and perhaps even it is a winter's night, when the alternative of foot-ball is not very possible. What would bank clerks do in such circumstances, and with only indifferent tobacco to smoke? Perhaps they would flock to the night-school to study chemistry or agriculture with a view to their advancement at the bank; and of course they would refrain from foul language and low jests; but I think they would find themselves for amusement as resourceless as the labouring youth actually is. They might discover even that personally they are uncivilised; that their highly approved refinement is not mental or spiritual, is not inherent in themselves at all, but is merely a question of possessing apparatus, like games and institutes and books, to save them from facing their own dulness, and enable them to keep out of mischief and abstain from vice. If the educator can imagine them making such a discovery, he will be able vaguely to estimate what his ideals imply for labouring class lads. For, excepting in the most niggardly degree, poverty denies to these all forms of civilisation that depend on the possession of apparatus. What resources they have must be personal; unless their own wit can amuse them they must go unamused.

But, in idealising thus for the labouring classes, society is proposing to them a develop-

ment of character of which it has itself but little experience. Without the appliances they are to practise the behaviour of civilisation, and they are to live in the same way if they enjoyed the resources which it is impossible for them to command. As a substitute for the material pleasures which satisfy, while they protect, our own innocence, we may suggest the delights of sentiment, of contemplation; of pride in work faithfully done; but though we suggest, the labourer knows that we do not live by our own precepts. The rest of the community, enjoying its many temporal advantages, dispenses with the spiritual blessings that it commends to him. It is true that we know the names of high thinking and lofty sentiment,—those personal attributes which, we are told, may make even a prison tolerable—but there is little to show the labourer that we really value that kind of possession. The newspapers can tell him, and we may be sure they do tell him, how growing an example society sets of following its own maxims. Nor can we exhibit to the labourer in art the pattern we are unable to produce in reality. The tendency of our art is to ignore ideals or subjects, in favour of costly technical refinements, quite out of the working-man's reach; refinements which he is apt to think beneath his notice, as to a large extent it is possible that they are.

Dispassionately viewing all the circumstances, it would seem that the reforming classes are not in the best of positions for saying what sort of people the labouring class ought to be. We may theorise at large, if we disregard the nature and conditions of the material to be reformed; but, these once frankly accepted, the theories begin to look both impertinent and vain. And in so far as elementary education has been founded on these theories, it must fall into discredit. Its elaborate machinery has been set in motion to give shape, not to a well-understood material, but to the vague fancies of amateur idealists.

Quixotically honourable in their intentions, the pioneers of education have thought to ignore or break down class distinctions, but it is their own efforts that break down. So little appreciation welcomes them that (as we see at Guildford) it is actually proposed to enforce that attendance at their schools which, so long as it is optional, is refused. The young labourer may be compelled to continue his schooling; but because we shrink from class education and pay no attention to his condition, we are offering him that for which he has little use. To be perfectly plain, there is no education provided for the labouring classes. There are schools and teachers

and inspectors and a Board of Education, there are burdensome rates and taxes, and there are political disputes and passive resisters, all supposed to be connected with the education of the working classes, but the education itself is practically a delusion—a feast of shells from which the guests go empty away.

I do not need to be reminded of "the ladder of education" expressly provided for the benefit of the labouring folk. That fetish of present day education has received and possibly deserves much adulation; but it is not necessary to pay it more respect than its due, and for my part I think it an appliance greatly over-rated. If, as I am content to believe, it is useful to the few hundreds who succeed in scaling it, on the other hand I am persuaded that it is a stumbling-block to all who fail—that is to say to the labouring classes. It is supported by arguments applied to the mass, but absurd when should this particular boy, or that one, be condemned to a life of drudgery? why may he not rise by education to be a doctor or civil servant or a schoolmaster?—our question is unanswerable. But if from that we go on to enquire—why should not the whole labouring class become doctors or civil-servants or schoolmasters? Why should we not so educate the poor, that presently there will be no labourers left?—at once the question answers itself, or rather it is too ridiculous to call for an answer. Yet either the ladder of education has been designed for this absurd end, of educating the labouring poor for a station they cannot fill, or else it has not been designed for the labouring class at all.

Meanwhile, in some respects it is prejudicial to their best interests and to the interests of education. It is lamented that working youths have no ideal; but the truth is that the ladder of education blocks the way with an ideal they cannot accept. Certainly they have not the ideal of the ordinary enthusiasts. He may not know it, but his disapproval of them is equalled by their contempt for him. The effective labourer preserves an attitude of respect until his master's back is turned; and then he smiles, amusedly compassionately. The exceptions occur when the master is a thoroughly practical man. Such an one is followed loyally, and his ability is spoken of in terms of generous admiration; but the employer who is merely "cultured" and intellectually "womanish," though he may be esteemed for his good intentions, is not often personally admired by his work-people. They feel superior to him; and not only once but many

times I have witnessed the amusement he unconsciously provokes. But the mirth is replaced by scorn and dislike towards one of the labourer's own class who has escaped up the ladder of education. And it may be received as a general rule that the altered speech, the solicitude about dress, the care for clean hands, the readiness to stand aside from physical effort, of the "educated" are all taken by the labourers to be signs of personal weakness produced by education. Yet it is to this weakness that the boasted ladder seems to invite them. It proposes to them an ideal they do not approve.

Again, the ladder of education falsifies the position both of the labouring class and of their instructors. The system which offers its prizes to those who escape labour is a tacit criticism upon labour itself. When every effort is made, every possible inducement held out, to persuade one boy in a school to rise above his parentage and better himself, it is inevitable that an unfavourable reflection should be cast upon the state and prospects of the others. Insensibly they are encouraged to believe that there is something unworthy in the life to which they must look forward and thus a sense of degradation is allowed to attach to a fate sufficiently unenviable without it. By the ladder of education labour is snubbed. Though not in words, but by facts it is announced to all who cannot win scholarships that the attempt to educate them has been a failure. And yet, while the unsuccessful feel themselves blamed, they or their parents know all the time that society does not truly wish them all to succeed. If in the same speech we urge boys to take advantage of the means provided for escaping servitude, and then complain that their sisters make bad servants, what can the parents think but that our professions are insincere, and that the schoolmaster is put up to make an offer of benefits which it is not intended that he should actually bestow.

Owing to the Utopian view we take of the labourer's prospects, the syllabus of his education is over-crowded, and to the irreducible minimum of elementary learning are added smatterings of subjects that may be useful in one or another of all sorts of careers. On this point, the parents of the children are very severe. "They tries to larn 'em too much," they say; or "By the time the children leaves school they don't want to work;" and I am not satisfied that these comments are undeserved, for in the scramble from one lesson to another very little is thoroughly learnt. The teacher is obliged to accept ap-

proximations; pretence does duty for reality; the teacher knows that the children know it; and they that he knows. In such circumstances he has done well if he has won a tolerant respect for his good intentions, a respect for his achievements he is not likely to win. Men face to face with hardship, fatigue and danger in their daily work cannot think too highly of an education from which children learn that work need not be truly done to gain success. I was told not long ago of a young man of this village who, being a "good scholar," had thrown away excellent opportunities and was said to be starving. "Regular learned chap," said my informant "but he couldn't do no work; and so 't have been the ruin of 'n; and so 'tis of many more, you sees."

To sum up: the education provided for the labouring classes is not very successful in achieving what we wish, and produces results for which nobody wishes. If it does not actually encourage the people to shirk hard work, if the worst it does is to make them suspicious of education, that is bad enough. In proposing to them different employments, which after all, are not open to them, it makes them dissatisfied not with themselves, which might be a good thing, but with the position they are fated to occupy. At the same time they are led to believe that civilization consists in effeminate pursuits and the innocent amusements that can be bought with money. To possess the apparatus of culture is the positive, and to refrain from indecorum is the negative, side of the ideal to put before them; and so far as their schooling succeeds at all, it gives them about half the instruction that would enable them to live as clerks and practically more that will help them to live as labourers. A longer period at school or compulsory attendance at evening classes, would doubtless bring them nearer to the clerkly standard; but the further we go in that direction, the plainer it becomes that there is no education worth the name, adapted to the needs of the labouring classes. And this position is arrived at by our endeavours to idealise for them, and without regard to their poverty and the exigencies of labour.

In any attempts to do better the ideal should be reconsidered, in relation to the conditions of the material to be worked up. As I said before, once loyally recognised, the conditions at which an artist chafes at first may in the end become his best support; and this may be believed of the art of education. Consequently, that hardness of body and mind which alone can endure, the labouring existence ought to be, not as now, an obstacle but the subject of central care in the

labourer's education. He wants nothing finikin, nothing pompous and solemn, above all, nothing effeminate. Milk for babes is a good thing; but milk and water for the English labourer is the reverse of good. His educators must somehow change their tactics. They have been, or have seemed to him, guilty of wishing to purge him of his essential qualities; let them rather venerate these, frankly owning that they are admirable, and then aim to make them finer and to enrich them cultivating the efflorescence of which they are capable. The idea must be got rid of, root and branch, that the only possible education is that suitable to clerks and professional or commercial men; that all education culminates in the University. The harvest-field and the gas-works, and the lime-pit and the underground railway are not places for the senior wrangler; but they are places where lives need not be sordid, if the education fit for them could be found.

Instead of asking what we would like the labouring man to be, the reformers may begin again, enquiring what he needs to be and can be. I have great faith in him that he would respond to a training not inconsistent with his strength and humour. I know him to be capable of tenderness and self-sacrifice, of enthusiasms, of simple æsthetic delights, of wit, adventure, laughter, and social pleasure; and I do not see why these qualities should not be improved in him without danger to the backbone of his character. To give dignity to his labour and refreshment to his leisure he needs imagination, a sense of honour (far above mere honesty), an eye for the massive beauty of the world, a love for living things; in fine, a sustained and high sentiment towards life, a strong laughing sentiment, that will turn his labour into a chivalry which he would not abandon if he could.

As this cannot be imparted in a course of lessons, and is not dependent so much upon knowledge, or intellect as upon feeling—feeling that has become habitual—so it is for the educator to investigate the means at his disposal for training feelings. Excepting in education, the use of means to such an end is not unknown. Catholics are not at a loss when they would rouse feelings of devotion in the army there is a traditional and effective mode of kindling martial ardour; even the theatrical manager knows something of the business; but the educator seems ignorant of it. If not, why does he complain that his pupils are without ideals? Ideals have their roots in sentiments; and if the educator really wishes for them, he must put faith in something else than object lessons and

chemical experiments, and for a while lay the ladder of education on the shelf.

I offer these considerations to those who are eager to be moulding the character of the labouring folk; but I am not myself convinced that the collective wisdom of society is great enough to undertake such a task. Certainly there are other things, humbler but more definite, for education to do; and if we see to it, firstly, that the labourer's character is not injured and secondly, that he is put in the way of doing a few things really well, so that he may slowly but surely form his own ideals; it seems to me that we shall have gone as far as we have any business to go in influencing him. I at least am not prepared to set up a standard for him to live up to; and I would rather he should remain for a while what he is,—the raw material of civilization and an extremely good fellow on the whole—than see him spoiled by ill-advised and overhasty handling.

GEORGE BOURNE.

—*Macmillan's Magazine*, April.

THE EDUCATIONAL LADDER IN SCOTLAND.

SOME OF THE RUNGS MISSING.

A remarkable address was delivered by Prof. Ramsay, of Glasgow, President of the Classical Association of Scotland, at the general meeting of the Association held in Marischal College, Aberdeen, on March 11. Reserving for another occasion the question of compulsory Greek at Oxford and Cambridge, which "he thought had been put very badly, very falsely, every illogically before the country," he proceeded to speak of "the banishment of the vital secondary subjects—especially classics and mathematics, and to some extent modern languages also—from many of those country schools which had been for generations the pride of Scotland, and especially of the northern counties"; or, if banishment were too strong a word, yet "the discouragement of those subjects, or, at least, the half-hearted and side-door encouragement meted out to them in consequence of the Code of 1903."

THE EDUCATIONAL BATON.

Prof. Ramsay, however, acknowledged with satisfaction that in the working out of the Code there had been shown, on the part of those in whose hands their educational destiny lay, a desire

to abate somewhat from the extreme rigidity of the terms in which it was set forth, and to recognize somewhat the cardinal principle on which all statesmanlike reform must proceed, viz., that in establishing any new system, with new ends, many of which must be problematical and might prove of doubtful utility, true wisdom consists in preserving, not in wiping away, what has proved itself admirable in the old. Now, he ventured to say that there had been nothing more admirable in the Scottish system of education nothing so nationally beneficial, nothing so unique, as the fact that every lad of parts, in any part of the country, might have at his own door the opportunity of having his intellectual powers awakened and developed by entering, upon the study of those severer subjects, and laying the foundation of that kind of mental discipline, through which alone a man could make the most of the powers within him and rise to positions of usefulness and honour, whether in public or private life. Not every one of Napoleon's private soldiers rose to be a marshal; but, as every one of them was said to have a *bâton* in his knapsack, so he would like to make every young scholar in Scotland feel that he carried an educational *bâton* in the bag that hung upon his back.

Prof. Ramsay recalled the fight against Mr. Lowe's Revised Code, "which knew nothing of higher education, and which recognized no claim for State education at all except for the children of the *bona fide* labouring poor." The Senate of Glasgow University took up the question in 1868-69, pointing out how largely the Universities were recruited from parish and other elementary schools, and how widely higher education had hitherto been diffused in Scotland, and making strong protest against the reactionary proposals.

HIGHER EDUCATION IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Year by year up to 1872 they agitated against this view; the other Universities joined them in deputation upon deputation to head-quarters; they quoted, even then, the admirable results produced under the Dick and Milne bequests [in certain north-eastern counties], as showing that the existence of a higher education in a school raised its whole tone and character; and, more important still, that, as a rule, the schools that were best in their higher work were best in their elementary work also. Well, in the end they succeeded in obtaining the famous words included in Section 67 of the Act of 1872: "that the standard hitherto maintained in the elementary schools of Scotland should not

be lowered; and, as far as possible, as high a standard should be maintained in all the new schools to be provided under the new Act." That section had ever since been regarded as the educational Palladium of every Scots boy or girl, giving every one of them the right to have the chance of a higher education in the ordinary schools of the country. There was many a hard tussle to get these words inserted; they should never have gained them at all but through the sympathy of Sir Francis Sandford, who was at that time head of the English Department, and who never failed in sympathy for Scottish education in all its branches.

Prof. Ramsay reproduced some of the striking facts then exhibited by Glasgow University to demonstrate the connexion between the University and the Elementary Schools.

GLASGOW UNIVERSITY AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

In the year 1868 they ascertained that out of 568 students in the Arts Faculty no less than 235 had been educated entirely at Elementary Schools; 130 more had been partially so educated—not counting 49 educated privately or outside Scotland—and only 130 had been entirely educated at Secondary Schools. Taking the results of all the faculties combined, the proportions were almost the same. Excluding foreigners and those privately educated, 45 per cent. of their students had gained the whole, and 25 per cent. more than half, of their previous education at Elementary Schools. "Not more than 20 per cent. came from Secondary Schools. Of the whole number of Arts students in that same year nearly one-fourth—22 per cent.—were teachers, many of them already engaged in school work, and nearly the whole of these had been trained at Elementary Schools. It would be interesting to see how things stood now." He had always carefully noted the school antecedents of his students, and he found that the above proportions remained pretty constant until the passing of the Universities Act, of 1889. Thus, taking the period of twenty-five years before the passing of the late Universities Act, students educated entirely at Elementary Schools distinctly outnumbered those from Secondary Schools, and, if those educated privately or outside Scotland were omitted, formed nearly one-half of the entire number. What was the state of things now? The state of things now, from causes which they all understood, was that, apart from those who were teachers, the scholar wholly educated at an Elementary School had practically been wiped out of existence. In the present session, 1904-5, leaving women

students out of account there were 206 students in the Latin class. Of this number 190 had passed the Higher Preliminary in Latin: the remaining 16 had failed to pass that examination and were attending as private students not qualified for the degree course. Of the 190 students qualified for the M.A. course, 112 had a full course of three years or more at a Secondary School, including a few higher-grade schools among the number. Of the remainder, no less than 65 had been pupil-teachers (one an assistant-teacher) mostly at Elementary, some at Higher-grade, schools; 12 students who were not teachers had a mixed education, and only 5 in all, not being teachers, had received their education at public Elementary Schools. Thus a revolution had been accomplished, and he would like the public to realize its extent.

THE CAUSE OF THE REVOLUTION.

They all knew the main cause of it: it was that the Universities, in the interests of higher education, had imposed a severe test for entrance to the degree course; that the numbers attending the Universities had in consequence been greatly diminished: that schools which were wont to prepare scholars for the Universities could prepare them no more, and that a large class who used to find their way open to the University found it no longer open to them. Meanwhile, the State had done nothing to repair this particular deficiency, except for the benefit of those whom it had thirled to, the teaching profession. Instead of that, it seemed willing to withdraw opportunities of instruction in University subjects from schools and districts which enjoyed them before. It was ready to impose on clever boys and girls of twelve, as a condition of higher knowledge, the penalty of exile from their homes; and, instead of building upon the experience of the past and strengthening the teaching of the subjects which had heretofore been found the most fruitful, was giving way to that craze for novelties which was the besetting foible of our time, substituting for the old tried courses, new courses of untried educational utility—courses which, as had lately been well said, had been "born of industrial panic."

In order to show how the time-honoured system might have been maintained, Prof. Ramsay referred to "the remarkable and extraordinarily interesting" Report by Prof. Laurie on the working of the Dick Bequest Trust from 1890

THE TRUST OF THE DICK BEQUEST TRUST.

The Trust was an abiding monument to Prof. Laurie; and Prof. Ramsay could not express

too strongly his agreement with all the educational aims and principles set forth in it. How excellent and how simple was the system of the bequest that he had administered! First, a modest payment for good qualifications on the part of the teacher; second, a modest capitation grant upon the whole number receiving efficient education in higher subjects; third, a further modest capitation grant for passing certain definite examinations; fourth, a satisfactory report upon the work of the school as a whole. And how admirable the results! During the ten years ended December, 1888, an average of 86 boys and girls annually were passed on from the rural schools in the three counties to the more skilled occupations and professions. In 1903 the proportion was the same, except that more scholars went on to the training colleges. In that year the total number of scholars attending advanced classes in the schools of the trust (all qualified by Merit Certificate or equivalent) was 2,609, and these earned between them 1,368 Leaving Certificates of all grades, whether Lower, Higher, or Honours. This report afforded most stimulating, and at the same time most melancholy, reading—most stimulating, because it showed how much could be done in the way of developing the brains of a whole countryside, and of lifting up Nature's *élite* into the higher paths of life, by a very moderate expenditure of money, if only it was expended on wise principles; most melancholy, because it was sad to reflect that in a generation which was all agog for education, which had added millions to our educational budget, no precedent had been taken, no lesson learnt from the administration of a scheme which had stood forth on a small scale as a beacon light to educational enthusiasts for three-quarters of a century; and that at the present moment when the educational age had been extended to fourteen, when thousands of new scholars were, in consequence, being taken into our schools, when there was actually no limit to what the country was ready to pay for educational objects—that at such a moment the latest improvements in our educational laws threatened seriously to turn out of country schools—or of some of them—the very subjects which had given them their pre-eminence. Nay, more: these same studies, on which Scottish brain had been so largely fed and Scottish prosperity so largely promoted, were not even given a definitely acknowledged place as one of the supplementary courses; were not even allowed to rank on an equality with the various subjects—many of them excellent sub-

jects, some of them fancy subjects, and as yet quite untested subjects—which had been introduced into the new system.

"Now what were the reasons for this apparently retrograde movement, for this cutting down of the opportunities of the higher learning open to the country school? How far was it a necessary condition of that better organization and consolidation of our educational system as a whole which we all desired?"

CRITICISM OF SIR HENRY CRAIK.

He read Sir Henry Craik's remarks [made on February 18, at Aberdeen] with great interest. Sir Henry proclaimed himself a believer in classical education; but when he (Prof. Ramsay) read that men who had worked early and late, probably before hours and after hours, to help on a few promising scholars to higher things, and to keep up the reputation of their school, met with no encouragement, but were twitted with having so poor an aim as that of bringing in £6, or £8, or £10 to the income of the school, he felt, he confessed, that the power of official obliqueness had sunk to its zero. Sir Henry further laid great stress on the difficulties in the way of the Department, and he explained the difficulties in the way of the Department created by the sudden influx of new scholars up to the age of fourteen. Now he (Prof. Ramsay) took it that they were all in favour of a better grouping, a better correlation of schools. They had all desired to see Secondary Schools of every kind better equipped, better differentiated, and drawing to themselves under natural conditions as many scholars as could conveniently attend them. They also fully realized the difficulties created by the sudden influx of new scholars up to the age of fourteen, the great majority of whom must be educated with a view to the lives they would have to lead and not to any others. But, if many new scholars had to be provided for, was that any reason why scholars of the old class should be worse off than they were before? And might not many of these new scholars be themselves of superior parts, with the ability to rise in life like so many a scholar of old? Did that argument not savour somewhat of the grand old Tory principle that a boy should be educated suitably to his station in life and not so as to help him to rise above it? And, if so many more were left on till fourteen, was not that a reason why a greater proportion, not a smaller proportion, of the whole number—all who showed early any decided ability—should be given a

chance at a sufficiently early age of beginning the higher subjects, so as to have made some good progress in them by the age of thirteen or fourteen? To gather into Secondary Schools, or into higher-grade schools, as many scholars as possible, and at as early an age as possible, was excellent; but many districts, many homes, had no such school within reach.

PROF. RAMSAY'S SUGGESTIONS.

If, then, promising children could not, and ought not to, be removed from their homes too soon, provision ought to be made in all country districts which had no higher school within reach, to let such pupils have the chance of beginning, before twelve years of age, the higher University subjects—languages, ancient or modern, Mathematics, English, and History. Let intelligent Nature study form a part of all courses, but let the special and extra prominence and extra time now given to science, whose educational value has yet to be appraised, be departed from; let every higher-grade school be allowed to have the option of a language and mathematical course to rank upon an equality with the present commercial science courses; let science be removed as a necessary condition from the course required for the Intermediate Certificate: in short, let the different sets of subjects, the old and the new, be put upon an equality, and treated in the same way financially and otherwise, and he had no doubt whatever which of them would turn out the best men, which would be found to provide the finer intellectual discipline and to supply what was most needed to maintain the intellectual stamina of the nation.

STUDIES IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

ORGANISED GAMES IN CONNECTION WITH

THE LARGE DAY SCHOOL.

By R. CARY GILSON, M.A.,

Headmaster of King Edward's School, Birmingham.

As no one will be likely to read this paper who does not think that organised games are essential to the well-being of an English school, I shall assume the truth of that proposition, merely remarking that both the good and the evil associated in our minds with "athleticism" appear to me to be, in a manner, accidental. I do not believe that the elaborate system existing, say in

our most famous public boarding-schools, was in origin a well-considered scheme for strengthening boys' characters, or even their arms and legs. The English are a nation of sportsmen. School sports, and, it may be added, the British Empire, grew up out of this circumstance, and the discovery of their beneficial reaction upon national character came later. The anti-intellectual atmosphere unfortunately existing in some places where athletics—or at any rate athletes—are made too much of, is a social phenomenon having deep-seated causes which go far beyond the region of school management, or even of education. I am with our critics in holding that this anti-intellectual atmosphere constitutes a national danger of a serious kind, and I have certain views as to how the danger can be averted; but a mere reduction in the amount of cricket and football played at school appears to me a ludicrous remedy, like reducing the nursery milk-supply to avoid encouraging a drinking habit in the rising generation.

Leaving out of account a few preparatory and private schools, where athletics certainly occupy too much space in the prospectus, I am not acquainted with any boarding school at which games are played too much, or any day school at which they are played enough. The emphasis is on the word *played*, for if, in a school of six hundred, eleven boys play cricket through a summer day, and five hundred and eighty-nine maintain a fitful interest in the proceedings by the aid of lemonade, cherries, and sweet biscuits, subsequently spending the evening in the discussion of averages, caps, and perhaps the scandalous partiality of the captain and his friends, that is a school in which much time and energy are wasted upon cricket, yet not enough cricket is played. I confess unbounded admiration for Mr. Pellatt's ideal match-ground of sixty pitches, on which two entire schools might contend at once; together with probably heretical views about the moral obligation of "looking on;" but I shall not lack support in the opinion that the "gladiatorial" and individualistic elements are responsible for nearly all the mischief done by school games, and that four times as much actual play would not increase but tend to diminish the evil. All the nonsense about averages and records, and the misdirected hero-worship which turns the schoolboy's ideals and ambitions upside down, presuppose a large basis of what has been forcibly called "vicarious athleticism." Remove this basis, and the hideous superstructure reared by indolence, false taste and the sporting press, will topple and disappear.

Now it is just in the town day-school, where an adequate amount of actual play is the most necessary, that its provision is in practice the most difficult. Not only is space (the first requisite) enormously expensive, but the amount of "plant" really needed upon it is much greater than in a boarding school. Where the school and "study" windows look out upon the playing-fields a pavilion is little more than an ornamental luxury. On the distant field of the city school—distant in any case from the homes of many of the boys and in most cases from the school itself also—it is an absolute necessity. It must be of ample size, and include accommodation for washing, bathing, and the drying of clothes, as well as a dining-room, shelter for bicycles, and a cottage for the ground man. The extent of the field should not be less than two acres for every hundred boys in the school and more is desirable. Without in the least holding that a school eleven require a ground of "Lord's" or "Oval" perfection on which to disport themselves, I think that at least one good square of turf, with room for several changes of pitch, must be reserved exclusively for cricket. There are not many soils on which it is possible to play both football and cricket without diminishing either the frequency or the popularity of both games. A well-found establishment will also possess a swimming-bath and at least a "miniature" or "safety" rifle range. No account is taken here of the gymnasium, which, for reasons to be stated presently, must be more centrally situated. Fives courts are also much more useful at the school itself, if space at all permits. Hazlitt, indeed, reckons this game as the finest exercise for the body and the best relaxation for the mind, maintaining that *post equitem sedet atra cura* "would not have applied to the fives player"; but in the youthful training of a "political animal" it can scarcely rank on a par with cricket and football. To use a Harrow expression, it is essentially a "yard game," and, as such, unrivalled. Apart from these things, and from superfluous luxuries such as a racquet court, the cost of the equipment will inevitably be great, but will naturally differ very much with local circumstances. The eleven-acre field belonging to the school with which I am most familiar lies in a suburban district about three miles away, and is rented on a ninety-nine years' lease at £233 per annum. About £2,000 has been expended in fencing, levelling, and re-turfing and the pavilion cost rather more than this sum. Concerning running expenses I shall have something to say towards the end of this paper.

Though I am far from asserting that organised games, cannot be attempted in connection with a large day-school until the whole of the provision just described, is complete, I believe I have enumerated nothing of which the real utility can be doubted, or which can be omitted without in some way curtailing the educational effect of the school. For example, if either the washing, drying, or catering arrangements of the pavilion are insufficient, some boys must go home on dark winter afternoons after a hard game, muddy, wet, or unfed. They may have a considerable journey to make, involving connections on the railway, or between the railway and the tramway; and the headmaster is left without answer when the mothers complain about "catching cold." Cleanliness, dryness, and a little food are essential in the circumstances. The first two cost next to nothing when the permanent provision is once made, and, as for the third, an excellent cup of tea with bread-and-butter or a slice of cake can be retailed at two pence with a profit.

Now let us suppose the arrangements made: how are the boys to be induced to come and profit by them? Some would answer boldly, "Make the games compulsory." My own judgment is decidedly against this course and in favour of making participation in the games quite voluntary; while attendance at the gymnasium should be compulsory. Space forbids a statement of all the reasons, but two of them are as follows. Gymnastics are undeniably beneficial to all boys except the physically disabled, who, if the gymnastics are of the right sort will be an insignificant percentage; and their utility has little to do with personal inclinations. I am not quite sure that games—at all events compulsory games—are good for the character of everyone; and this will only be deemed a surrender of the whole position by those who think that all boys are born approximately alike, inside. With anyone who holds this view I am unable to argue; on educational subjects we have no common ground. The second reason is that the practical good of organised games altogether seems to me to depend on the willing co-operation not only of the boys but also of their parents, and compulsion, even when apparently successful, has a considerable tendency to alienate this.

How, then, are the boys to be drawn in? By preaching, a little, but mainly by practice. It must not be forgotten that the impediments at a day school are very real, though it is only in a few cases that they will be found insuperable. The most serious of them are expense and lack of time. There is no royal road to the overcoming

of either. Expense must be kept down by constant vigilance and economy. The boys themselves should have a hand both in raising and spending the money, but a permanent "Ground Committee" of masters is also highly desirable. To them the ground man will be directly responsible, and they will manage many matters for which more knowledge of affairs is required than the boys possess. Extravagance in "colours," badges, and prizes for athletic sports must be specially guarded against. The ground man's remuneration will consist partly in the use of his cottage and the right to sell materials and refreshments under proper supervision. With all economy the expenditure of the School Games Club will be at least five shillings a term for every boy in the school, independently, of course, of anything that may be spent on a cadet corps.

On the other side of the account will be the boys' own subscriptions, graduated according to age or position in the school; but a supplement for running expenses from some other source is necessary in most schools. Education authorities have now, apparently, legal power to grant money for such purposes, and their own education, together with that of governing bodies in general, is proceeding. Well-to-do and well-disposed parents may be appealed to, and individual governors, old boys, and other friends of the school have in some instances done magnificent things. Appeals of this sort, however, are more appropriate and usually more successful when the object is some tangible piece of capital, such as a proper pavilion, than when it is only a question of making ends meet year by year. Parents of present pupils stand in a different position in this respect from the other possible contributors I have enumerated. Inasmuch as in most day schools the pupils are getting a good deal more education than they are paying for, it is surely not unreasonable that those of the parents who can afford it should contribute a little more than the bare amount of their sons' club subscription towards the maintenance of the social and corporate life of the place. The model parent will not only pay the small terminal subscription with the utmost alacrity, but will also send the treasurer a guinea or so once a year so long as he has any son in attendance at the school. Such annual donors should be regarded as honorary members of the school club, and care will be taken to send them complimentary tickets for School Athletic Sports or any similar occasions when there is any attempt at a "gate." Things are in a healthy condition when the ordinary boys' subscriptions provide a

moiety of the annual expenditure, the other half coming from the Governors' grant (which should be made to the "Ground Committee") and the donations of honorary members.

The scarcity of time, which arises from the great consumption of that unpurchasable commodity in the process of getting to and from a day school, though occasionally amounting to a physical impediment (in which case there is no more to be said), is more generally to be reckoned among psychological deterrents; and with a few remarks on this side of the matter I will conclude. Practice, as already said, avails more than preaching. The greater the number of boys, and of masters, who take part in the games, the greater the interest of the games, and the larger the inducement to the rest to take a hand. Experience proves this cumulative effect in the most convincing way. Nearly everything that adds to the number of the effectives may thus be justified and recommended. "Foreign matches," even with distant schools, are in their right place as a means and not as an end. It is not necessary, or, as I think, desirable, that all other play should be suspended while they are being contested. The danger of playing by proxy merely, with its attendant evils, is, however, much less urgent at a day school than in a boarding school.

The arrangement of the sides for internal matches is a far more important detail than might at first sight appear. Various systems have been tried. The ordinary school division into forms, sets, &c., is unsuitable for obvious reasons. "Picking up" is only to be tolerated for occasional practices, or on days when real stress of weather has thinned the attendance. Its adaptability to such an occasion is just the drawback to its employment or any other. It puts a premium on irregularity and irresponsibility. No one can feel a sense of duty to a side which will not come into existence till five minutes before the game. Mere alphabetical distribution is but little better. Division by locality (of the boys' homes) has proved a success at Clifton in respect of the numerous day-boys, and has the immense advantage of continuity and the generation of something like "patriotism," of however restricted a sort. It would not answer in some towns, because its lines would inevitably be too near those of social cleavage, the last that any reasonable being could desire to see reinforced at school. On the whole, I cordially recommend the "house system." Let the houses first be chosen, their actual places of residence having of course nothing whatever to do with the matter. Divide the whole school, effectives and non-effectives alike, in approxi-

mately even numbers between the house masters, and let the personal link be a permanent one. New boys will be distributed impartially by the headmaster at the beginning of term, and if possible before anything is known even by him as to their athletic capacities or probabilities. The house lists may be printed and posted in conspicuous positions. The fact that every boy has a pigeon-hole made ready for him in an organisation of this sort will go a long way, without any Coercion Acts, towards inducing him to occupy it and do himself credit in it. Those who are familiar with the height to which "house feeling" is apt to run in a boarding school will be prepared to hear of its possibility even where the house is a fiction, but the full merits of the fiction can only be appreciated by those who will give it a trial. I may add that I claim absolutely no originality in respect of it, and owe its inception and successful working in my own school entirely to my colleagues.

OUR ENGLISH LETTER.

CAMBRIDGE, May 1905.

Mr. H. Reade, of Balliol College, Oxford, makes a very valuable suggestion in the current number of the 'Cambridge Review.' In Germany, he says, as is well-known, students move about at will from university to university, and graduate where they choose. Yet everywhere a student who has once been admitted a member of a 'korps' or of a society, feels himself at home at once. Either his old society has a branch at the new university, or it is affiliated to some club at that university. In some cases this affiliation extends to the universities of all German-speaking lands. Thus a student of the 'Saxo Borussia' of Bonn, finds himself automatically a member of one club when he moves to Tübingen, of another in Vienna, and of a third in Zürich. The great 'Wingolf' society, to which almost every Evangelical clergyman in Germany has belonged, has an affiliated club even at Dorpat in Russia.

Similarly, urges Mr. Reade, a member of the Cambridge Union Society ought to find himself at home in the McGill University of Montreal or in the agricultural classes of Sydney. But at things are, this is far from being the case. Many a man who, for one reason or another, has been compelled to emigrate, has had to start in the new country entirely without introductions; and this though university men swarm in most of our colonies. A member of the Cambridge Union is, it is true, *ipso facto* a member of the Union of Dublin and Oxford; but it would be well if

system could be elaborated for extending this arrangement to Universities much farther a field.

I throw out the suggestion in these pages—as an *obiter dictum* to which I should not like to commit myself—that it might be possible to apply a scheme like Mr. Reade's to the Indian Universities also. I do not know how far there is such a connection between Indian Universities already in existence; but in any case I should think that it would be well if such a man as Mr. Ramalinga Reddy, who has recently been elected Secretary of the Cambridge Union, could *ipso facto* become an honorary member of all the University 'Unions' or debating societies throughout India. Mr. Reddy has won his election by consistently good speaking and hard work. He will doubtless proceed in due course to the Presidency. I believe I am right in saying that the Presidency has only been held by one Indian before. The honour to Madras and its University is all the greater.

Meanwhile the confusion caused by the Education Act shows no sign of abating. Mr. Balfour has always spoken with scorn of the 'Passive Resisters'—a body now fifty thousand strong, and representing, of course, an enormously larger body of determined opponents of the Act. In Wales, the decks are now cleared for the fight. The Board of Education is on the very edge of calling the 'Defaulting Authorities Act' into operation against the County Council of Merioneth. The county, on the other hand, has met the threat with defiance, and is fully resolved to carry out its plan of removing the children from the non-provided schools in order to deprive those schools of the grants. At a recent meeting held at Bala, at which Mr. Lloyd George and others made stirring speeches in Welsh, there was no hint of compromise. Yet the Archbishop of Canterbury persists in saying that the Act has worked 'smoothly.' None indeed are so blind as those who will not see.

Equally 'smooth' has been the working from an entirely different point of view. The London County Council has issued its report as to the condition of voluntary schools in the London area. Of the 438 non-provided schools in that area, 92 are hopeless; in 342 the drains are bad. Only 64 are in such a condition that they can be taken over as they stand.

Many comments may be, and have been, made on this report. But the practical comment made by East Ham has been the plainest of all. To take over schools in this condition cannot be done without the expenditure of money; with-

out, that is, the raising of the rates. East Ham is a poor district, in which labourers most do congregate. The rates were already as high as they well could be; and, rather than raise them higher, the Borough Council met, and, practically without a dissentient voice, resolved to refuse to maintain the schools. Seven hundred teachers received notice to quit by June 1, after which the Council will no longer administer the Act.

This is, as everybody recognises, the hardest blow the educational policy of the Government has received. Three courses are alone open—to equalise the burden of rates, either throughout the country or at least in the London District, to make the maintenance of schools, wholly or almost wholly, the business of the State instead of a local burden, or to coerce the refractory council. All three courses have their difficulties, the last perhaps not least; but one thing is certain, that the Government ought to have foreseen how hardly their policy must bear on the poorer councils. Mr. Balfour, in his speech on the subject in Parliament, said little, but enough to show that he was at his wit's end. He said that it was very wrong in East Ham to have behaved as it has done; but he did not say that he intended to make East Ham do better. Doubtless he is hoping to leave this difficulty, along with others, to his successors.

Families are often as lucky as individuals. The present lucky family is that of the Lyttletons, which during the last few years has had a series of promotions that could never have been anticipated. Mr. Alfred Lyttleton is Colonial Secretary; and now, in spite of gods, men, and columns, Mr. Edward Lyttleton is Head-master of Eton. Not that his luck in any way proves lack of merit. Two or three excellent books on topics closely connected with school-life, fifteen years of successful headship at Haileybury, and several previous years as an assistant at Eton, have shown conclusively that Canon Lyttleton is fully worthy of the high post to which he is now called. He will be tested at once. He is being called upon to put down the Eton beagles. If he does so, he will show a courage and originality rare indeed in heads of public schools—institutions in which tradition has a stronger sway than in any others in the world.

It is well known that Mr. A. C. Benson, son of the late Archbishop, and author of so many excellent works, might have had the post had he chosen. But, after many years as a schoolmaster, in which he had won the respect of his colleagues and the enthusiastic regard of the boys, he had

[JUNE 1905.]

finally decided to relinquish teaching for literature, and not even the great prize of his old profession could have him back. But the important point is that Mr. Benson is a layman—and thus the tradition of centuries was all but broken through. May the next Head of Eton be not only potentially, but actually, a layman!

There are two subjects on which, whatever be the future fate of the Education Act, Government will have to legislate. One is the question of providing food at school for starving children—a question which no less an authority than Sir John Gorst has made his own, and is pressing on the attention of Parliament. Already the omission to deal with it is marked as the chief defect in the otherwise admirable Scotch Education Bill, which yesterday, as it did last year, went through its second reading without a division. The other is the question of continuation schools. The Bishop of Hereford has mooted this in a Bill by which he would authorise the councils to start such schools and to compel attendance for at least seventy-five hours a year. This Bill has not so far commanded the favourable attention of Lord Londonderry; but it is so obviously a step in the right direction that it is bound to follow shortly.

One of the chief difficulties in higher education has been to make the public schools keep up a respectable standard of general knowledge. Most of them, indeed, begin to specialise at a ridiculously early age. This evil has long been acknowledged; but as all the universities, and most of the colleges, desire to get the best men in particular subjects, the remedy has proved hard to find. In a recent letter to the *Times* Professor Bidgeway, himself an archaeological specialist of the very highest rank, makes a suggestion which may help, indirectly, to solve the problem. This is, that the universities should refuse to count terms (reckoning nine as the minimum for a degree) until the 'Liettelgo' has been passed. By this means the schools would be compelled to secure that their great classic should be able to solve a simple equation, and their great mathematician should be able to translate a page of Latin into tolerable English. Something of the kind may well be attempted in the near future.

Correspondence.

MADRAS,
June 8th, 1905.

To

THE EDITOR,

The Educational Review.

SIR,

While thanking you for the outspoken view of the book "The Indian Citizen," we have to request you to accord us some space for a reply to the same, as the reviewer has thought fit to call in question the title of the author to call himself "An Indian Citizen." The review picks out five excerpts from five different chapters and makes out from them that the author misrepresents the view of the people of India as a whole. This is hardly fair, since twenty other excerpts can be found in the book which will prove conclusively that he really represents all their views, in those particular points. To clinch his arguments, the reviewer cites one very great point, with regard to religion, basing his remarks on "one common faith." When the author speaks of "one nation" "one language" "one country," it is but right that he should also introduce into his book "one common faith," which may be any thing, just in the same way as the other writers are evolving it out to be. As for his misrepresenting the peoples' views on certain points, the author has pointed out in the very first chapter (the first of the first seven chapters of the book which the reviewer accepts as well written) that one should be a citizen of the world first and then of his country and thus consistently enough puts the "Indian Citizen" next to the world's citizen. In other words he treats the subject in a purely academic spirit, giving the benefit of the doubt where any exists, to the Citizens of India. It will not do to sacrifice historical accuracy and scientific politics to mere party feeling. The reviewer assumes that the criticisms are made only by educated Indians and that the educated Indians are all against the British Government. But these assumptions are either wholly wrong or partially so. It is still worse to assume that the 277 illiterate millions of India are wholly ignorant and cannot form any opinion of the British Government. They can very accurately feel the benefits of the British rule and can intuitively gauge the situation and give their verdict.

And lastly the worst of all comes out when the reviewer wants to make out that the Government of India hoodwinks the illiterate masses into believing that it is the best Government in the world, and that the educated Indians disillusionise them. Even the most anti-British critics allow that the intentions of the Government are good enough, and that the highest the educated Indians do is to point out where things can be mended, and not how the British Government can be ended.

One more point and we have done. The book is written for students not from a controversial point of view but puts together ideas which can be safely

JUNE 1905.]

and with advantage laid before school boys and make them think out for themselves. No Government can be perfect and the imperfections if any can be learnt by the boys later on.

(Sd.) SATAKOPACHARI & Co.

[We confess we do not follow our correspondent in the last two paragraphs. So far as we can judge, there is nothing in the review to warrant them. ED.—E. R.]

MADRAS,
25th June, 1905.

To

THE EDITOR,

"The Educational Review."

SIR,

In reply to Messrs. Satakopachari & Co., I beg to state that the excerpts given in the *Review* are not at all exhaustive, and that they merely indicate the author's line of thought. If "twenty other excerpts.....points," then the book will be full of strange contradictions. To say so is an injustice to the author who is not after all guilty of so much inconsistency. As for the need of a common religion to the Indian Citizens, may I point out the very first statement made by Sir W. Lee-Warner, in his excellent little book. He begins by asking every school-boy to bear in mind that "the ties which ought to unite men as citizens of one and the same country need not be broken, or even strained by the mere fact that they profess different religious creeds, or adopt different modes of life." With reference to the putting of "the Indian Citizen next to the world's citizen," it is hardly possible to conceive whether the author himself could have seriously examined "the historical accuracy" and "the scientific politics" of this proposition. "The world" has yet to see the rise of a political economist that will put himself "next to the world's citizen." In a few political matters purely Indian interests may have to be sacrificed to Imperial considerations; but "the world" has no claim whatever on India. Look at the measure of independence which the English colonies possess in this respect. The view that the illiterate millions "can intuitively gauge" the ultimate effects of adverse economic conditions hardly requires a refutation. The statement in, "And lastly the worst.....then" is a very bold invention of fancy, absolutely not warranted by anything in the *Review*. It can only be construed as a desperate bid for special favour. And, lastly, it may be stated that to drag controversial and practical politics in a book intended for students, and then to pass certain *obiter dicta* on them is not the way to avoid controversy. As it is, the book will only stimulate controversy, and so may do some good.

In conclusion, I beg to assure Messrs. Satakopachari & Co., that it was in no spirit of hostility the review was written. They must admit that the review was silent on the other minor defects of the book which were pointed out in the other periodicals.

If the book be purged of the elements noted in the notice, it may be well accepted by the public; and it was with this object that it was written at some length. However, let me hope that in calm movements Messrs. Satakopachari & Co. will generously allow to others that right of judgment which they now solely claim for themselves.

THE REVIEWER.

Reviews and Notices.

MILTON, PARADISE LOST, BOOK VI, WITH INTRODUCTION AND NOTES, BY H. B. COTTERILL, M.A., LONDON. MACMILLAN & CO., LIMITED. Price one shilling.

The book before us is a booklet of seventy pages of useful information collected from several sources. The annotator says, he has strictly forbore from swelling the book with dry as dust facts and theories regarding Milton and his works. But he could not nevertheless resist the temptation of making up an introduction of thirty-five pages setting forth a brief abstract of the twelve books of Milton, and review of the criticisms and estimates of Johnson, Addison and Macaulay. These are besides two appendices; one is a chronological summary, and the other contains Dr. Johnson's remarks on Rime and 'Blank.' The notes are very clear and elaborate and even the Indian student with his characteristic craving for full notes will find the book nothing wanting. Taken all in all, the book is a creditable performance, making for thoroughness. The book may profitably be abridged in several places. Compared with the author's edition of Milton's 'Lycidas' of 112 pages of which the poem itself occupied exactly 6, this book must be pronounced to be extremely short and brief. This book is commended to all students desiring to read Milton.

AN ELEMENTARY GEOGRAPHY OF THE WORLD, BY PROF. L. W. LYDE. (A. & C. BLACK.)

This book is cheap, handy, well got up, and suggestive rather than exhaustive and contains maps to illustrate essential points. It differs from the extant conventional manuals in not being a mere string of names to be mechanically memorised; is very useful to teachers who wish to get out of the old ruts in helping them towards scientifically training the memory of the pupils. The arrangement is perfect; the explanations are concise yet lucid. Hence a book like this is sure to meet the needs of teachers.

ARITHMETICAL EXAMPLES BY W. G. BORCHARDT, M. A., B. Sc.

As the name implies the book contains only questions for solution. Books of this kind are no doubt useful. Students may with advantage use such books after learning the principles. There is a good variety of examples in this book. The questions range from the easiest to the most difficult. Thus it is a book for the beginner as well as the advanced student. A graduated series of test papers is also given in the book.

CLIVE'S SHILLING ARITHMETIC.

This book contains a good collection of examples both for oral and written work. Rules and definitions are given which the student may commit to memory after being taught the same. It is very cheap, the cost being only one shilling.

MACMILLAN'S PICTURE ARITHMETIC (PART II.)

An interesting book for beginners. As the name implies pictures which are given in the several chapters will enable students to grasp vividly and thoroughly what may be given in the questions. Once students understand what is given in a question they must find it easy to solve the question. Thus students will learn to solve easy problems for themselves.

PRACTICAL ARITHMETIC BY A. CONSTERDINE, M. A. AND S. O. ANDREW, M. A.

This is a book intended to be taken up by students after they have become acquainted with the four simple rules of arithmetic including money. The method adopted in the book is that the materials used for arithmetical calculation are got for the most part from reasonably accurate measurements made by each scholar for himself. Students are taught Scale-drawing, Geometry, Mensuration and other allied branches of Mathematics and made to measure for themselves and treat Arithmetic figures in connection with drawings or actual objects. Students are taught to apply Arithmetic for practical purposes.

LOCAL EXAMINATION GEOGRAPHY OF THE WORLD BY A. G. HAYNES, B. A. AND G. CARTER, M. A.

The introduction deals with the explanation of the several geographical terms and also contains a very brief account of the ocean currents, winds and the causes which determine the climate of a place. The book contains a brief account of every country. The trade-routes and means of communication and the important industries in each and every country are given. Maps of several important countries in the world are to be found in the

book. On the whole the book is one which will enable any one to learn as much of the geography of the world as may be useful to him.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

DEPARTMENTAL NOTIFICATIONS.

Mr. H. A. Hart, M.A., L.T., is appointed Lecturer, Kumbakonam College, vice Mr. Peter Paul D'Rozario, B.A. deceased.

Mr. D. A. Hobday, B.A., Assistant Inspector of Schools, Tinnevely division, is appointed to act as Headmaster, Government Madrasa-i-Azam, during the absence of Mr. C. W. Moss, on leave.

Khaja Khan Sahib, B.A., Sub-Assistant Inspector of Mahomedan Schools, Central Circle, is appointed to act as Assistant Inspector of Schools, Tinnevely division, during the absence of Mr. Hobday on other duty.

Mr. H. T. Keeling, A.M.I.C.E., has resigned his office as a Fellow of the Madras University and H. E. the Chancellor has been pleased to nominate Colonel H. D. Love, R. E., in his stead.

FELLOWS of the Madras University who live in the mofussil will be paid travelling allowance and batta whenever they attend meetings of the Senate or of the Faculties to which they belong or of the Board of Studies at Madras, and a grant of Rs. 5,000 has been made to the University by the Madras Government for this purpose.

A COMMISSION consisting of Dr. A. G. Bourne (President), Dr. S. Sathianadhan, Rev. E. M. Macphail, Mr. K. B. Ramanathan, Mr. H. J. Bhabha of Mysore and Dr. A. C. Mitchell of Travancore, has been appointed (presumably by the Provisional Syndicate of the Madras University) to visit the various colleges affiliated to the University and submit a report on their condition. The Government has made a grant of Rs. 15,000 on account of the expenses of the Commission, each member of which will receive Rs. 2,500, besides travelling allowance. The commission is to start on the 3rd proximo.

THE Trustees of Pachaiyappa's Charities who are also managers of Chengalroya Nicker's Charities, have resolved to establish an institution called the P. T. Lee Chengalroya Nicker's Charities, Technical and Industrial Institute and Orphanage, with the object of affording useful instruction to poor

Hindu boys and training them in occupations that may serve them to earn their living in after life.

Fifty orphans will be maintained on the premises as boarders, and fifty other poor and deserving boys will be admitted as free day students, who will be given one meal if necessary. All the boys will be treated alike in point of discipline and general and industrial instruction. General education will be given in vernacular and English up to the Government Upper Primary Standard, besides instruction in drawing, drill and gymnastics.

An important feature of the institution will be to train all students in practical horticultural gardening. The present Orphanage Press will be located on the premises in a separate building and largely developed. Printing and Book-binding in all its branches will be taught to boys selected for the purpose. Other industrial subjects in contemplation for the present are Carpet-weaving, Electroplating and Gilding, Carpentry and Smithy. It is expected to have at least four different branches of industry and every orphan and day student will be attached to an industry.

Another branch of the Institute will be the Technical Branch. To this only students who pay at prescribed rates will be admitted. The minimum educational qualification for admission is Lower Secondary examination or knowledge up to that standard, and there is no limit as to number. In this branch students will be taught practically higher technical subject such as Civil Engineering and Mechanical Engineering, with necessary scientific instruction. Appropriate machinery, models and appliances for instruction and practical work will be fitted up on the premises, and when the students have fairly advanced, arrangements will be made to apprentice them in larger workshops for thorough training. The instruction will, as far as possible, be to qualify students for Government Technical Examinations, group certificates, and diplomas. For the present the branches of instruction will be Civil Engineering and Mechanical Engineering. It is hoped to add Electrical Engineering in course of time.

The Institute will be managed by a Superintendent and a resident Deputy Superintendent under the immediate supervision of a Committee, and the final control of the Trustees. Arrangements are expected to be completed and the Institute started shortly.

THE foundation was laid on the 3rd May for the erection of a suitable building for a Hindu Girls' School in Madura, the movement in connection with which had been set on foot by the local Theosophical Society.

The ceremony was performed by the Zemindar of Suttur. A sum of Rs. 10,000 has so far been collected for the school.

THE fourth anniversary of the Madura Tamil Sangam, an institution established for the promotion of Tamil learning, was celebrated in the Victoria Hall of the Setupati High School, on the last week of May, Mr. T. Kanakasabapathi Pillai, B.A., B.L., presiding. The report presented by the Honorary Secretary was a record of good work done in the diverse departments of the Sangam's activities. Last year has been marked by the accession to the roll of membership of the French Professor, Julien Vinson of Paris.

THE TAMIL COLLEGE.

In this institution 20 students received education with free boarding, clothing, etc. Besides receiving advanced instruction in Tamil, the young men here are also taught English and Sanskrit, an hour daily being given to each of these latter languages. Mr. Pandiyadorai Tevar, the President founder of the Sangam, in the course of a speech informed the meeting that he had received several letters asking him to supply trained Tamil Pandits from his Sangam on salaries ranging from Rs. 30 to 50 a month.

THE PANDIYAN LIBRARY.

This library, which constitutes a branch of the Sangam, received an addition of upwards of 1,100 volumes during the year under report, among which ought to be specially mentioned 96 and 40 manuscript volumes of unpublished works in Tamil and Sanskrit respectively. Mr. Khan Bahadur Abdul Subhan Sahib, Assistant Superintendent of Police, (Retired) gave Rs. 100 worth of teakwood for the making of book shelves.

THE "SEN TAMIL" MAGAZINE.

The *Sen Tamil*, the monthly organ of the Sangam continues to publish the results of researches of Tamil scholars, as well as works unpublished yet, and accurate editions of published works,—accuracy being conspicuous by its absence in the cheap editions offered for sale in the bazaars. The publication of four such works has been completed during the year, while three more are publishing.

EXAMINATIONS.

The Sangam has instituted two sets of examinations on the results of which medals and money prizes are awarded—one to encourage the study of Tamil among students in English schools and open to students of the Matriculation, F.A. and B.A. Senior classes and the other, a graduated series intended as tests of advanced scholarship qualifying for the posts of Pandits in English schools and colleges.

THE following circular has been issued by the Secretary to the Council of Native Education:—

The Educational Resolution of the Government of India, dated 11th March 1904, reviewed what has been and is being done to elevate the present

standard of Education and to inspire teachers with higher ideals, and called upon the leaders of native thought and upon the great body of workers in the field of Education to carry on and complete the task which the Government of India could do no more than begin.

2. Till now no recognized body has discussed the various questions raised in that Resolution, and if the Educational Rules should be issued departmentally without the managers of schools offering their suggestions and criticisms, it would be difficult to get those rules altered, should they be found unsuitable to the satisfactory working of the existing schools.

3. It has been suggested that a Conference of Headmasters of High Schools and others interested in these questions may be convened at Madras, about the beginning of next month, the date to be notified later on, to consider the following questions among others:—

(a) Lower Secondary Education:—

Of late, public attention has been drawn to important aspects of Lower Secondary Education. In the Circular issued by me as Secretary to the Council of Native Education three questions were raised:—

i. Imparting instruction in the Lower Secondary Classes in non-language subjects through Vernacular manuals. This subject was duly considered and a memorial has already been sent to the Director of Public Instruction.

ii. The other two questions about which opinions were invited, viz., the settlement of the curriculum of studies and the conduct of Lower Secondary Examination may be discussed at the ensuing Conference.

(b) Primary Education:—

What steps can be taken to place Primary Education on a firm basis without much additional expense to the State? The present policy is to withdraw funds from High and Middle Schools so as to improve Primary Education. If steps could be taken to enlist the active co-operation of Headmasters of High and Middle Schools for the improvement of Primary Education so as to make it possible for a better system of Primary Education to be adopted without additional expense to the State, a large portion of the funds now diverted from High and Middle Schools for Primary Education will not be so diverted, and sufficient funds will be left with the Managers of High Schools. Not only can the status of the present Middle and High Schools be improved but an industrial and a technical side may also be added to the existing schools.

(c) What steps, if any, should be taken to impart religious instruction on a non-sectarian basis in all schools?

(d) The desirability of bringing into existence a central non-official body to supervise Lower Secondary and Primary Education, especially with reference

to the Lower Secondary Examination; and from time to time to suggest to the Educational Department defects which may become apparent in the system of Education. Such a body may also be of great help in the initial stages of the development of technical and of female education in this country.

(e) In connection with Primary Schools now under the control of local bodies such as Local Boards and Municipalities, whether the system of control over them now obtaining is one best calculated to the most effective imparting of instruction therein?

6. As the questions raised here are of importance it is considered necessary to obtain the opinion of Headmasters of High Schools who are actually engaged in the work.

7. Should you approve of the proposed Conference, I shall be highly obliged by your kindly intimating your willingness to be present, so as to enable me to make proper arrangements for the proposed Conference.

The following is another Circular on the subject of Primary Education:—

I beg to invite your opinion on the following points with reference to the printed pamphlet herewith sent on Primary Education:—

Whether it is not desirable that every village or group of villages should have a School Board, consisting of 5 members, for supervising education and distributing the grants according to rules framed by the Education Department.

How the grants have to be awarded. Whether the test is to be only that of examination or the efficiency of the institution; and if the latter, what would be the definite rules that must govern the award of grants?

Considering the low attainments of the present Primary Schoolmasters, whether: (1) Students who have read in recognised high-class Sanskrit Schools; (2) students who have passed the Madura Tamil Sangam examinations; (3) students who have been rewarded for high proficiency by various public bodies and native Governments, may not be allowed to become Primary Schoolmasters after such training as may be necessary for them in the Government Primary Training Schools.

Whether the indigenous system of education may be combined with the present methods that are in vogue in this country; and if so to what extent.

Whether sums of money may not be raised, supplemented by grants from the Municipalities or the Local Fund Boards, to construct in each Municipal town or in union villages, a building with a garden attached, to contain exhibits to promote industrial education, and appliances to impart

kindergarten instruction, and a small laboratory, containing chemical substances and physical apparatus, so as to be of use not only to children in recognised schools but also to the dissemination of knowledge on popular lines.

Considering that the majority of pupils in Primary Schools will have to make Agriculture their pursuit in life, what would be the curriculum and the course of studies best suited to the pupils in Primary Schools?

The Hon'ble Dr. A. G. Bourne, Director of Public Instruction, Madras, has published the following notification in the *Fort St. George Gazette* of June 20:—

It has come to the knowledge of the Director that text-books other than those approved by Government are still in use in many recognised schools, that the pupil use "Exhaustive notes to Readers"—"Meaning" books—"Cram" books in History and Geography, and that the teachers not only countenance the use of such books but frequently use them themselves to such an extent that these unauthorised books are gradually taking the place of authorised ones. Inspecting officers of all grades are therefore requested to warn all managers of schools in which unauthorised books are in use, that they are liable under the rules to withdrawal of recognition and aid. They should also be careful in their examination of schools to avoid as far as possible such questions as would induce pupils and teachers to have recourse to cram books. In many cases, for instance, it is found that the mode of examining in the meaning and subject-matter of the readers is a direct incentive to cram and not likely to conduce to intelligent teaching and there is reason to believe that the extensive sale of these books is due to their usefulness for examination purposes. It has also been noticed that in many Primary Schools—more especially in Board Schools—books not authorised by Government are used. The use of these should at once be abandoned. The names of schools which disregard the instructions in these matters should be recommended for withdrawal of recognition and aid. If a manager of an aided school should, however, wish to adopt a text-book, which is not included in the authorised list, Inspecting officers are requested to afford every facility in the matter by having the book sent to the Director with a view to its being referred to the text-book Committee and included in the authorised list, should it be found suitable.

THE UNIVERSITY OF MADRAS.

SCHEME FOR A LIBRARY.

The consideration of the proposals for the establishment of a University Library in connection with the Connemara Library having been deferred till the return of Mr Thurston, Principal Librarian

of the Connemara Library, from furlough, the latter has now reported as follows:—

I have the honour to report that I have had a meeting with the Director of Public Instruction and Principal of the Presidency College as representatives of the Syndicate of the University, at which the various proposals contained in the letters from the Registrar of the University were discussed.

2. I have already (Endorsement No. 1061, dated 27th November, 1903) expressed my hearty support of the proposal that the University Library should be associated with the Connemara Library. But I would make a few observations with regard to the recommendations contained in the letter from the Registrar of the University, dated 3rd August, 1904.

3. As regards the establishment suggested in paragraph 1, I would recommend the addition of a second peon on Rs. 7 per mensem. The Library working hours are long (7 A.M. to 5 or 5-30 P.M.) and the peon would be absent daily for two hours for his meals, so that a second peon seems for this as well as other reasons to be essential. It will probably be necessary hereafter to raise slightly the pay of the senior members of my existing library staff, who will certainly have extra work thrown on them in connection with cataloguing, etc. For *inter alia* the books of the University Library, though kept apart from those of the Connemara Library and Technical Institute and catalogued separately, would also be incorporated (with an initial letter U to show that they belong to the University Library) in the copies of the library catalogue and subject indexes, which are kept on the book-distribution counter for the use of the general readers.

4. In paragraph 2 it is noted that it would be advisable for the Government to assign to the University Library Committee a definite position, such as that of a Board of Advice, in the administration of the Connemara Library. To this proposition I give my assent, on the understanding that the Principal Librarian thereof should continue, as at present, to have the power to purchase books for the Connemara Library without reference to the Board, while so shaping his library policy that it does not clash with that of the University Library and avoids duplication of books. I should, I need scarcely say, keep the Board thoroughly informed as to the purchases made on behalf of the Connemara Library and willingly co-operate with it in all matters affecting the interests of the two libraries concerned.

5. As regards paragraph 3 (a), I would suggest that special bays in the library should be reserved for the following:—

- (1) Fellows and Honorary Fellows of the University.
- (2) Members of the staff of colleges affiliated to the University.
- (3) Registered graduates of the University (on the production of the reading ticket signed by the

Principal Librarian or a Member of the Board of Advice).

It is not, in my opinion, necessary to extend the concession to under-graduates, who should continue, as at present to use the seats set apart for general readers.

6. I would modify paragraph 3 (b) by the addition of the provision that graduates engaged in special research work should be allowed to take away books from either of the libraries on the production of a ticket signed by the Principal Librarian or a Member of the Board of Advice, provided only that such books are, in the opinion of the authorities, not likely to be required for reference by readers in the library and on deposit of a sufficient sum of money to cover possible loss of books.

7. I note that the sum of Rs. 28,090 is immediately available for the purchase of books for the University Library, and that it is proposed to spend annually Rs. 4,500 on the purchase of books and binding. The Annual Budget provision for the purchase of books and binding for the Connemara Library is Rs. 3,200. If the expenditure of the proposed sum is sanctioned by the Senate of the University, it is clear that the University Library will increase at a quicker rate than the Connemara Library and it becomes necessary to look forward in the all important questions of space. It will probably be found essential, within a short time, to erect a special building, of simple construction and capable of extension, within the museum grounds, for housing the serials (part: blue-books, reports, etc.) which increase rapidly, take up a very large amount of space and are seldom referred to. But for the present it would, I think, only be necessary to have the end book-cases in each of the terminal alcoves widened, and to add book-cases in the two central galleries upstairs, outside the sub-librarian's room, and in the two end rooms, and cases for folios in each, alternate alcove on the ground-floor. The upper halves of the book cases in the galleries, which run round the entire length of the upper storey, are at present mainly unoccupied, though capable of holding a very large number of books, for the reason that the floor-space is exceedingly narrow and the act of depositing books in or taking books out of the cases, which have to be reached by means of a ladder, is not entirely devoid of risk of bodily accident. These shelves would have to be utilised at once so as to concentrate the books of the Connemara Library and Technical Institute. I have conferred with the Consulting Architect, who recommends the addition of strong brass girdles and iron stanchions as being a sufficient protection.

The Consulting Architect further suggests as a means to increasing the area for books, the addition of four large central cases with galleries, in harmony with the cases in the alcoves, and running parallel to the long axis of the library.

THE SYNDICATE'S REPORT.

The Registrar of the University subsequently wrote:—

With reference to Government Endorsement No. 231, Educational, dated the 18th April last, herewith returned, I am directed by the Syndicate to inform you—

(1) that in regard to paragraph 3 of Mr. Thurston's letter under reference the Syndicate approves of the proposal to appoint a second peon on Rs. 7 per month;

(2) that the views of the Syndicate on the subject of the position and duties of the proposed University Library Committee were communicated in paragraphs 1 and 2 of my letter No. 2116, dated the 3rd August, 1904, and that the Syndicate has no observations to make in respect to paragraph 4 of Mr. Thurston's letter; and,

(3) That the Syndicate approves of Mr. Thurston's proposals in paragraphs 5 and 6 of the letter under reference.

THE G. O.

Government have passed the following Order:—

The scheme submitted by the Syndicate with its Registrar's letter No. 2116, dated 3rd August, 1904, for the establishment of a University Library in connection with the Connemara Public Library is approved subject to the modifications proposed by Mr. Thurston in paragraphs 3, 5 and 6 of his letter read above.

2. As regards increased accommodation dealt with in paragraph 7 of Mr. Thurston's letter, orders will issue in the Public Works Department for the preparation of the necessary estimates.

BENGAL.

The Calcutta University have awarded a prize of Rs. 900 for Mr. Babu Heramba Chandra, M.A., for his essays on "Emerson" and "Work and Wages." A prize has also been given to Babu Satish Chandra Ray, M.A., for his essay on "Indian Famines."

The Tej Narain College at Bhagulpur is a monument to the beneficence of the late Rai Tej Narain Singh Bahadur. He spent about three lakhs of rupees upon the College; his son Mr. Dwipnarain Singh has in view of the Universities Act endowed a sum of Rs. 1,400 a year in aid of the College out of his immovable properties. The capitalized value of the present offer is Rs. 40,000. The example set by Mr. Dwipnarain Singh has been followed by the Bonelli Raj-Kumars who have come forward with a permanent endowment of Rs. 1,200, for the founding of a chair to be named after the Bonelli Kumars, Kumar Kalanund Singh Bahadur and Kumar Kirtanund Singh Bahadur.

PUNJAB.

The Chancellor of the Punjab University has appointed Mr. T. Gordon Walker, C.S.I., officiating

Financial Commissioner of the Punjab, to be Vice-Chancellor, vice the Hon'ble Sir Lewis Tupper, resigned.

The Director of Public Instruction, Punjab, notifies that the revised scheme of studies for Industrial Schools should be introduced at once in all the Primary and the First and Second Middle classes. The Third Middle class can go on using the old scheme for another year, that is to say until the next Middle Standard Examination for Industrial Schools, after which the new scheme will come into force in that class also.

The authorities of the Dayanand Anglo-Vedic College, Lahore, have made arrangements for teaching the Japanese language. The new class will be opened in a few days and the teacher selected is Mr. Goto, a graduate of the Tokio Imperial University. Indian students proceeding to Japan to receive technical education have to spend nearly a year in that country in learning its language and the arrangements in question will obviate this and enable such students to acquire a competent knowledge of Japanese in India.

The Provincial Conference on Female Education, which has been sitting in Lahore, concluded its deliberations on the 10th May, and a general departmental Conference opened on the 11th May. The subjects for discussion at the latter were the supply of trained teachers; the revision of the scale of salaries; a Provident Fund for teachers; subsistence allowance to teachers of new indigenous schools; a graded list of teachers for each district; Teachers' Associations; practical examination in English of candidates for provisional or permanent certificates; scales of staff for each kind of school, provincial, subordinate and graded lists; provision for further study by boys from rural schools, standards of examination for indigenous schools; girls in zemindari schools; fees payable by Kamins; fee concessions; and other measures for the improvement and extension of primary education.—T. I.

Orders have been issued by the Punjab Government for the provision of additional facilities for primary education throughout the province. His Honor was anxious as far as possible that no important village or central locality should be without a primary school of some sort. These schools should be under the control of District Boards like other primary schools, but the expenditure on their maintenance would be met from provincial revenues. It having been represented from several districts that some difficulty has been experienced owing to the dearth of qualified teachers, district officers have been informed that steps have been taken by the Director of Public Instruction to increase the number of men in training for the institutions in the

province. Meantime His Honor has authorised civil and educational officers, in consultation, to secure the best men available for appointments in the new schools until teachers with the requisite qualifications are available. Before the close of the current year it is expected that about 900 new primary schools will come into existence.

A meeting of the Senate of the Punjab University was held on the 30th ultimo, in the Senate Hall, Lahore.

It was decided that, in spite of anything to the contrary, in the rules relating to the Senate at present in force, in framing the body of revised regulations required to be submitted to Government under section 26, sub-section (1) of the Indian Universities Act, the following special procedure shall be observed:—

(a) The Syndicate shall, after framing the rough draft of any revised regulations, cause them to be circulated to all Fellows of the University for their information.

(b) The Syndicate shall give at least fourteen days' notice of the date by which opinions of Fellows on the regulations must be transmitted to the Registrar in order to admit of their being considered by the Syndicate in framing the final draft of the regulations.

(c) After completing the final draft of the regulations the Syndicate shall give 28 days' notice of the meeting of the Senate at which the regulations are to be dealt with. A copy of the final draft of the regulations shall also be forwarded to each Fellow of the University.

(d) Any Fellow may forward in writing to the Registrar any amendment he intends to move, provided that such amendment shall reach the Registrar at least fourteen clear days before the meeting of the Senate. The Registrar shall cause a list of all such amendments to be printed and circulated to the Fellows at least seven days before the meeting of the Senate.

(e) At this meeting of the Senate no amendment shall be moved unless it has been submitted, in writing, as prescribed, but it shall be in the power of the Vice-Chancellor or Chairman to propose any amendment of which notice has not been so given, provided that if an amendment has been so duly submitted, any further amendments upon that amendment shall be in order.

(f) Any amendment which is not proposed and seconded by at least two Fellows present at the meeting of the Senate shall drop.

(g) No voting by proxy shall be allowed.

(h) After the revised regulations have been passed by the Senate they shall be immediately submitted to Government for sanction.

The rules relating to travelling allowances to Fellows residing outside Lahore and attending meetings of the Senate the Syndicate, the Faculties, Boards of Studies, and special Sub-committee of these bodies, were adopted with some modifications.

The proposal of the Syndicate regarding the appointment of Mr. Winfield, as Principal of the Law College, on a salary of Rs. 750 per mensem, rising by annual increments of Rs. 50 per mensem to Rs. 1,000 per mensem in five years, was not laid before the Senate, and the Registrar stated that Mr. Winfield had declined the offer made him by the Syndicate.

Foreign Notes.

Statistics just issued show that on January 15, in the present year, there were 33,618 young men and young women attending Universities or professional schools of University rank, or 31,589 at Universities proper. Paris heads the list of Universities with 13,431 students; but Lyons, Bordeaux, and Toulouse have also each more than 2,000. On the other hand, Besancon has only 321 students, and Clermont some forty fewer. If we consider the distribution of the students among the faculties, we find that Law claims 12,125, or more than a third. Of the whole number of students, 1,922 are women and 2,452 are of other than French nationality.

MR. CARNEGIE has indeed gone seriously into the college business. His latest gift is one of £2,000,000 as an annuity fund for college professors disqualified for work, by age or infirmity. The gift is to be for the benefit of the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland, and applies to all universities, colleges, and technical schools without regard to race,

colour, or creed, but excluding State or colonial institutions, and excluding also purely sectarian institutions. The fund is to be vested in trustees, among them the Presidents of Yale, Harvard, Chicago, Columbia, Cornell, and Princeton Universities, all of whom have accepted office. Mr. Carnegie hopes that by this endowment the best men available will be attracted to professorial work, since in view of the retiring pension, which will now be secured, present day salaries will not appear very inadequate in comparison with those of other professional men. —*The University Correspondent.*

THE advantages and disadvantages of an Eton education are reviewed by Mr. A. C. Benson in the *May National Review*. To the good he places it that the boys are certainly taught to work, that the curriculum, faulty as it may be, is administered by able, conscientious and sensible teachers in highly satisfactory relations with the boys, that the athletic side Eton in particular among public schools gives opportunities for the development of common sense, manliness and independence of character. Further, the boys receive a simple, manly, and practical religious training, bullying is practically non-existent, and the splendid surroundings and noble traditions of the place constitute a great and singular advantage of an Eton education.

MR. BENSON's list of compensating disadvantages is summarised thus:—(1) The absence of adequate intellectual stimulus in the prescribed work, owing to the nature of the School Curriculum and the methods of instruction employed; (2) a disproportionate belief in the rewards of athletics; (3) the pressure of an immature code of morals. —*The University Correspondent.*

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The Educational Review.

We are generally averse to celebrate the achievements of 'paid' functionaries. If the work is done well it is no more than what any self-respecting man or for that matter any self-respecting woman may be expected to do. Latterly the tendency has been to belaud the work of everybody—the notorious shirker of work, the indifferent and humdrum performer of routine duties as also the worker who throws his life and soul into the performance of his task and with whom work is truly his religion. The evil of it is that the token of praise is depreciated, and if we should be going on as we have been of late, the omission of an appreciation would be as eagerly coveted as the most laudatory notice of the retiring official in the *Gazette*.

So we shall not trouble our readers with any account of what Miss Carr has done purely in the way of her official duties. Her official work has been admirably summarised by the correspondent to the *Madras Mail* (May, 27) and a general appreciation is also given in the *Indian Ladies' Magazine*. What we wish to emphasise particularly is her work in connection with Hindu widows. It is to her we owe the scholarship scheme for the Hindu and Muhammadan widows. Sixty-three scholarships with 30 guardian allowances may not be much when we compare the number with the blighted lives we manufacture every year—our institutions aiding us. Still the scholarships mean careers and spreading of light where there was blank despair and darkness before. All blessings attend the lady in her retirement for the good work done.

Sir Alexander Tulloch's letter to the *Times*

on the expenditure of Mission funds on secular educational work. Christian Missions and their educational work.

naturally provoked replies from the Missionaries. We are not interested in the truth or otherwise of adequate return by way of souls saved from heathendom. What we would call particular attention to is the good work in the field of education which the Missionaries are doing in India. The Mission Directory that we noticed in the Book-reviews of April tells of the range of work of the Missionaries. The Church Missionary Society, to mention only one agency, has four Theological Seminaries and Training Institutions, four Colleges for general education, 11 High Schools, 880 Village Schools and 24 Boarding Schools and there are 31,000 Hindu pupils educated in all. (We are indebted for the figures to the *Madras Mail*). What we are anxious about is the deplorable result that would ensue if critics of the stamp of Sir Alexander Tulloch should influence the authorities at home and make the Missionary agencies retire from the field of general education. Are the Indian communities preparing themselves to stand educationally on their own legs? We have meanwhile the new regulations about "the educational needs of the place" making impossible small attempts at bringing in 'native' schools.

We publish elsewhere the procedure to

be adopted by the Punjab University in framing the body of revised Regulations.

required to be submitted to Government according to Section 26, Sub-section 1 of the Indian Universities Act. So the Punjab Senate will soon have submitted to them the draft of new regulations for discussion and adoption. We in Madras do not hear that any steps have

been taken towards the framing of the new regulations. We have heard complaints about the tardiness in the matter, and the discontent with the existing state of things has been voiced in the press. The interim state of the absence of regulations may easily lend itself to a large interpretation of the provisional Syndicate's powers. The Syndicate—a small enough body—has not its usual strength because of the absence from the Presidency and consequent resignation of some of its members. We have yet to learn of the vacancies having been filled, though sufficient time has elapsed since the resignation. In these circumstances the executive part of the work will devolve on a very small number and there may be just objection to allow the largely interpreted powers of the Syndicate to be wielded by an attenuated body of Syndics. So the sooner the regulations are framed and passed, the better for everybody concerned in University administration.

The Syndicate, diminished in strength as it is, has not been idle. A University Inspection Commission has been appointed to examine the colleges and to report on their working. We do not think that it can with any justice be called—as it has been—a Disaffiliation Commission. Representative as it is of various interests—the Government interests from the tendency of the provisions of the new enactment inevitably preponderating—we trust a fairly accurate view of the working of the colleges will be presented. Perhaps there is the feeling that the 'native' element is not strong enough, but it may be assumed till the contrary is proved that the members representing that community will realise their responsibility and properly discharge their trust.

We hope that the inquiries of the Commission will not be strictly confined to the points

mentioned in the Chairman's circular. Before the issuing of the circular the Chairman might well have consulted his colleagues as to the nature of the task before the Inspection Commission. We do not believe such a thing was done. But we hope that in the work before them the members will not out of modesty efface themselves and see as they may be desired to see. The Inspection of colleges is a tangible outcome of the Universities Act, and it will be useful so far as the connection of the several colleges with the University is brought home to them and so far as they are put in the way of improving themselves where they have slackened their pace and fallen behind the times. The Report of the Commission will be awaited with interest.

We welcome the prospect of having a University Library worth the name. The usual 'petrification' of money has been wisely avoided by utilising the accommodation available in the Connemara Library. We trust that the advisory committee will be wisely chosen and that the committee will as wisely choose the books and periodicals and proceedings of learned societies that will be needed for serious higher studies in several departments of knowledge. There are languages like the German and the French. We hope the best books of a serious kind will be chosen.

We heartily welcome the new scheme of Rural Schools rural primary education for Madras. about to be started in Madras. Full discussion of its scope must be reserved for a future occasion; but as it has not yet taken any final shape, it may be useful to make two or three suggestions for consideration, if not for adoption. The schools may be made half-time schools, so

that the parents of wage-earning children may find their difficulty met partially at least. Then the course may have to be extended to six or seven years to make the education approximate to the elementary standard of advanced countries. Besides, Revenue officers must be made to take real interest in the movement, and the village Karnam and Maniam must have a definite, though small, place in the actual work of the schools.

The new Madras Education Code permits the use in schools of shoes of English pattern with socks, but only in plague infected areas. We desire to put in a plea for the general extension of this privilege to all places and times. We know that the present official standard allows no more; but it is desirable, in our opinion, to accord a fuller measure of latitude in this matter. The High Court, where punctilio ought to reign if anywhere, does not object to English shoes and socks even when trousers are not worn. Elsewhere too the practice is becoming common, and while it is commendable from a sanitary point of view, it makes a distinct improvement in the appearance of the wearer. We have no doubt the authorities of schools and inspecting officers will work the rule with some degree of freedom, so that it may lead to the general adoption of a habit which, though neither exclusively Indian nor exclusively European, seems to combine the good points of both types.

We draw the attention of our readers to "The Self-supporting Student" and the "Ladder of Education." two reprints that appear in the present number. One entitled 'The Self-supporting Student in American Colleges' describes the efforts of the poorer class of American students to support themselves at college by their own labours. The student, says the writer of the article, "turns up everywhere, selling stereoscopic views at

the Vermont side-door, harvesting in the Kansas wheat-fields, managing a summer stage-line, running into the Yosemite, cooking for a Minnesota lumber-camp, setting type for a Pennsylvania County Weekly. He registers you at the hotel desk, shows you to your room, seats you at the dining table, checks your baggage, sells you your ticket, and takes in his various capacities your tip, all for the cause of education." A curious inquirer who cares to ask the poorer Indian student will find occupations about as diversified as the above mentioned for the American student—in support of the youth in his school and college. But the tendency of late has been to discourage the poorer youths from ascending the ladder of education. The reasons that unconsciously influence men discountenancing higher education for all and sundry have been ably put forward by Mr. George Bourne in the other reprint. The problem of problems is to decide which of the poorer youths should be put in the way of getting higher education and which should be kept from being declassed. Those who talk of Rural Schools and Education for the agricultural classes will find something to ponder over in the articles mentioned.

A Muhammadan writing on the subject to the *Madras Mail* deprecates the tendency to separatism among men of his community. He refers to the absence of a wholesome spirit of emulation because of the encouragement of special institutions for Moslem youths. We have been against this tendency to exclusiveness, and we have always regarded the growth of special institutions for the different communities in India as helping the perpetuation of the differences to which might be traced many of the evils India has been suffering from. Still we are of opinion that if the communities will have education on no other terms, better to have such sectarian

schools than none. Yet we hope the opinions of such an enlightened Mussulman gentleman will prevail, and become common enough to influence the Mussulmans in their attempts at educational betterment.

Mr. Carnegie has given a magnificent amount by way of pension fund to the American teachers. The benefit has been, for obvious reasons, confined to those engaged in other than State and Colonial Institutions. This will place those engaged in 'private' institutions practically on a footing of equality with those employed in State colleges. Hence there need be no harrowing anxiety about the future for such teachers and private institutions would have a fair chance of drawing to themselves men quite as good as those engaged in State colleges.

Last month we had to notice how indifferent the managers of private institutions here were to the interests of their employees and how much more sympathetic—all things considered—missionary agencies were in contributing to the comfort of the teachers in their service. We cannot expect in India multi-millionaires to do for Indian teachers in private educational service, what Mr. Carnegie has done for the American teachers. This for two reasons. We have not multi-millionaires in India, and in spite of platform orations our rich men have no faith in education of the kind that obtains in the West. It must be years before we can expect the example to be followed and followed for the betterment of the teachers in private employ—that of the late Mr. Tata, the nearest approach to the American prototype.

Meanwhile much might be done by the private institutions working together. And that could be only when the managers of private institutions cease to regard schools as a sort of private estate they have to manage and only when they cease to think that they are free to treat the teachers as if they were their servants.

Grimm might after all prove a true prophet considering how the English language is getting more and more accepted as the language of commerce and thought. The latest

evidence of the growing influence of the language is the book of Prof. Sören Sörenson's on the Mahabharata. His *Index to the names in the Mahabharata* (Williams and Norgate) has been published in English. The work has been described as monumental and promises to be a rich quarry for Indian antiquarians.

We heartily felicitate the organisers of the The Negapatam National High School, National High Negapatam, on the success School Fund. that has attended their efforts to raise funds. Rs. 30,000 is a large sum, as our current ideals go, for a High School in a place where fees may be expected to cover the ordinary expenditure. The Committee, however, are not satisfied, but continue their appeal for financial help. It was in many ways a fruitful idea to approach the Nattukkottai community whose charity, large and ungrudging as it is, has hitherto run in one narrow groove. As we have said before, the Negapatam movement has more than local significance, and places could be mentioned like Mannargudi, Trichinopoly, and Madurantakam, which must feel spurred on to emulate its worthy example.

Physical culture of a systematic kind has received a powerful stimulus in Madras by the exhibitions of the modern Samson. The city may well be congratulated on the opportunity that Mr. Sandow's visit afforded its thousands of actually seeing what regular training may do for the human body. Indoor exercise of one sort or another, which had already been common with students, will perhaps attain great vogue in the future. It is a good thing in itself. But a warning may be uttered betimes against its being raised to a fetish. Out-door sports and field games are after all the most natural and healthy forms of physical exercise, and it would be a pity if the new craze for grip dumb-bells and the combined developer created a dislike to cricket and tennis. Enthusiasm for manly exercise and love of the fully-developed human form are the capital lessons that Mr. Sandow's visit should impress on young Madras.

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THE PRACTICE OF EDUCATION.

PART III. METHOD.

IF we look back a little we shall see that we arrived at certain conclusions. The first thing to be noticed is that the individuality of the child is an important factor. It is not to be treated as a "living encyclopædia" or "machine of human work," but as a self-developing creature influenced by surrounding circumstances. Certain specific influences are brought to bear upon the child to help its development and to enable it to take up its proper position in society and in the world. This has led to the development of various systems of education. We have seen that in imparting education, the influence of the teacher is paramount. He exercises a *direct, immediate* influence on the child both in government and guidance, controlling, guiding, helping and suggesting at every turn. This was fully discussed in the last part entitled Training.

Now, we have to consider a new element which has been brought into the child's life. He has become a member of a school. He is brought under the direct influence of his teachers and his companions. But, why is he at school? Not simply "for the sake of social virtues, but to acquire a body of knowledge, which will help him to a life of complete living." He requires "occupations, pursuits during hours of school, and the provision and control of these occupations is *Teaching*."

XI

The child cannot be left to himself. It is the teacher's duty to take him by the hand and lead him into certain grooves of activity. Hence, under this subject of Teaching, there arise two questions: what should the child be taught, that is, the selection of the best material and how is it done; this comes under the heading of *curriculum*; and secondly, the best way of imparting the material selected, that is, the principle and rules which throw light upon this, *viz.*, *method*, which is the subject of the present paper.

Much thought has been spent upon the subject of Method. Like other important systems, this was developed gradually. The child is not permitted "like the bee to gather honey where he will," but he must submit to certain rules and regulations. Ratke was the first to emphasize the question of Method. Comenius advocates Nature as a guide to Method; by nature he means the physical world around us. He draws a mere analogy between the process of learning and physical Nature. Rousseau advocates the same method, but by nature he means the natural impulses of the people. The teacher should watch and see how nature works and to this adapt his methods of imparting knowledge. Again, there are a certain class of educational reformers, philanthropists, who would find easy methods of educating the child—something that will interest him—thus, we get the principle of *interest*. This will be considered

69

under *curriculum*. Pestalozzi was the first educational reformer who discovered the psychological method. He said there was only one method and that was founded upon the eternal laws of nature. Thus Education meant a proper conception of Nature and Method became psychological. But Pestalozzi was not a psychologist. Herbart took up Pestalozzi's methods and worked them up psychologically.

The purpose of method is to ascertain how children can learn in a natural psychological way. They must be taught to deal with general laws, with particular examples, with the abstract and the concrete. The old methods used were deductive and abstract. Herbart made them inductive and concrete. We acquire our knowledge of the world through the senses, which means we obtain a number of sense percepts. These of course are obtained by *observation*, but mere sense-percepts by themselves are useless. Gradually we learn to compare and contrast these percepts, we learn to classify them, to arrive at certain general laws and so on. Thus, the sense percepts have become clear concepts, and they were arrived at through the mental process of *thinking*. Next arises the question, what shall we do with these concepts? We can only retain them by using and applying them. Hence, we arrive at *application*, so that now we have Herbart's three steps of method,—observation, thinking and application. These were elaborated by his followers into the five formal steps, *viz.*, preparation, presentation, comparison, generalization and application; these are now generally adopted as the basis of the method of instruction.

Therefore in a system of education, the knowledge, which is to be taught to the child, must be arranged into systematic sections and

then worked according to the five steps. According to these steps, sections may be made in the subject-matter of the lesson, but care should be taken that the sections are not left isolated but linked together. Though each division must necessarily be different from the other, yet the general law, the general principle, will be the same.

The young teacher asks if all the steps should be used in the same lesson; of course this depends upon the nature of the lesson and the class to which it is given. These steps need not be used unless they are helpful, but if used they must be used in logical order. Generalization is very important, because it is this which widens the child's mental point of view. General laws help us to classify and compare, which means that the child's mental abilities are developing. In some subjects the last step may take a long time for the children. For instance, in arithmetic, they might find it difficult to apply the general rules they had learnt. Presentation and generalization depend on the subject-matter. Again, all steps need not take up the same amount of time. Preparation, association and comparison might be short, while general presentation, that is, the imparting of new matter, and application take up a long time.

(a). *Preparation* deals with the previous knowledge of the child, who has a fund of general information, gleaned from very various quarters. The teacher's first duty is to enlarge this by grafting the new on the old. Nothing can be taught unless kindred ideas are brought up into the field of consciousness. Various mental processes, such as apperception, assimilation and association, are employed. Preparation is a preface to the new lesson. A brief re-capitulation of the old

lesson should be the first thing. This can be got from the children themselves by skilful and rapid questioning. Then the aim of the lesson should be given. The subject-matter should not be made a mystery of, but should be stated clearly and in concise and simple language; the interest of the children should be aroused, so that they are eager to follow up the lesson attentively and intelligently. The characteristic of preparation is that it deals only with the old knowledge of the child. The form of questioning should be conversational. The blackboard should be used here. The teacher should see that the knowledge already acquired is clear and definite and in addition to this he must arouse interest and expectation; and so we are ready for the imparting of new knowledge.

(b). *Presentation* deals with the new material. Here comes the teacher's definite contribution in the form of narration and explanation. The receptive attitude of mind in the children is important and should be cultivated. Attention is drawn and kept by giving them something to work at. The art of narration must be cultivated by the teacher, so that he is able to keep up the interest of the pupils. Questions or orders of discipline must not interrupt the narration, but after it is over, questioning and the use of the blackboard are important in revision.

The psychological processes in presentation are twofold (1) *analysis*—by which the subject-matter is studied in detail, and (2) *synthesis*, where details are united into a whole. By the help of analysis we arrive at clearness; the subject-matter is divided into sections, which are logical, sufficient and complete. Each section must be mastered before proceeding to another. Sectional recapitulation is important. But the unity of the lesson should not be forgotten. To prevent

too much attention being paid to the paragraphs alone, as they are being discussed, the chief points of the lesson should be put upon the black-board, so that when it is finished, you have the frame work of the lesson before you. Older children must be taught to take notes carefully. Now that the details are mastered, a connected account can be given by one of the better pupils, in which afterwards the errors are corrected and omissions made good by the teacher.

The form of Presentation, that is, in what way the subject-matter should be presented, is important:

- (1) Narration.
- (2) Questions.
- (3) A combination of the two.

Narration should largely be employed in History and Geography, because it helps to give a total impression to the children, and because a good discipline stimulates the feelings and imagination of a class.

The art of skilful *questioning* is the greatest instrument in the hands of a teacher. Socrates is often brought forward as an example of one who carried the art of questioning to extremes. The object of questioning is two-fold, to test knowledge and to suggest and guide thought. The first is used for examination purposes, also to see whether what has been explained is really understood. Random questioning is permissible for this. The second is very important. In building up the lesson, in revision, this is very useful. It helps the pupils to think, to draw inferences and to exercise the knowledge they already possess. Questioning is really an incomplete judgment, the pupils should complete it. Besides this, it shows how different things strike different minds. It is also a challenge to the pupils' attention, sometimes questions should be in regular

order, but more often they should be addressed to the whole class, so as to allow no opportunity to the lazy child to be inattentive. The form of questioning is important and is an art to be cultivated. Clear, concise questions each containing a definite point, and each coming in a logical sequence, should be asked by the teacher. Attention should be paid to the form as well as the contents of a question. There are a great number of questions to be avoided such as alternative questions, elliptical questions, in which the teacher usually supplies all the answer but one word, questions which require only 'yes or no' for an answer, which is a form of guess-work, vague questions and what are called echo-questions, where no mental exertion is required on the part of the pupil, and so on. The pupils' answers should be carefully noted both as to form and as to contents. They should be taught to express their thoughts clearly and concisely and in pleasing and appropriate sentences. In this way composition is cultivated.

A good *Presentation* will easily lead up to the third and fourth steps:

(c) & (d). *Comparison* and *generalization* go hand in hand. They are not separate processes, but one is the result of the other. The lesson has been given and we conclude that it has been appropriated, but this is insufficient. Laws, causes and effects have next to be discovered. "The pupil should, on the basis of the individual notions now obtained, and of his own concrete experiences, be able to rise to a comprehension of ideas as they are formally set out in text-books. Then these ideas and laws lend to the mind of the pupil the first true solidity and assurance, they complete the appropriation of the unknown. Here, therefore, we have to do with a process of abstraction; appropriating and changing the results

of apperception into choicer, finer products, which distinguish the primary ideas from the secondary" (Lauj's *Apperception*).

It must be remembered that the pupil is not merely a receptive creature. If there has been a good presentation of new material, the intelligent pupil's activity helps the teacher very much; but of course, the conclusions arrived at by the pupil must be discussed and corrected. Comparison leads up to generalization. In the third step, the teacher's art consists in selecting a number of particulars already known to the child, in grouping and classifying them, and in arranging them. "Similar ideas are compared, dissimilar ideas contrasted, and thus the higher abstract form of thought rises clearly to the threshold of consciousness" (Findlay). This process of intellection will not be wearisome to the pupil, if worked out properly—much depends on the presentation given. Comparison needs skill and vigour on the part of the teacher. Illustrations and examples should be taken from real, living and present things, so that they may be impressed on the child's memory. This association of abstruse ideas with familiar objects, and this method of comparison and contrast is one of the secrets of a good memory. *Generalization* follows as a natural result of the above process, but "generalization must not be premature; it must always come out as ripe fruit from a fullness of similar concrete experiences." The young child should not be allowed to do this for himself. The child's personality is always striving to realise with the mind, to grow and develop, but he is not yet "old enough to be deliberately forced towards abstract thinking."

(e) *Application* varies with the subject and with the age of the children. Knowledge is of no use if it cannot be applied. It teaches

the children to think. Knowledge is not power unless it is put to use. "With these maxims in mind, the teacher must be careful to train the child from its very beginning to apply the knowledge he gains day by day. The pupil learns new truths, new laws every day. If he has been trained properly, he will find a delight in using these new doctrines, in finding out new truths for himself. Originality of thought is fostered by this step. The child feels that he is not a mere machine, but a living, thinking personality. He rises to a consciousness of himself. The charge very often made against Indian students is that their original powers are not developed. This is due to the bad teaching they get in the lower forms. In the hands of ill-educated teachers, the children suffer—no efforts are made to draw out their original powers, but like parrots they are made to learn and repeat the maxims that fall from the teacher's lips.

Application means self-activity; we use the knowledge not only to learn new truths, but to act. The keynote of the last step is "freedom, initiative, independence."

Such is the system of method developed by Herbart and generally adopted by teachers. But the dangers of following them blindly are great. "The steps are full of pitfalls" says a critic, "they are only valid so far as they conform to the actual state of mind of the pupils for whom the lessons are prepared." It is the teacher's duty to adapt himself to his environment, to study the nature of his pupils, and to prepare appropriate lessons for them. Much time, attention and energy are necessary on the teacher's part before he evolves his own particular method of teaching. An acquaintance with psychology and child nature is absolutely essential. A thorough power over the subject

he is going to teach is necessary, and his own observation and experience will supplement the rest.

The "grind" of teaching at times becomes wearisome. The same round of lessons, the "working week by week the same pump-handle at the school desk" becomes dreary now and again. But "if he treats his work as professional, if every new course of study, every new section, presents a new scientific problem; if every new pupil and new class renews his intellectual strength for a fresh inquiry into aims and principles, then, indeed, he finds that the old saw, *ars longa, vita brevis*, is as true of education as of every other field of human activity and intelligence."

HANNAH KRISHNAMMA.

RECRUITMENT OF PRIMARY TEACHERS.

THE Council of Native Education in Madras, in a circular on Primary Education, invites criticism on certain proposals regarding the recruitment of Primary teachers. The Circular asks: "Considering the low attainments of the present Primary Schoolmasters, whether (1) students who have read in recognised high-class Sanskrit schools, (2) students who have passed the Madura Tamil Sangam examinations, (3) students who have been rewarded for high proficiency by various public bodies and native Governments, may not be allowed to become Primary Schoolmasters after such training as may be necessary for them in the Government Primary Training Schools." Nothing will raise the efficiency of the average Primary teacher so much as the accession to his ranks of the classes of men above mentioned. But can they be induced to join the profession? We

doubt it. The low attainments of the primary schoolmasters of the present is the result not of any actual want of men of better culture, but of the very low standard of life to which they are condemned by the present system. Primary education as at present organised seems to be calculated rather to make a show in the annual reports of the Department at the least possible cost, than to produce a genuine improvement in the mental level of the populace of this country. Every young man who decides to enter this branch of the educational profession does so after ascertaining by various trials that he is unfit for any other useful work on earth or that there are no prospects of bettering himself in any other walk of life. He tries for all the lowest openings in every department of public service. Then, disgusted at finding himself crowded out of these, and not having capital enough to undertake any enterprise, the sheer necessity of finding the minimum of the necessities of life drives him reluctantly into the primary schools. The classes of students referred to in the Circular are not likely to be attracted to the profession by the prospects at present held out. Even an illiterate man of average health may with a slight enterprise and with very little capital expect to make for himself a more decent situation in life than what the primary schoolmaster is doomed to at present. If any of the class referred to are after all attracted into the ranks, they are also likely to be of the very lowest type unfit for any other practical work in life. The problem of improving the attainments of primary teachers must be attacked by methods calculated to improve their prospects in life. It is merely a question of finance. Unless better pay and consequently a higher standard of life are held out, the evil is bound to render all attempts at

improving primary education nugatory. In his annual report for 1903-04 the Director of Public Instruction makes the following statement with reference to the supply of primary teachers. "There is still much left to be done in the way of improving the organisation of primary schools and the quality of instruction given in them; and this is absolutely impossible until an adequate supply of trained and qualified teachers is available. There is ample scope for further effort in this direction. It is, I think, a matter of great regret that private agencies that are spending large sums on collegiate and secondary education are most of them doing little or nothing towards the training of masters for primary schools....Taking all things into consideration the supply of qualified teachers for primary schools is anything but commensurate with the demand. Leaving out teachers who have qualified for approved service certificates and who, on account of their experience often make good teachers, there are nearly 13,000 teachers who ought to be replaced in time by fully or partially trained teachers. At present on an average about 900 pass out every year with trained and untrained teachers' certificates of the lower secondary and primary grades. This number is not even sufficient to supply the additional teachers which the normal increase in public primary schools necessitates, for on an average every year between 1200 and 1500 are needed in addition to the number required to replace those who drop out of the teaching profession. It will be seen therefore that, unless the provision for the supply of trained teachers is increased considerably, the supply of professionally qualified teachers will be inadequate to provide for even the normal increase in teachers required every year, much less to replace the

present number of professionally unqualified teachers. The steps that are being taken to reorganise the Government Training Schools will no doubt go some way towards improving the quality, but as has already been pointed out, unless private agencies co-operate in the undertaking, the supply will remain inadequate". While mentioning the fact that the supply is far short of the demand, the Director refrains from enquiring into the causes of this shortage. Can it be that there is not a really sufficient supply of young men of the requisite educational qualifications, low as these are at present? From the same report we learn that the number of candidates who passed the Primary Examination during the year was 19,323, while the number of male pupils in the first forms was 9000. Considering the fact that many of the pupils of the first forms of our schools are admitted after a class examination without ever trying for the primary examination, it can be safely stated that more than 10,000 young men are prepared annually to start in life after passing this examination. Further there were on the 31st March 1904 in the 3rd forms of all the secondary schools 11,904 pupils while in the 4th form there were only 7413. Taking into consideration the fact that during that year 2243 candidates passed the Lower Secondary Examination—an examination not compulsory for those intending to continue their studies to a higher stage—and making due allowance for pupils who stagnate annually in each class, being unfit for promotion, we may safely take 2000 as the figure representing the number of pupils who, having completed their lower secondary education are prepared to start in life. Taking into account the increase of 1105 in the number of primary teachers during the year and the number of young men who must

have replaced the older ones dropping out annually from the ranks, which may be roughly taken as 1200 or 5 per cent. of the present strength, we have 2300 new admissions, of whom only 900 are duly qualified by professional certificates. With more than 12,000 possessing the general educational qualifications demanded by the present rules, ready to enter life, why is it that less than 20 per cent. of that number are willing even to try an experiment of entering this profession? The severe competition that exists for admission into the very lowest ranks of public service remunerated at a rate insufficient for ordinary maintenance is a matter of public notoriety. The mere remuneration offered by the Government is, in these cases, not the sole temptation for these petty office-seekers. The amount of local influence and social consideration attached to such offices in rural societies together with the opportunities they offer of extra remuneration are the chief determining factors in the choice of these young men. Compared with such offices the profession of the petty rural school master has no attraction at all. The place is one that confers no social rank, and opportunities of extra remuneration within the profession itself are nil. The income derived from fees and grants is the sole means of subsistence. An examination of the figures in the report already referred to will give us a general idea of what this remuneration is. The total expenditure for the year 03-04 on primary schools and primary departments of secondary schools for boys was Rs. 26,92,479. The number of teachers employed in them was 25,337. Neglecting the sums that must have been spent on contingent charges, rents of buildings, furniture, books, etc., and supposing the whole amount was the remuneration of teachers, we find that each would on

this supposition have had an average income of Rs. 99 for the year or Rs. 8-4-0 per month. The actual average income must therefore have been less than this amount. If it be remembered that the teachers in towns are better paid than those in villages, the actual income of most primary schoolmasters in rural tracts must be considerably less than the above average. Herein lies the real crux of the question. With the present rate of remuneration it is nearly impossible to attract more young men into the ranks. As to any improvement in their quality, it is an absolutely hopeless contingency. We must be deeply grateful for the efforts of the department to improve the training schools. But at the same time, one is tempted to doubt if the improved methods of training, to be hereafter adopted in these schools, may not conduce to deter more young men from seeking admission therein in future, so long as the current rates of professional remuneration are maintained. If a year's probation and a costly town life, at a distance from their own towns or villages, do not attract as many men as there are scholarships afforded by Government in the training schools at present, a two years' probation and a severer system of training may attract much less than before, unless improved future prospects are offered simultaneously. If something is not done in this direction, the supply of duly qualified teachers is bound to remain what it is, if it does not actually diminish. If the Government with its resources is unable to attract a sufficient number of men for the existing training schools, it is not clear how private agencies can co-operate in the work of providing qualified teachers. The existing training schools for primary teachers are not over-crowded. The mere establish-

ment of more training schools can do very little to increase the supply. Can private agencies come to aid the Government in maintaining the primary teachers during their period of training? In the present conditions of the country and under the existing regulations there is very little prospect of the same. Some methods may however be adopted in modification of the existing rules, towards improving the quality as well as the amount of the supply. These will be reserved for consideration on a future occasion.

K. SESHU AIYAR.

II. SUMMATION OF PRASTARATIONS OF NUMBERS.

(Continued from page 361.)

16. Of all the *prastarations* of any given number to find the number of those which contain a certain given number of digits in each.

Here, in the annexed table, every number except those in the first vertical line is obtained by adding those numbers of the preceding vertical line which are in the preceding horizontal lines every number in the first vertical line being always 1.

x	x^2	x^3	x^4	x^5	x^6	x^7	x^8	x^9	x^{10}
1									
1	1								
1	2	1							
1	3	3	1						
1	4	6	4	1					
1	5	10	10	5	1				
1	6	15	20	15	6	1			
1	7	21	35	35	21	7	1		
1	8	28	56	70	56	28	8	1	
&c.		&c.		&c.		&c.		&c.	

Here the first vertical line contains the numbers of the first order of the figurate numbers, the second the second order, the third the third order and so on.

Again, let us take any one of the horizontal rows, say the sixth; it contains 6 numbers, viz., 1, 5, 10, 10, 5 and 1. Here the first number 1 is the number of those quantities which contain 1 digit each, the sum of the digits in each number being the number of the horizontal line, that is, 6 in this case; the second number 5 is the number of those quantities which contain 2 digits each; the third number 10 is the number of those quantities which contain 3 digits each and so on. And these 6 numbers are respectively the co-efficients of x, x^2, x^3, x^4, x^5 and x^6 in the expansion of $x(1+x)^5$. Therefore, supposing we take all the *prastarations* of n , the number of those which contain d digits each is the co-efficient of x^d in the expansion of $x(1+x)^{n-1}$, which is the $\frac{n-d+1}{d}$ th term of the d th order of the figurate numbers, which is equal to $\left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^{d-1}$.

And the number of *prastarations* of n is by Art. 2, 2^{n-1} . Therefore the sum of all these co-efficients should be 2^{n-1} .

$$(1+x)^{n-1} = \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^0 + x \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^1 + x^2 \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^2 + \dots + x^{n-1} \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^{n-1}$$

Substituting 1 for x , the sum of all the co-efficients, i.e., the number of the *prastarations* of n

$$= \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^0 + \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^1 + \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^{n-1} = 2^{n-1}$$

Again, substituting 10 instead of 1 for x , we have $\left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^0 + 10 \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^1 + 10^2 \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^2 + \dots$

$$+ \dots + 10^{n-1} \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^{n-1} = 11^{n-1}$$

Again,

$$x(1+x)^{n-1} = x^n \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^0 + x^{n-1} \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^1 + x^{n-2} \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^2 + x^{n-3} \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^3 + \dots + x \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^{n-1}$$

From this we can find the number of all the digits in all the *prastarations* of n .

Multiplying the co-efficient by the exponent of x in each term, the number of the digits is equal to,

$$\begin{aligned} & n \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^0 + (n-1) \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^1 + (n-2) \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^2 + \dots + 1 \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^{n-1} \\ &= n \left\{ \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^0 + \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^1 + \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^{n-1} \right\} \\ & - \left\{ \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^1 + 2 \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^2 + 3 \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^3 + \dots + (n-1) \left(\frac{n-1}{1}>\right)^{n-1} \right\} \\ &= n \cdot 2^{n-1} - (n-1) \left\{ \left(\frac{n-2}{1}>\right)^0 + \left(\frac{n-2}{1}>\right)^1 + \left(\frac{n-2}{1}>\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{n-2}{1}>\right)^{n-2} \right\} \\ &= n \cdot 2^{n-1} - (n-1) \cdot 2^{n-2} \\ &= 2n \cdot 2^{n-2} - (n-1) 2^{n-2} \\ &= (n+1) \cdot 2^{n-2} \end{aligned}$$

17. To find the sum of all those *prastarations* of any given number which contain a certain given number of digits in each.

Rule.—Multiply the number of the *prastarations* by the sum of the digits in each *prastaration*, divide the product by the number of the digits in each *prastaration*, and multiply the quotient by the combination of as many units as there are digits in each *prastaration*.

That is, supposing n to be the sum and d the number, of the digits in each *prastaration*,

the sum of the *prastarations* = the combination of d units $\times \left(\frac{d}{12}\right)^{n-d} \times n$, the whole divided by d = the combination of d units $\times \left(\frac{d+1}{12}\right)^{n-d}$.

Let us find, for example, the sum of all the *prastarations* of 9 each *prastaration* containing 7 digits.

Their sum by the formula

$$= 1111111 \times \left(\frac{7+1}{12}\right)^{9-7}$$

$$= 1111111 \times \frac{8 \times 9}{1 \times 2}$$

$$= 39999996.$$

And by regular addition:—

1111113
1111122
1111212
1112112
1121112
1211112
2111112
1111131
1111221
1112121
1121121
1211121
2111121
1111311
1112211
1121211
1211211
2111211
1113111
1122111
1212111
2112111
1131111
1221111
2121111
1311111
2211111
3111111
39999996

From this the sum of all the *prastarations* of n is equal to

$$\begin{aligned} & 1 \cdot \left(\frac{2}{12}\right)^{n-1} + 11 \cdot \left(\frac{3}{12}\right)^{n-2} \\ & + 111 \cdot \left(\frac{4}{12}\right)^{n-3} + 1111 \cdot \left(\frac{5}{12}\right)^{n-4} \\ & + \dots + \text{the combination of } n \text{ units} \\ & \times \left(\frac{n+1}{12}\right)^{n-n} \\ & = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ 9 \cdot \left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^{n-1} + 99 \times \left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^{n-2} \right. \\ & + 999 \times \left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^{n-3} + \dots + \text{the combination} \\ & \text{of } n \text{ nines} \times \left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^0 \Big\} \\ & = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ (10-1) \times \left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^{n-1} \right. \\ & + (10^2-1) \left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^{n-2} \\ & + (10^3-1) \left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^{n-3} + \dots \\ & + (10^n-1) \left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^0 \Big\} \\ & = \frac{1}{2} \left[\left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^n + 10 \cdot \left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^{n-1} \right. \\ & + 10^2 \cdot \left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^{n-2} + \dots + 10^n \cdot \left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^0 \\ & - \left\{ \left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^n + \left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^{n-1} + \left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^{n-2} \right. \\ & + \dots + \left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^0 \Big\} \Big] \\ & = \frac{1}{2} (11^n - 2^n) = \frac{11^n - 2^n}{2} \end{aligned}$$

18. To find the difference between the sums of the alternate *prastarations* of any given number greater than 1.

The formula is:—Supposing n to be the given number, their difference is equal to 9.11^{n-2} .

Let us take for example all the *prastarations* of 5:—

$$\begin{aligned} & -5 \\ & 14 \\ & -23 \\ & 113 \\ & -32 \\ & 122 \\ & -212 \\ & 1112 \\ & -41 \\ & 131 \\ & -221 \\ & 1121 \\ & -311 \\ & 1211 \\ & -2111 \\ & 11111 \\ & 14935 \\ & -2956 \\ & \hline 11979 = 9 \times 1331 = 9 \times 11^{5-2}. \end{aligned}$$

(To be continued.)

C. SRINIVASA ROW.

THE MORAL EDUCATION OF THE YOUNG AMONG MUSLIMS.

The *International Journal of Ethics* for April contains a paper by Mr. Duncan B. MacDonald, of the Hartford Theological Seminary, read before the Philadelphia Society for Ethical Culture in a course of lectures on the Moral training of the Young in Ancient and Modern times. It begins by setting out the close relationship of Muslim Ethics to that of Plato and Aristotle. The Greek element gradually came to be neglected and in time was overlaid with the experiences, the sayings, the marvels of the pious and wise, and exhortations to the imitation of these. The psychological analysis and scientific system of the Greek mind vanish and in their place the Semitic conception of custom and example come to rule supreme. No doubt, there were minds among the Muslims which studied the psychology of youth, methods and curricula and followed bravely in the traces of the Greek

writers upon pedagogy. But they produced very little impression.

Quite in contrast to the aim of ethical movement, the attempt to study and advance the ethical training of the young in independence of any definite theological instruction would be considered an impious absurdity by all orthodox Muhammadans, as being against the laws of thought on the one hand and against the revealed word of God on the other. The heretical sect of the Mutazilites hold that man has an innate sense of good and evil and that from it he could develop a knowledge of God and the Moral Law. This position Islam has finally and definitely rejected. The two orthodox sects of the Asharites and Mataridites hold that the Moral Law depends on the will of God and must be revealed by Him through prophets. Man apart from God, cannot know whether an action is right or wrong. How then, came the knowledge of right and wrong which is to be found outside the circle of Islam? The answer is on the lines of the Pauline conception of progressive Revelation, Islam being the embodiment of the Revelation in its highest purity. Besides the prophets there are the saints of all lands and sages who have borne witness to God and the moral law. It is thus a fundamental point in the Muslim position that all knowledge rests on Revelation. As generally in the East, there exists in Arabia a most multifarious multitude of treatises of all sizes and profundities on moral philosophy. In estimating their weight in the ethical training of the young we discover that the Greek element has become an atrophied limb, an unused appendix. The part which lives and acts is the *Sunna* or customary usage. The sayings and doings of the Prophet, down to the merest details are the pattern for all actions. Men do not ask what is the right thing to do, they ask what the Prophet said or did. Fashion and custom are mechanical enough everywhere, but they have never reached the absolute imitativeness and the total lack of inquiry as to a governing thought or

reason, of the Muslims. And so the education of the young, for which all the ways are marked out is strictly on the basis of imitation—a principle whose importance in juvenile psychology has, in modern times been so ably emphasised by Prof. Baldwin. The education of the child is a religious duty—indeed the child has a right to it from his parents. The *Jhya* of Al-Ghazzali, that renowned Muslim Doctor of the 12th century A.D., is an elaborate treatise on the whole subject and its teachings are representative of the attitude of Islam in this regard. The beginning and basis of all moral education is the Quran. It was God himself who educated Muhammad by those gradual revelations which are embodied in the Quran, and Muhammad himself is naturally the first and most important guide after whom men must walk and teach their children to walk. Therefore the Quran itself and whatever else we know of the character of Muhammad is to educate the Muslims. As for the method of training boys it is based on the now utterly discredited principle that the infant's mind is a *tabula rasa*. As the twig is bent, so the tree grows; that for Al-Ghazzali is the whole secret of religious training. The infant should be reared and suckled by a pious and clean-feeding woman. Greediness and hurry in eating should be taught to be injurious; and it is gratifying to find that that important habit of "chewing well" is inculcated—so important that to-day in the West it is put forth, under the name of Fletcherism as a system of treatment for most maladies. The fare should be plain, simple and unseasoned, clothing should be clean, white and plain. When taught to read, the boy should not be given books having any the least taint of eroticism. By bestowing approbation for good and disapprobation for evil his moral sense should be strengthened. Rebuke should not be applied too frequently lest the hearing of reproach too often may become a slight matter. The value of exercise and play of good manners, obedience to parents, respect for elders should all

be taught; and young men should now and then be put to the practice of a little asceticism by being made to fast and observe the laws of purification and prayer. Al-Ghazzali passes easily from the moral training of children to infant-asceticism and religious devotion. Life in the world and in religion, moral training, and devout contemplation all run together for him. There is no distinction for him between training as to principles of right conduct and those decencies which occupy a minor place in morals. The principle on which he proceeds appears to be that first good habits should be formed from which principles may thereafter spring, that from mechanical acceptance should gradually be developed intelligent grasp. This is also the method of inculcating doctrine. The fundamental Muslim position on the training of children, then, briefly, is as follows:—firstly mechanical imitation and practice; to grow, secondly, into intellectual acceptance and devotion.

COMPULSORY MANUAL TRAINING

The following extract dealing with the subject of Manual Training in Schools is taken from a paper by Mr. Carl Heath, published in *The School World* for June 1905.

Some of the aims and results of manual training may now be stated.

First: it makes boys think and think continuously, the most difficult of all operations. Obviously, when once a boy has cut himself with an edge tool, and for my part I am always glad to see the first cut, he will, as one says, "think what he is doing" another time. You remember what the late Edward Thring said on this difficulty of getting boys to think: "Mind will do anything but think, mind will crawl through any number of manuals, and grovel over as many date cards as you like—aye, and bear any punishment—rather than think. Mind will wriggle out of thinking by every conceivable twist and twiddle; mind is the prince of shirks."

No subject that I know of so readily leads a boy into thinking and trains him in the habit. For boys see the use of *doing* things—of making, say, a drawing board, a T-square, a box, or a camp stool, and the use of learning *how* to make these things. It is a much simpler matter than seeing the use of Latin grammar, or of the propositions of Euclid. At any rate, there is an immediate interest aroused and a willingness to hink, which counts to the good.

Secondly, it teaches patience and care, giving the pleasing reward of an outward, visible result of such care and patience.

Thirdly, it has its æsthetic value. I have known boys to come to despise shoddy work, after getting to know by their own experience what good work is, and learning to appreciate such good work because realising what thought and care is involved therein. They will understand sympathetically that little verse of Longfellow's—

In the elder days of art,

Builders wrought with greatest care

Each minute and unseen part,

For the gods see everywhere—

when it is applied to a badly made joint, for example.

Fourthly, it teaches accuracy and precision. You saw over the line; you pare too much, and you cannot, as *e.g.*, in drawing, rub out and remedy the defect; there is no remedy. You must not make mistakes unless you are prepared to do gain. The boy becomes attentive and concentrated for fear of spoiling what he is interested in needing over. Often while teaching I have caught sight of a boy looking concentratedly at his work, then turning to his working drawing, considering again, and then making a firm cut, and have thought to myself, "That is just it; manual training is a good deal more than hand work." For education aims at developing faculty, as it is said, and here you have visible, concrete expression of such development.

Fifthly, it has its social value, more especially in the secondary school. Indeed, from this point

of view, it is more important that it should be compulsory for the secondary than for the elementary school, for the large majority of elementary school-boys will perforce have contact with manual labour and know its value. In the secondary school it acts as a corrective to that stuffy notion of being a gentleman, so common in the English middle classes of the suburban type; the idea that it is finer to be something in the City than to be a skilled craftsman; that there is something contemptible in hand-work and the hand-worker. The boy who has worked in his shirt sleeves at the bench will, I fancy, never afterwards despise the mechanic at his trade. As Ruskin says: "Let him once learn to take a straight shaving off a plank, or draw a fine curve without faltering, or lay a brick in the mortar, and he has learned a multitude of other matters which no lips of man could ever teach him." Not least of these other matters is the social value of fine hand-work and the social worth of the fine hand-worker. It was some such ideas, no doubt, that led King Oscar of Sweden to have his sons taught the carpenter's trade, and, though the youth who is to marry the daughter of the Duke of Connaught will not probably have to make the kitchen furniture, he will, when he becomes king, have a better understanding of and sympathy with his industrial subjects, because of the days spent in the workshop sawing and planing.

Again, it has a levelling-up value. We cannot all do Greek or mathematics successfully—at any rate, at school. Some boys develop late in what is ordinarily called brain work. They are not necessarily dolts. Their capacities are elsewhere. You place them in a workshop, and at the bench you are surprised to find they have brains, after all. Finding work they can do and succeed over, the old indifference disappears, and success reacts upon the rest of their school work.

Lastly, manual training develops the will. The boy fixes his mind on the accomplishment of some object. Just now, for example, I have a boy who

with some suggestions has designed a small octagonal table, and is carving a simple pattern on the top. He voluntarily comes twice a week, in addition to the compulsory class in the four-years' scheme, and I am sure that the whole business of the table, with the prospect of taking it home when done, has been a factor in the development of will-power for this boy. "The will grows with courage of the deed," says Herbart.

If any secondary master doubts the value of manual training, let him try it. Spend a holiday in Sweden at Nääs on the Säfve Lake, or in Denmark at the Copenhagen School, or at the Leipsic College for Knabenhandarbeit, or at one of the courses in England. Many masters disbelieve in this work, but their disbelief is rarely based on personal experience. Do not imitate in this connection the famous Principal of Louvain University. You remember how the eldest son of the Vicar of Wakefield went abroad, and wanting work and hearing that there was no professor of Greek at Louvain, went to the Principal and offered his services. "The Principal," he says, "seemed at first to doubt my abilities, but of these I offered to convince him by turning a part of any Greek author he should choose into Latin." Finding me perfectly earnest in my proposal, he addressed me thus: "You see me, young man; I never learned Greek, and I don't find that I have ever missed it. I have a cap and a gown without Greek, have had 10,000 florins a year without Greek, I eat heartily without Greek, and, in short," continued he, "as I don't know Greek, I do not believe there is any good in it."

THE TEACHING OF HISTORY:

A DIALOGUE.

By F. HAYLIE.

The Inquirer. I have just been asking my son and his little sister questions in their English History. My dear Philadelphia, what I have learned from them somewhat surprises me;

and as you have doubtless the wisest possible reasons for what you do, pray let your old friend beg you to spend five minutes of your time in telling him what they are.

Philadelphia. With all my heart. What was it that surprised you so much?

The Inquirer. It was this. I began by asking Philip whose reign he was learning just now. "George II.," said he; and as he is scarcely ten I thought he was doing well. I next asked little Delphis the same question. "I'm doing Victoria," she answered. "What!" I exclaimed, "and are you further on than Philip, who is a year older than you?" She said: "No, of course not—for Philip had done Victoria long ago." Well, I did not dwell on this: I proceeded to ask Philip a question about Robert Bruce and found that he knew practically nothing about him. "I haven't got to him yet," he explained. "You are long past him if you're learning George II.," I said, "only, you young scapegrace, you have forgotten all about him!" Then I tried other heroes—Wallace, Francis, Drake, Raleigh, Marlborough; and at the mention of Marlborough Philip cheered up, declaring that he had heard of him, and that you had said he would learn about him next year. And, at last, when it proved that Delphis knew nothing of the Ancient Britons, nor of the landing of William the Conqueror, it suddenly dawned upon me—that you are teaching them history backwards.

Philadelphia. Quite true—that is indeed my plan: I teach them history backwards. They begin systematic work at about eight years of age, when they learn the chief events of the last ten years or so. At nine they go back half a century, and start afresh with Victoria; at ten the point of departure is the accession of the House of Brunswick; and at eleven and twelve I mean them to begin the history of the Stuarts and the Tudors respectively. And I must not omit to tell you one important point of my scheme. We are for ever recapitulating the modern history with which we began, adding to it, making com-

parisons and contrasts, seeing how the earlier history runs up into it. In fact we do not consider that we have done with any particular topic until we have made out its connection, through subsequent events, with the present day.

The Inquirer. This is a very strenuous and, to me, a very novel method. But what advantages do you believe it to have above the ordinary one?

Philadelphia. The advantages are innumerable! Nay, my dear friend, I give you full leave to smile at my enthusiasm. Nevertheless, would you not say it was indisputably the fact that children retain best what has been taught them earliest, supposing the teaching to have been sufficiently reasonable, and often enough repeated?

The Inquirer. Well—and then?

Philadelphia. Do you not also agree that the number of subjects and parts of subjects which can be taught to children is necessarily a limited one—were it only in order to leave time for the requisite repetition?

The Inquirer. Yes indeed—for that and for several other reasons.

Philadelphia. Then ought we not to teach a child first those things which will be most useful to him for practical life, and only in the second place those things which are merely interesting? And can you deny that a knowledge of modern history is more useful than a knowledge of medieval history? Surely it is indispensable for every man to know what is the present condition of his country, what her relations with her neighbours, and what the events which have determined these. In the year 1895 I would wager that for every thousand educated young men and women who could give you a clear account of the causes of the Hundred Years' War, you would barely have found a single one who could tell you anything definite about the battle of Majuba Hill—still less anything about the terms of our treaty with the Boer States, or of

the character and resources of their population. And yet knowledge of the latter points would have been infinitely the more valuable of the two. The affairs of practical life are all with the present, and only with so much of the past as explains or demonstrably conditions the present. Remoter history is really the affair of the antiquary and the historian. The one is special, for the few; the other still general, for the many. And I maintain that we have been reversing the natural and proper order of things: we leave modern history alone, to be taken up by those whose tastes and opportunities lead them to make a study of it in maturer years, such persons being comparatively few; whilst we compel children to repeat over and over again the history of times and of persons which have no bearing whatever, that they could discover, upon the actual conditions of life around. We ought to do precisely the contrary. Please understand me: I don't deny that the historian's contributions to thought and to practical wisdom are inestimable; I only say that a child is not *ipso facto* a historian.

The Inquirer. But, Philadelphia, recent history is too difficult for children; and, besides that, it is excessively dry.

Philadelphia. No indeed—I assure you, on both points you are mistaken. I admit that recent history is somewhat difficult to teach; but it is easy enough to learn. It is difficult to teach because the amount of material to select from is so immensely great, whilst there are practically no books in which one can find the selection ready made.—*Exoriare aliquis!*—But then, here comes the advantage of beginning it with very young children. It is easier to select for a child of eight or nine, than for a boy or girl of fifteen. The broad outlines of things, the salient events and personalities stand out clearer to the teacher's view; and common sense affords more definite aid. Then, the outline being given early and firmly impressed upon the mind, there is a framework ready for the additions brought in by that

recapitulating I told you of—so that further teaching becomes incalculably easier. And as for your objections on the score of dryness—I have found on the contrary that recent history proves almost too enthralling. Do you not see that the one thing needful is to set the child's imagination to work? And this requires enthusiasm, knowledge and a sense of the great and beautiful in the teacher—but does not require any particular set of facts or characters historically considered. Indeed I think one of the main benefits to be hoped for from my plan, if it is ever generally adopted, is a redressing of the balance of imaginative interest. The glamour of past history is largely the glamour of childish association, and in so far might be transferred to the present. The moral difference between history learnt as a mere record of bygone times, and history learnt with incessant reference to the present must assuredly be a very great one; you get a different perspective altogether.

The Inquirer. Do you suppose your way of teaching history is scientific? That is the cry nowadays, isn't it?

Philadelphia. Surely science works backwards from phenomena to their causes; not forwards from the cause to the effect. I should say the latter method both in science and in history is theoretical; the former, practical. Moreover, the practical method is the easier for the child, once the teacher has mastered it.

The Inquirer. But would you teach no history that goes further back than the Tudors?

Philadelphia. Oh, of course I should. You will remember the pupil is to begin the history of the Tudors at twelve years of age. Well, you also know that, in my opinion, all the children of a country should receive the same education till about their fourteenth year. In history, I think, the divergence would start at thirteen. In primary schools, the boys and girls, then in their last school year, might take up our old friends the ancient Britons, and learn the English history of

the Middle Ages—not forgetting, my dear friend, all those recapitulations and comparisons and that tracing up of connections which I have mentioned so repeatedly. But the boys and girls in secondary schools, who do not leave till the age of seventeen or eighteen, would naturally have this period divided up for them, and would study it in greater detail, though still in the same spirit and with the same object.

The Inquirer. Do you teach any foreign history?

Philadelphia. Yes, indeed I do. What is the history of England without the history of Europe or rather, say without the history of the race? I teach foreign history alongside of English history—much more in outline, of course, but still with emphasis. I never let the children forget that it is there. Think, my friend, for one moment, what an opportunity it is? If we could bring up one generation to have a sound and sympathetic understanding of other peoples we might change the face of the world!

The Inquirer. My dear Philadelphia, you are an enthusiast.

Philadelphia. That may be. But you, who boast yourself a man of common sense—tell me, what in the world is the object of teaching history, if it is not to assist the judgment of men in dealing with great questions, with public affairs? And of what assistance is a history-teaching which concerns itself mainly with the remote, the obsolete, and the unfamiliar—and seems purposely to ignore all the events and developments which lie nearest to ourselves and to the problems of our own life?—*School, May 1905.*

“OUT OF THE MOUTH OF BABES AND SUCKLINGS.”

The world is not yet too old, nor too wise, to learn from the child. Let who will learn. The facts embodied in this brief article may not be without some value to teachers who would base their arrangement on Nature's methods.

The writer has had the opportunity—given to every parent—of watching the natural development of speech in a little child. The child was emphatically not experimented on, but simply observed. He is an only child, and has learned to speak amongst “grown-ups” whose language normally conforms to standard speech.

In order of development, nouns came first—names for relatives first of all. The “bow-wow” theory received some confirmation in the nomenclature of animals. A dog was a “wouf,” and a cat a “wow.” (Metathesis of consonants was marked: e.g., a kettle was a “keltie” and a garden “gandie.”) Quite a large number of nouns were used before a verb was regularly adopted. The first word used as a verb was “out,” implying the natural desire to go out of doors. The sea was dubbed “bath”—not far from the Anglo-Saxon term—and a clock was named “ca-ca.”

Verbs were usually developed from nouns by rather an interesting process. Thus, to sweep a room is “brooming” it, and the manipulation of a razor is “razing.” Anything which revolves is said to “wheel,” and the process of using india-rubber is called “rubbering.” Blotting paper is “ink paper,” and a quill a “feather pen.” Clearly, the verb is developed from the noun, and, while nouns are largely imitative, verbs are rather constructive, being based on nouns.

While some nouns were clearly imitative, others were based on some process of reasoning which defies examination. For example the word “map” was used by the child to indicate a rabbit—not necessarily a white rabbit; and he applied the word at once to the first snow he saw, and continued for some time to use it. Again, he has always puzzled us by referring to a rather badly painted tiny squirrel on a tree trunk as the “tahtah”—with a long pause between the syllables. The term, we fancy, must be aboriginal.

Tennyson's “This is I” was long in being actual. Up till the age of two and a half he constantly referred to himself as “you”; “You want so and so” was his formula for “I want.” “I” and

“me” he did not use at all during this transition period. Another stumbling block was “yes” and “no.” These were not used until the same time. Assent was signified by repetition: e.g., “Do you see the dog?”—“I see the dog!” The negative is a big step, and the compound negatives come slowly. As yet (he is not quite three) he says “not anything,” “not any more,” for “nothing,” “no more.”

Grammatical errors were few, and were usually with strong verbs, which he used as weak: e.g., “letted” or “getted” for “let” or “got,” but he usually corrected himself if he were asked to repeat the phrase.

Simple sentences soon gave way to complex. Just the other day he was heard to use a sentence with a future tense, an extension denoting place and an adverbial clause of time, and there was but a slight pause to indicate that thought was taking place in the construction of the sentence. The whole sentence ran thus: “We will [he is obviously a Scot!] go back to our old house when Mr. X—goes out of it,” and between “house” and “when” there was a pause of perhaps half a second.

Imagination and comparison supply new words, or put new combinations into use. His first ride in a city bus extracted the remark: “Is this a thing for cutting grass?” the din recalling a lawnmower. His first policeman was “a black soldier,” and his first pillar-box “a funny pump.” When a fire dies it “withers,” and a red frock is a “soldier-frock.” Association of ideas is strong, and develops quite early, but it sometimes assumes quite advanced forms. A maid was dismissed in disgrace, and a long time afterwards an aunt who had been visiting us took her departure. The question came promptly, “Was Auntie bad?” On one occasion during a walk in moonlight we turned a corner or two, and the moon seemed to be in a different quarter of the heavens. “Are there two moons?” “No, there is only one, that's the same moon.” The reasoning I do not try to elucidate, but I give his comment: “One moon plenty!”

A curious trait was at one period noticeable in his speech, *viz.*, the prominence given to nouns in reply to questions. For example, if asked what he saw in a field, he would reply: "Cows I see in the field," or, "Lambs there are." One friend would have it that the "Lambs there are" was a clear evidence of the hereditary influence of Latin prose!

Now and then nouns were formed from verbs or other nouns, *e.g.*, a golf club was a "golfer," and a scythe was "a big knifer," while a lawn-mower was "a big cutter."

The object of this article is expositive rather than constructive, yet one or two teachings seem clear. A child, half way to school age, can form words and use complex sentences. What a drudgery his first lesson books must be! Might they not conceivably contain longer and even easy complex sentences? In his "Memories Grave and Gay," the late Chief Inspector for Scotland related how a precocious urchin, after reading in disconnected sentences how "the fat cat" did various things in the way of mat-sitting and so forth, ejaculated, as he hurled the disgusting book athwart the room, "O d.—n the fat cat!" It is not impossible that he voiced the "cry of the children" in words fit though few.

Surely composition is a subject for the kindergarten. Give the children *things* and the words will take care of themselves. R. L. Stevenson knows his child when he makes him rejoice that "the world is so full of a number of things." Give the infants things; talk to them and let them talk, though at times it be *ad nauseam*, and composition will present fewer difficulties to the school-boy of seven or eight than it seems to do at present.

—*The Journal of Education*, June 1905.

W. R.

LIBRARIES IN JAPAN

By C. E. A. BEDWELL.

IN 'School' for June 1905.

There is one Government library—the Imperial Library—corresponding to the British Museum Library, besides 20 public libraries and 46 private establishments, according to the latest available figures. The Education Department has cognisance of all these libraries and receives returns from them. In the Imperial Library there are about 300,000 Japanese and Chinese books, besides 60,000 European volumes. "European" in the report apparently includes also American books. The daily average of readers was over 400, so that during the year there were registered 133,650 attendances. In the five years covered by the statistics the number of attendances increased by 33 per cent. Permission is also granted for books to be taken out of the library. Over 3,000 persons availed themselves of the privilege and borrowed more than 10,000 volumes. A classification of the 700,000 issues in the course of the year shows that the largest proportion consisted of mathematics, science, and medicine. Next come works on history, biography, geography, and travel, the percentage being 19 as compared with 21.6 in the highest class. Another section, of which the percentage is 15.5, is devoted to State science, law, political economy, financial administration, sociology, and statistics. It is noticeable that the percentage of works on philosophy is only 5.6, while Shintoism and religious subjects form the very small proportion of 1.9 per cent.

Attached to the Imperial University of Tokyo is another fine library. The University was established by Imperial Ordinance on March 1, 1886. It marked a definite stage in drawing together the different colleges, which had been working independently and no doubt brought with them libraries devoted to their respective subjects. The present library of the University was opened in 1893, and contains a reading-room with accommodation for 300 students and another

for the staff. Before the war there were 185 professors with 55 assistant professors, having under their direction 122 assistants. A professor or assistant professor may not borrow more than 30 books at one time. Ten is the limit for the subordinate members of the teaching staff. The other officials of the University to the number of about 60 are allowed 5 volumes each. Students who have not the means to supply themselves with books are permitted to take out copies from the library, and during the summer vacation they may have 5 volumes upon obtaining an authorisation from their professor. A wise and liberal rule of the library provides for additional members, so that practically any *bonâ fide* student can have access to its treasures. Under this rule special tickets of admission were granted to 159 graduates of the colleges, 4 elective students and 57 other persons. The library is open from 7 A.M. to 9 P.M. The number of attendances was more than 30,000 in the year. At the disposal of readers are over 330,000 volumes. During the year more European works were added to the library than Japanese and Chinese works. The College of Agriculture, being in a separate building in another part of the city, has its own library.

The Kyoto University, which is the other State University, was only established in 1897, so it is natural that the library should be considerably smaller and contains barely 100,000 volumes. The additions of European books far outnumber the Japanese and Chinese works put into the library. The reading room, which was not opened until December, 1899, has accommodation for 160 students. In both Universities the College of Law attracts the largest number of students. Many Japanese pursue the course of study not with any idea of practising as advocates, but with a view to positions in the State or Local Government in the same way that Englishmen are called to the Bar by the Inns of Court. In Kyoto University the library of books dealing with law and politics was begun in 1899, and now contains

more than 20,000 volumes. An excellent catalogue has been printed under the direction of a German professor. It is arranged according to subjects, with an alphabetical index of authors' names.

Although the war has had a serious effect upon the educational system by withdrawing a large number of the teachers, still there has been no diminution in the keenness of interest among the people upon the subject. Even since the war began an important reform has been carried out in the College of Literature of the Tokyo University, and no doubt after peace will follow a marked advance in all departments of educational administration.

TEACHERS' SALARIES IN LONDON ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

THE Education Committee of the London County Council has drawn up a report on teachers' salaries. The committee states that the subject is one of great importance, affecting as it does 17,000 teachers working under varying conditions and possessing all kinds of qualifications. A large number of the teachers are employed in non-provided schools. The latter, the committee is advised, are "not persons in the employment of the Council," and therefore the Council would be justified in treating them on different principles from those which it adopts for the staff in the London County Council Schools. Such a course is, however, deemed inadvisable, and the committee considers that one scale of salaries should be laid down applicable to all teachers alike. The committee points out that the teaching profession is not so remunerative as others which require neither the intelligence nor the training required of teachers, and that, moreover, the present scale of salaries of teachers in London County Council Schools compares unfavourably with those of several local education authorities in the vicinity of London. It is therefore considered that the conditions of service of these teachers should be improved, but that the object of the Council

should rather be to inaugurate a process which should gradually lift the service to a higher level, and not so much to increase existing salaries.

An elaborate code of instructions as to the number of years' service without which a teacher is not eligible for a headship is given, but the committee recommends that in future the sole qualification required for an applicant for a place on their promotion list from which head teachers are selected should be five years in the London service. In the application of the new scheme to existing teachers in non-provided schools the committee suggests that each case should be taken on its merits.

As regards assistant teachers it is proposed to raise the commencing salary, the rate of increase, and the maximum salary. In the case of trained certificated teachers it is recommended that the new scale should be, for men, £100, rising by £5 (for two years) and then £7 10s. to £200 a year, subject to certain conditions on reaching £150; and for women, £90, rising by £4 to £150, subject to certain conditions on reaching £130. The present scale is, for men, £90, rising by £5 to £175; for women £80, rising by £4 to £92, and then by £3 to £140. In the case of untrained certificated teachers the same maximum salary and the same annual increments are proposed as in the case of trained certificated teachers, but the commencing salary is to be £80 (men) and £75 (women). Under the present scale the rates of salary are governed by many considerations; but, generally speaking, it may be said that the maximum salary attainable by men is £160 and £135, and by women £130.

It is proposed that the scale of salaries of head teachers should, as at present, vary according to the accommodation of the department in which he or she is engaged; but that instead of there being five grades there should only be three, and that the distinction between the salaries of head-mistresses in girls' and infants' schools should be done away with. The committee suggest the gradual introduction of the system of large

combined or mixed schools under one head-teacher, either man or woman, with a maximum salary of £500.

RURAL SCHOOLS IN SOUTH INDIA.

A NEW SCHEME.

Promulgated by Dr. Bourne.

The Director considers that the time has now arrived when an attempt should be made in this Presidency to institute a type of elementary school more directly adapted to the needs of the bulk of the population than is, in most cases, the present Primary School. Such schools may be termed, as they have been in some other parts of India, Rural Schools. The distinctive feature of the Rural School will not however be, as the name implies, that it is situated in the country and not in a town. The distinction between town and country which is so marked in many parts of the world exists to a very slight degree only in this Presidency. There are even within the Municipality of Madras many acres of land under cultivation and some schools in all our towns work under conditions very similar to those which obtain in rural tracts:

2. The Rural School, whether situated in town or country, will be a school adapted in the main for pupils unlikely to continue their education beyond an elementary stage. A pupil here and there may show such mental capacity as to give reasonable hope that he would profit by higher education, and scholarships tenable in the ordinary schools may be provided for such pupils where necessary; but boys whose parents are likely to be able to afford higher education for them would ordinarily attend the Primary department of a school containing higher forms. It is probable that a very large number of the present "results" schools should become Rural Schools and that in most districts a number of new Rural Schools should be established.

3. The impending abolition of the results grant system has led to a consideration as to what should

be done with regard to the indigenous "results" schools in the future. They are not, strictly speaking, *aided* schools. It is curious that the grant-in-aid system which was instituted with the idea of granting public funds in aid of private funds devoted to education has come to be applied to those schools in which the fees and the grant form the only source of income. The majority of them are actually maintained by public funds while remaining under private management, the teacher himself being in most cases the manager. There are probably about 7,000 such schools now in existence.

4. An attempt will now be made to place these schools upon a basis perfectly distinct from that of schools which are really *aided* schools. It is probable that they will come under a simple form of Local Board management. In that case a teacher who would previously have opened a result school would apply to the Local Board and be permitted to open a school if one were considered necessary in the locality chosen. The Director would like to see a salary paid monthly, to which a capitation fee might be added and the teacher allowed to take in addition any school fees that might be paid. The total emolument would be subject to reduction if the work were found by the inspecting officers to be unsatisfactory or to enhancement for excellence in any particular, notably for creditable attempts to fit the children in any way for their position in life.

5. The Director considers that the teachers should not be very strictly bound as to the details of the curriculum to be followed. He proposes to issue later detailed suggestions for a course of instructing but hopes to leave a considerable amount of latitude to the inspecting officers and to the teachers themselves in determining what can be efficiently taught. The pupils must be taught to read and to speak correctly. Conversation should be freely encouraged, but it should be for the most part conversation about the surrounding objects or objects with which the children are familiar. If they are able to describe accurately

any common object which is put before them they will have acquired greater powers of observation than most of them possess at present. They must also learn to write and to make all the calculations likely to be useful to them in their ordinary life. The methods of calculation ordinarily used in the village should be first acquired and then any others which seem to be for practical purposes an improvement upon these. Each pupil should make his own measure from a piece of stick or bamboo and learn how to use it. Some form of drill, however simple it may be, invented and elaborated by the teachers if possible, should always be practised, but vernacular words of command should always be used, and all expressions which have no meaning to the children should be avoided. Wherever possible there should be a plot of ground where the children themselves could cultivate various plants, not for the sake of ornament, but in order that they may observe their form and growth and such like matters. Whether any more artistic drawing is attempted or not, all the children should learn to draw or make diagrams of simple objects from the object itself; drawing some objects to scale should be practised, such as diagrams of the school walls or floor or to show the direction of the roads in the village or a part of it, or the shape of a field, but in all cases from actual observation. They should learn simple facts about the sun, moon and stars, day and night, the seasons, eclipses, the weather, the winds, rainfall, etc. To illustrate the measurement of time, a "minute glass" or "hour glass" might be made from a chatty with a hole in the bottom after first finding out by comparison with a clock how nearly full it should be with water or sand in order to empty itself in a given time; a pendulum may be constructed with a stone and piece of string while the pupils actually find by comparison with a clock how long the string should be to swing sixty times in a minute. Hundreds of such methods of developing the intelligence of the children may be suggested to the teacher, or better

still he may be encouraged to invent them for himself and credit given for any such originality. Something should be taught in the nature of what is frequently called civics. The arrangements of the village should be discussed, the duties of the village officers, the arrangements at the post office, why stamps are used, information about post marks, the way to address letters, how to weigh them; the older pupils may easily make a pair of scales with bits of bamboo, some thread and paper pans. A proper pair of scales with weights or coins may be borrowed and any boy make himself a set of weights with lumps of clay or in any other available manner. Such a matter is mentioned in this connection to suggest that the civics or any other subject may be made practical and need not be treated as a thing apart with regard to which it is only necessary to learn and remember facts. The telegraph office, the salt department, the abkari department, the railway and the railway station with its time-tables, and ticket office, all lend themselves to practical lessons. Some of these matters may form part of a geography lesson. The approaching visit of an Inspecting officer or of the Director may be taken advantage of to explain the outlines of the organisation of the Educational Department.

6. The Director has himself observed, and most inspecting officers will doubtless bear him out in saying, that the children appear more stupid inside the school than outside. The reason is probably not far to seek. The state of things is doubtless due to an almost total dislocation between the school curriculum and life outside, nay even between one subject of that curriculum and another. The children enter school and start say arithmetic, calculate perhaps the amount of wall paper required for a room of a certain size, whereas they have never seen a papered room; the time comes for another subject, the geography books are opened, so much geography is learnt; then comes reading and the children are taught that this word equals that word without having much or any conception of the meaning of either. The

children then go out to play and see and do hundreds of things they should have learnt about, in many cases have learnt about, in the school, but never think of connecting what they have learnt with what they observe. A child may know plenty of the plants it sees, know that they are used in some particular way in the house, it may know that it is likely to rain soon, it may know that the wheels of the passing bandy want greasing, and how to do it, but these things have never been spoken about in the school which is thought of only as the place to learn so much reading, writing or arithmetic against the day when the Inspector comes round. Any teacher who has tried to co-ordinate life inside the school with life outside has done much and deserves credit therefor. The results grant system with its rigid examinations prevented, or at any rate put no premium upon such efforts. This state of things should now come to an end. The Director has merely indicated above the lines which should be followed and encouraged in the future. Many of the suggestions made above are obviously only suitable to the older children. Everything depends in the end upon the individual teacher. A teacher cannot teach what he does not know, but whereas in the past he has been forced to teach only things about which he probably knew little, he should now be encouraged to talk to the children also about those things with which he is most familiar, to take up to some extent at any rate the line which interests him most.

7. Another question which is under consideration is the provision of better buildings as school-houses. A sum of money will be placed at the disposal of each Local Board for the purpose. Some of the existing school-houses are very good, so far as the Director's own observations have gone; they are much better in some districts than in others, but a very large number are utterly unsuitable. More light and fresh air are the chief things to be aimed at. There is no necessity for an expensive building. It should be in keeping with the other buildings in the

village and be considered as belonging to the village. Attempts should be made to induce the villagers to take an interest in the school-house and to be proud of it. The Director considers that suitable houses might be built for something under Rs. 400. In many villages the people might be prevailed upon to contribute something in the way of money or materials or labour. The Director has been told by the villagers in several places that they would be willing to do so. In such cases a dwelling house for the master might be erected near the school. There should be, wherever it is possible, enough ground for a school garden. A building to accommodate fifty pupils should be about 30 x 12 and every village with about 500 inhabitants should possess such a school-house. Where a larger building is wanted an L-shaped one would be most suitable. If the floor is well raised it may be of mud, the walls may be of brick in mud or even of mud if there is a really good roof to protect them. The roof should generally be tiled. There should be about five windows, at least 5' x 4 6' and the shutters should open outwards so as not to interfere with the room space. The best furniture consists of low tables and benches round them, but they must be of a suitable height for the children. The bench may be about 12 or 13 inches and the table about 20 inches. It would be better to have no furniture and a mud bank round the walls for the children to sit upon than to have the high benches which the Director has so frequently seen. The children should not have to sit with their legs dangling in the air. If writing desks are provided the children should be able to do more than just get their noses over the edge. It is quite as easy to make benches and tables if they are to be provided of a size suited to the children, as to make them much too big. Even when there is no other furniture, really good blackboards should be provided and kept in repair. Chalk suitable for writing with should also be provided. Wherever possible a portion of the wall surface may be prepared for writing upon. This can be done

very inexpensively. The question for determination now is where such schools should be erected. In cases where the present school-house is absolutely unsuitable it may be replaced, but a number of the new buildings should be erected in villages which have at present no school. There are at present over 13,000 villages with 200 or more inhabitants, which have no school of any sort. It will be possible to spend several thousand rupees in each district during the current financial year and thus erect a considerable number of simple but suitable school-houses.

8. The Director has endeavoured to give some idea of what he hopes may be done in the near future and no time should be lost in making a beginning. The Headmasters of Training schools are requested to obtain what information and suggestions they can from the Primary teachers now under training. The Director wishes to have some idea as to how far they will be likely to co-operate in the reforms suggested. Many of them may be able to suggest locations for new school-houses which they might occupy when trained and to say how far the villagers would assist. The information obtained, with any suggestions by the Headmaster, should be communicated to the Sub-Assistant Inspectors concerned, who are requested to add their own views and suggestions in regard to any of the matters herein touched upon; these should be submitted to the Director through the usual channel, with the views of the superior officers endorsed thereupon.

9. The question as to the new buildings to be erected this year is obviously one of extreme urgency. It has to be settled where to build, sites have to be selected and if necessary acquired, the assistance likely to be given by the villagers must be ascertained, plans will have to be prepared and the buildings erected before the end of March next. There will not be much scope for variation in regard to buildings the cost of which is to be so limited; but the Director would be glad of any suggestions with regard to the plan. It may be that plan and more particularly the mode of construction may appropriately differ in

different parts of the country. The buildings will be erected by means of local agencies. The Sub-Assistant Inspectors will probably be called into conference by the Presidents of the various District Boards, but in regard to this matter orders will issue later. In the meantime the Director desires to have the suggestions relating to buildings within a week or two; those relating to other matters may follow at as early a date as possible.

COIMBATORE DISTRICT EDUCATIONAL
CONFERENCE, HELD AT THE COIM-
BATORE COLLEGE HALL, ON
WEDNESDAY, THE 5TH JULY 1905.

Present:—T. T. LOGAN, Esq., M.A., Inspector of Schools, Western Circle, in the Chair; E. H. Elliot, Esq., B.A., Principal, and Messrs R. Krishna Iyer, B.A.; C. N. Krishnaswami Aiyar, M.A., L.T.; T. S. Venkataramana Aiyar, B.A., L.T., and C. R. Narayana Rao, M.A., Assistant Masters of the Coimbatore College; Rev. Father G. Boulanger, B.A., Principal, St. Michael's College; Messrs A. S. Vaidyanatha Aiyar, M.A., L.T., Headmaster, D. J. H. School, Gobichettipalayam; N. S. Jambunatha Aiyar, B.A., L.T.; K. Srinivasa Iyengar, B.A.; N. Venkoba Rao, B.A., P. Parthasarathi Naicker, B.A., L.T., and S. Krishnaswami Aiyar, B.A., L.T., Sub-Assistant Inspectors of Schools; Rev. Mr. Hoffman of the Coimbatore Lutheran Mission; Mr. N. R. Soobier, B.A., L.T., Assistant, L. M. H. School; W. Theobald, Esq., Headmaster, Stanes' High School, Mr. A. Rangaraja Sastriar, B.A., a number of managers and teachers of various schools in the district, and other interested in education.

At the instance of the Chairman, Mr. T. S. Venkataramana Aiyar of the Coimbatore College, was requested to be the Secretary of the Conference.

RESOLUTIONS:

I. Mr. C. N. KRISHNASWAMI AIYAR proposed "that in the opinion of this Conference the time has come for the Department to move the

"Government and obtain their sanction for a general scheme of pensions and allowances for teachers of all grades, employed in Municipal, Local Board or aided institutions, on the lines on which it is worked for the benefit of the clerical establishment of the Local Board Service, and which has recently been extended by the Government of the United Provinces to the teaching profession under the same service in that Province; or on other lines suited to the conditions of this Presidency."

In moving this proposition, Mr. Krishnaswami Aiyar said that in recent years the policy of the Government towards education, higher, lower and technical, had been one of regular and systematic control all round, the controlling agency having become specially strong under the reorganisation scheme recently adopted. Efficiency was the one object aimed at. The most important factor to secure it was, in the opinion of the speaker, the teacher. To secure stronger men for teachers, therefore, was to realise the object best. Control might do a great good, but unless the material controlled was hopeful, the outlook was not promising. The best method of attracting "hopeful" men was to give permanence to their position, and hope of pensioned ease on retirement. A scheme had been working in this Presidency for the benefit of the clerical establishment of Local Boards for over 25 years, and it was unfair not to let the teachers alone under the Board Service share in the benefits thereof. The Government of the United Provinces had recently seen fit to extend the benefit of this scheme to the teachers also in Board Service, taking 1/4th of their salary as contribution towards pension. The scheme of pensions on the basis of contributions having manifestly worked well during the last 25 years or more in regard to the clerical staff, there could be no possible objection to its being extended now to the teaching profession. The Government of the United Provinces had stolen one march over us, but if the Education Department of our Presidency pleased, it might safely commend a similar scheme to the

acceptance of the Madras Government, which thereby might steal three marches over the other; for this scheme might include not merely teachers in Board or Municipal Service, but also those of all aided or recognised schools, so that men with sound stuff in them might be attracted to the profession in all its ramifications. *Nobody was a loser hereby, least of all the Government*; but the whole prospect of the teacher's profession would, as if by magic, at once become bright and attractive by a scheme like this, and therefore, the sooner it was realised the better. It was not quite accurate to talk of any teacher employed in an aided or recognised school as working under private service, for he was not "private" for the work that he was turning out, or the way in which he was working, or in regard to the qualifications insisted on for the work that he was doing; these conditions being the same for teachers serving in the Department as well as outside it. Whatever reasons there might have been for a differential treatment in the case of men in private service under a regime of *laissez faire*, these must vanish in the light of efficiency and control which have since become the watchwords of the Department. Since, therefore, no teacher was private in regard to pains and penalties, it was unjust to hold him private for purposes of reward only.

MR. A. S. VAIDYANATHA AIYAR had the greatest pleasure in seconding this proposition, the question being one of the most vital interest to the profession. That question being solved in a satisfactory way, all other difficulties of the profession were bound to vanish in due course.

MR. E. H. ELLIOT desired to know whether the Teachers' Guild had not done anything towards the formation of a Provident Fund; and on being told by the mover that no definite scheme had yet been put forward, and that even if it had been, the authority of the Government was the one thing needed to make the scheme really successful, observed that it was necessary to maintain a register of teachers of all recognised schools for this pur-

pose, and make the contribution a duty, binding on all alike, so that no teacher in private service might feel his *forlorn and helpless state*, of which he was put in mind every minute of his existence in the present state of things. He had no hesitation in supporting the proposition, as it was undoubtedly the best service the Department could do to raise the morale of the profession.

REVEREND FATHER BOULANGER referred to the plan adopted in France under which the French Government received contributions from the teachers, to which additions were made from Provincial funds, and these sums manipulated in various ways went to support teachers in their old age. He supported the proposition with all his heart.

The Chairman observed that he had given to this proposition the first place on the agenda paper, as in his opinion it was undoubtedly the most important question for the consideration of the Department and the Government. He described the system in vogue in England, and was sure that a similar scheme might with great advantage be tried in this Presidency. He agreed with the mover that increased control entailed increased responsibility in regard to the well-being of teachers, and that he would be glad to see some definite superannuation scheme formulated by the Madras Government.

The proposition, being put to the vote, was carried unanimously.

II. MR. T. S. VENKATARAMANA AIYAR moved "that in the opinion of this Conference it is desirable that Object Lessons properly so called be made compulsory in the Primary and Lower Secondary Departments, instead of being optional as in the present curriculum; that the objects used for these lessons be chiefly those with which the pupils are or are bound to be familiar; and that these lessons be utilised to stimulate interesting and useful exercises in Vernacular Composition."

In moving this proposition, the speaker showed the lamentable ignorance displayed by boys

in the higher forms about things in general, and their inaccurate or positively erroneous notions in regard to ordinary weights and measures, which, however, with a little more care in the Primary and Lower Secondary Departments would have been prevented. He urged that that state of things was due to the *optional nature of the object lessons under the provisions of the code as it now stands*, and the wretched practice of their being too often converted into verbal lessons, where they were given. He, therefore, pleaded for a change in the code making object lessons compulsory in the Primary and Lower Secondary Departments, and to insist on objects being brought for every such lesson. The powers of observation and reasoning thus cultivated were to be utilised for purposes of composition, the pupils being made on each occasion to record, each in his own language, the results of observation and experiment. Vernacular Composition as such was practically unknown, and therefore, led in the higher stages to a lamentable backwardness in English Composition. His suggestion, if acted on, was bound to remedy both these defects.

MR. E. H. ELLIOT heartily seconded the proposition, and took it for granted that the proposer had advocated the formation of a school museum. The objects chosen must always be those with which the pupils came into constant contact in the school room or outside it, care being taken not to make the lessons too scientific.

MR. N. S. JAMBUNATHA AIYAR in support of it said that during his few months' tenure of office he had made it his mission to urge upon schoolmasters and managers the need for a museum in connection with each institution. He had been in his humble way instrumental in starting a museum in the Madura College, as well as in the one attached to the Teachers' College at Saidapet. People need not be frightened out of their wits at the mention of the word 'museum,' as the things proposed to be collected were anything but costly. He advocated the recruiting of teachers from a better class of men, and

trusted that with the increased interest shown by the Department in the furtherance of Primary Education, the objects of the mover would be realised in the near future.

THE REVEREND MR. HOFFMAN feared that, if the proposition before the Conference were carried, the present staff of teachers in most Primary and Lower Secondary Schools would find their occupation gone; as the overseers acting under the Code would make their positions unenviable.

To this objection an answer was returned from the Chair that it was part of the scheme of the Government to better the class of Primary and Lower Secondary teachers. Continuing, the Chairman said that the one cardinal difference he had always noted between schools in England and schools here was the various plans adopted in the former, such as the 'Observation Blackboard' and the like to encourage the faculty of observation and legitimate curiosity in children, and the utter absence of any such stimulus here. He agreed with the mover that object lessons must be made compulsory. The proposition was then put to the vote and carried unanimously.

III. The third proposition on "the desirability of introducing a sort of compulsory and free education among the rural population, and of entrusting the same to the chief administrative officers of villages" was to have been moved by Mr. A. R. Gopala Aiyar, B.A., L.T., but in his absence, the Chairman asked Mr. N. S. Jambunatha Aiyar to move it which he did very enthusiastically, recommending the formation of rural boards consisting of members official and non-official, working under the supervision of the departmental agency.

MR. K. SRINIVASA IYENGAR, Sub-Assistant Inspector, seconded it, and said that but for pressure brought to bear on the village establishment, there was no hope of their co-operation with the inspecting agency in its efforts to spread education and make it efficient.

At this stage a discussion arose as to the exact meaning of "a sort of compulsory education

which after a time led to the proposing of an amendment by Mr. A. S. Vaidyanatha Aiyar to the effect "that it is desirable to secure the co-operation of the village officials acting under orders of their department, with a view to make rural schools more popular, stable and efficient." Rev. Father Boulanger seconded the amendment, the proposition, in the amended form, was put to the vote and carried.

IV. MR. A. S. VAIDYANATHA AIYAR moved "that subject to exceptions to be approved by the Department, there shall be a separate master for each class in all grades of recognised schools, and that this rule should be incorporated in the Code." The reason urged was the absence of an express provision to this effect in the Educational Rules, and the consequent undermanning in schools of all grades in a large number of instances to the detriment of both discipline and instruction. The exceptional cases which might make such a shift necessary and expedient having been provided for, he saw no reason why this rule should not be incorporated in the Code, in the interest of sound education.

MR. C. N. KRISHNASWAMI AIYAR seconded the proposition. Rev. Father Boulanger having objected, on the ground of exceptional difficulties in rural tracts to find qualified teachers, he was followed up by Mr. Parthasarathi Naidu with an amendment that the rule might be adopted with an express reservation in the case of Primary Schools in rural tracts. The amendment, seconded by Mr. N. R. Soobier of the L. M. H. School, was put to the vote and carried by a majority. Mr. A. S. Vaidyanatha Aiyar having accepted the amendment, his original proposition was next put to the vote and carried in the amended form.

V. MR. S. KRISHNASWAMI AIYAR, Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, proposed "that in view of the great demand that exists in rural tracts for Upper Primary Education, and in view of the impossibility of supplying teachers qualified under the Code to meet the urgent demand, it is desirable, for a time at least, to relax

"the rule regarding the qualifications of teachers, so as to enable the present 3rd Standard teacher to teach also the Upper Primary class, provided that he is declared fit for that work by the inspecting agency." In moving this proposition, the speaker said that there was not much difference between the teaching of the 3rd Standard and of the 4th, and many teachers, therefore, might be expected to easily pull themselves up to this level, if encouraged by the Department. The salaries were not attractive enough for teachers of Lower Secondary grade, while the demand for Upper Primary Education in many villages that he knew of was real and had to be met.

MR. K. SRINIVASA IYENGAR seconded the proposition. Mr. Jambunatha Aiyar opposed it very strongly, for it was preposterous to plead for the lowering of the standard of teachers on the grounds mentioned, at a time when the teacher was seriously engaged in bettering Primary Education all round. Mr. Parthasarathi Naidu supported the opposition. The proposition thereupon being put to the vote, the votes were found to be equally divided. The Chairman agreed with the opposition and gave his casting vote against the proposition, which was, therefore, declared lost.

After passing a vote of thanks to the Chair, the Conference dissolved.

OUR ENGLISH LETTER.

CAMBRIDGE, June 1905.

The issue of the first number of the 'University Review' will perhaps be ruled by the future historian as the most important event of last month. It is issued in London, New York, Calcutta, and Australia, and is the first literary recognition of the enormous strides the University movement has made in the last twenty or thirty years. A map of the United Kingdom, marking the sites of Universities and University Colleges, forms a sort of frontispiece. There are, it would seem, now one begins to count, thirteen Universities in addition to the Welsh and the Royal Irish; and fourteen University Colleges

apart from those in University towns. Articles are contributed by Sir Oliver Lodge, Professor Churton Collins, and others; but by far the most important paper in an extraordinary sixpenny worth is the introductory one by Mr. Bryce, a man whose University distinctions would alone have made him eminent if they had not been overshadowed by the fame he has gained in other fields. Beginning with a brief historical summary, in which he shows that the University life of to-day is practically the creation of the last fifty years, he develops his main theme—the need of intercommunication among these newly-founded institutions. Fifty years ago there were two thousand students in Oxford and Cambridge together; perhaps one for every nine thousand of the population: there are now (apart from the students at the first-rate women's colleges) eighteen thousand undergraduates at these Universities, and provision for far more. These Universities, working as they do on their own lines, yet feel the need of knowing what the others are doing, the more so as the custom of passing from one to the other does not prevail in England as it does in Germany. Above all ought the Universities of the Colonies, of India, and in a lesser degree of America and the Continent, to be brought into closer relations with each other. There is a greater need for the exchange of ideas and suggestions than ever before; and hence the need for such a medium of communication as the

University Review, which will endeavour, first, to supply information, and, secondly, to provide a vehicle for University opinion. All who have the interests of higher education at heart will join with Mr. Bryce in wishing a long and useful career to a magazine proposing to itself such excellent aims as these. The Universities are already doing much, but they may yet do more, for the good of the Empire.

Equally interesting—if it can be regarded as falling within the range of these letters—was Mr. Choate's farewell speech in this country. At first sight, indeed, it might seem as if the farewell speech of an ambassador could scarcely concern us—but this was a speech on John Harvard, the founder of the greatest University of the West, and once an undergraduate at Emmanuel College, Cambridge. Recent research has shown that John Harvard was born in Southwark, and it was in the

Cathedral of Southwark that the memorial window was unveiled the other day by Mr. Choate, while speeches were made also by Mr. Bryce and the Bishop of Southwark. In a characteristic and admirable speech, the ambassador spoke of the life of Harvard and the work he had done. After eight years in Cambridge, where, on the authority of Milton we learn that he was a scholar and good in his life, he emigrated to Massachusetts, where, after two years only, he died, bequeathing his library and half his considerable fortune to the Colony for the foundation of the College which has since become so illustrious. There some of the greatest of Americans have been educated—including Phillips Brooks, the greatest of Western preachers, and Theodore Roosevelt, unquestionably one of the greatest of Presidents. Of all the links between England and the United States, Harvard is certainly the strongest—founded long before the separation, and the mother of many men, who, in reputation and influence, are as much English as American. The memorial, and the speeches of Mr. Choate and Mr. Bryce, are but signs of the good feeling which it must be the business of statesmen and peoples to preserve between the two great nations.

The question of a possible concordat on the religious difficulty is, like the poor, always with us; but it emerges from time to time to the front. The *Daily News* has opened its columns to the discussion, and has itself practically declared in favour of a completely secular system, with the right of entry out of school hours for religious instruction, to be given, of course, only to those whose parents desire it. Mr. G. K. Chesterton, in a series of articles as brilliant and paradoxical as we are accustomed to expect from him, has given his voice in favour of the same solution. Here, of course, he has to face opposition from the Nonconformists. Mr. Scott Lidgett, equally able, and less paradoxical, has led the van in his plea for the sort of teaching which satisfied the School Boards of London, Bradford, Leeds, and half the great towns of the country: and in his address to the National Union of Teachers, Mr. Tom John, the President, spoke with some reservations on the same side. He would retain the Bible as an ethical text-book, while excluding all dogmatic shibboleths; and he would totally abolish religious tests for teachers. He said, truly enough

that the teachers would be satisfied with his scheme. The difficulty, of course is not with them, but with the clergy of the Roman Catholic and the High Anglican Churches. Meanwhile, the Liberal leaders are of course cautious: but it is clear that neither they nor the country will at present accept the only logical (but hardly practical) solution, an entirely secular system.

The Act of 1902 is not gaining ground in the country; and it takes an Archbishop to think and say that it is working smoothly. At the meeting of the West Riding County Council the other day, a resolution was proposed and carried that the education rate should be reduced by a farthing in the pound. There Mr. Councillor Horsfall made a vigorous speech, denouncing the Act, calling attention to the position of Wales and of East Ham, and declaring that the only thing now requisite to kill the Act was the revolt of the West Riding. In Wales, the Board of Education have declared the County of Merioneth in default—at last; and are doubtless engaged in setting their lawyers to find out how the County can be got at; no easy task. Sir William Anson put on a bold front when challenged on the subject in the House of Commons; but he must know that the game is up. Coercion is impossible, as even the *London Journal of Education*, which has stood to the act as long as it can, is at last forced to admit. A feeling has been aroused which is not to be suppressed; and either this Government or its successor, will be forced to find a way out of the imbroglio in which Mr. Balfour, in spite of the fullest warning, deliberately involved himself.

The steady efforts of Sir John Gorst and Dr. Macnamara have at last resulted in the issue of an order by the Local Government Board, enjoining the guardian to look after the feeding of the starving child who too often in the past has been sent to school to feed the brain while a not less important organ is empty. The relieving officer may now act at the request of a teacher, giving the meal to the child, and entering the cost as a loan to the parent, who will pay on penalty of being disfranchised if he does not. This is a slight, but not unimportant concession to public opinion, and may be the beginning of greater things.

The new Head-master of St. Paul's School, whose honourable but dangerous task it will be to follow

Mr. Walker, is Mr. A. E. Hillard of Durham School. Mr. Hillard is a teacher of eminence, and already a Head-master of distinction. It is an open secret that, if he had not been elected for St. Paul's, he would have stood a good chance of succeeding Mr. Glazebrook at Clifton, where for ten years he was an assistant-master. The post is a splendid one; three thousand a year and a house; besides the chances of episcopal promotion that so often go with a headship when the Head is in orders. At the same time the closeness of the contest between Mr. Hillard and Mr. Malion of Marlborough, a layman, shows that it was not the 'Rev.' that weighed with the Governors.

Among the honorary degrees recently given at Oxford the most interesting is the Doctor of Literature conferred on Gerhart Hauptmann, the well-known leader of the German 'symbolic' school of poetry, author of 'Die Versunkene Glocke' and other remarkable plays and poems.

Reviews and Notices.

ENGLISH MEN OF LETTERS: THOMAS MOORE, BY STEPHEN GWYNN. (MACMILLAN & CO.)

There are certain men whom we could never think of addressing familiarly as Johnny or Will. There are again others whom one could never think of calling otherwise. We suppose Milton or Wordsworth would never have tolerated people addressing them familiarly by abbreviated Christian names. They took themselves seriously and themselves and their belongings were sacrosanct. Not so men like Goldsmith or the subject of the following notice. Readers of Boswell are familiar with the discomfiture of Dr. Goldsmith when he administered a rebuke to one of his friends who, he fancied, was a little too free with him. 'Tom' Moore was the familiar way in which the author of *Lalla Rookh* was best known. Sir John Falstaff might have different ways of being addressed, but it was always 'Tom' Moore with all the world.

This feature of Moore's character, the easy good nature tolerating such familiarity has worked him an injustice. The solid qualities of the man are not thought of; Byron's strictures of his friend in the *English Bards and Scotch Reviewers* are what one thinks of when recalling Moore. How unjust such an estimate is, Mr. Stephen Gwynn's book shows us. The materials for the biographer have been most ample and the writer of the book perfectly succeeds in his purpose of giving a just estimate of the man's character and of his work, as a poet.

It is impossible to revivify such extinct things as Lalla Rookh. As a poet of love, Moore had not fire enough in him. As Mr. Gwynn justly says he is more a poet of dalliance than of love. The present generation of readers accustomed to more outspoken utterances on all things is unable to understand how Thomas Little scandalised his contemporaries. His satires are too good-natured, and there is not sting enough in them. But as a poet of the Irish Melodies, Moore is yet alive and no small share of the Irish Renaissance movement is due to the poet's inspiration. Lovers of the poet may be shocked, but Mr. W. M. Rossetti's judgment must be accepted that "in the cosmical diapason and august orchestra of poetry, Tom Moore's (Tom again!) little pan-pipe can at odd moments be heard, and interjects an appreciable and rightly combined twiddle or two."

As Moore himself felt, his upbringing was responsible for the lack of the manly fibre in his character. He regretted he had not the open-air life, field sports and free intercourse with the peasantry that Sir Walter Scott had. And yet he was not the frivolous, self-indulgent toady that superficial readers might suppose he was. To his independence in money matters, his scrupulous sense of honour which would not allow him to avail himself of 'doles' when he got into distress because of the dishonesty of his deputy, Mr. Gwynn does full justice.

The solid scholarship of the poet is also well brought out. Moore's exact position in the romantic movement (p. 83) and his contribution to the improvement of English verse (p. 175) and the last chapter are parts of the book we would commend to students of English literature.

We are afraid there are very few readers of 'The Loves of the Angels.' Not even Mr. Gwynn's book would induce many to take up Moore and read the poems again. But there occurs in it a passage which may throw some light on a rather obscure passage in Shelley's *Adonais*. The 'Loves of the Angels' saw the light in the year of Shelley's death. So there can be no question of Moore having suggested the image. We quote the lines here:

So subtle, so refined the flame,
Which rapidly as lightnings melt
The blade within the unharmed sheath,
Can, by the outward form unfelt,
Reach and dissolve the soul beneath.

Moore considered himself as pre-eminently the poet of love and friendship:

I care not how soon I may sink to my repose
When these blessings shall cease to be dear to my mind.

But his best title to remembrance is as the poet of Catholic Ireland and Mr. Stephen Gwynn has done a service to the study of Literature by his contribution to the series of Macmillan's E. M. L.

THE GLOBE GEOGRAPHY READERS. INTERMEDIATE. ENGLAND, BY MR. W. T. MURCHE. 1s. 9d. MACMILLAN & Co.

This book is intended to be used as a reading-book supplementing at the same time the teaching of Geography. The author's aim in this as in his other readings has been to provide a series of attractive readings bringing home to the beginners' understanding important elementary scientific principles.

The book before us in forty short lessons explains clearly the important facts in the Geography of England, such as climate and rainfall, commerce and industry, habits and customs. To a student that has studied the ordinary text-book of Geography, this book cannot fail to be interesting and instructive. Special mention may be made of a lesson that accounts for the development of particular industries in particular localities, of another that shows that the British Isles were originally joined to the continent of Europe and formed part of it and of a third that describes the growth of seaports and harbours.

The book with its neat get-up, easy and conversational style, striking pictures and instructive maps is sure to serve its purpose well. We wish to have ere long a similar book on India.

OBJECT LESSONS IN ELEMENTARY SCIENCE, BY VINCENT T. MURCHE. STAGES III, IV, V: PRICE, 2s. EACH. MESSRS. MACMILLAN & Co.

This is a new and revised edition of an old favourite of young gentlemen preparing for teachers' examinations where such guidance as this book furnishes is in demand. The volumes before us contain well-ordered and skilfully arranged lessons on the mechanics of every day life, natural history, the chemistry of common things and the arts and manufactures. Every lesson is divided into three or more parts and at the head of each lesson is a list of objects required and at the end a summary in simple language. The body of the lesson contains apt illustrations and instructions to teachers. Science taught in the way in which it is treated in these volumes cannot fail to sharpen eye and mind and to make the boys pursue the subject with intelligence and pleasure.

CARROTS JUST A LITTLE BOY, BY MRS. MOLESWORTH. 1s. MACMILLAN & Co.

This is a reprint of one of Mrs. Molesworth's well-known books for children which was first published in 1876 and after several editions, has now been re-issued in attractive printing and cover.

LONGMANS' BRITISH EMPIRE READERS, INTRODUCTORY AND READERS I—VI, 8d., 10d., 1s., 1s. 3d., 1s. 6d., AND 1s. 8d. AND 1s. 9d. RESPECTIVELY, LONGMANS & Co.

An excellent series of Readers very well suited to our schools. The selections have been made with care and are graduated. There are a very large number of illustrations in each Reader which certainly add very much to the finish of the books. Another feature is the annotation at the end of each Reader which is neither disgustingly long nor uselessly brief.

THE EMPIRE OF INDIA, BY MR. G. SIVA RAO, B. A. M. E. PRESS, MOUNT ROAD, PRINTERS.

The book is a very useful manual for High Schools and for those general readers who may wish to have in a small compass all about the history, the administration and the geography of this country. Since the reorganisation of the History curriculum by our university, there have been frequent inquiries on the part of schoolmasters regarding the most suitable book dealing with the subjects above-mentioned. The book under review is the only suitable publication in the market which gives a lucid and correct account of the political machinery of India and its political history. At every stage of the physical features and the political expansion of the country are illustrated by suitable and suggestive maps and the author deserves great credit for the able and masterly way in which he has collated all information regarding the administration of our country. He has considerably improved upon "Lee-Warner's Citizen of India" and his account is fuller, more logical and couched in simpler language. Another merit of the author is his impartiality. With an eye to the weaknesses and the demerits of his countrymen he has, with commendable correctness, placed before the readers a faithful picture of Indian Society and the relationship between the Government and the millions that pay homage to it. The book is also up-to-date in its information, and the only improvement that we can suggest is the addition of lists of authorities at the commencement of each chapter and the best books that can with advantage be consulted by the student on the history and the administration of the country. The printers have contributed not a little to the attractiveness of the volume. The book in short, supplies a long-felt want and is too good to be rejected even by the fastidious.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

Lieutenant-Colonel J. L. Van Geyzel, M.B., I.M.S., is appointed Lecturer on Experimental Physics, Medical College, for the Session 1905-1906.

The following promotions are made in the Provincial Educational Service:—

The Director is pleased to make the following appointments with effect from the date of retirement of Mr. T. Mathai:—

Mr. P. G. Vanchi Aiyar, B.A. L.T., Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Palghat Range and Acting Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Calicut Range, to be Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools in the latter range.

Mr. M. C. Kannan Nambiyar, B.A., Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Narasapatam Range, and Acting Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Palghat Range, to be Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools in the latter range.

Mr. G. Dassanna Pantulu, Acting Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools, Narasapatam Range, to be Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools in that Range in the Probationary class.

The following promotions among Sub-Assistant Inspector of Schools are sanctioned:—

CLASS I, Acting.

Mr. S. V. Melagiri Rau, vice Mr. Babu S. B. Palit, B.A., on other duty.

Mr. M. R. Vaidyanadha Sastri, B.A., vice Mr. Babu B. C. Chatterjee on leave.

Mr. T. S. Muhammad Hussain Sahib, B.A., vice Mr. J. Vittal Pant on other duty.

Mr. V. Kameswara Rau, vice Mr. T. Janakirama Aiyar, B.A., on other duty.

Mr. T. Krishna Rau, vice Khaja Khan Sahib Bahadur, B.A., on other duty.

CLASS II, Acting.

Mr. T. Srinivasa Rau, vice Mr. S. V. Melagiri Rau.

Mr. C. Kodandarama Naidu, vice Mr. M. R. Vaidyanadha Sastri, B.A.

Mr. S. Hanumantha Rau, vice Mr. T. S. Muhammad Hussain Sahib, B.A.

Mr. S. Soundaraja Aiyangar, vice Mr. V. Kameswara Rau.

Mr. C. Srinivasachari, vice Mr. T. Krishna Rau.

CLASS III, Permanent.

Mr. M. Rangaswami Aiyangar, vice Mr. W. Ramaswami Naidu, retired.

Mr. A. S. Nageswara Sastri, vice Mr. C. Ramalinga Aiyar, deceased.

Mr. K. Duraiswami Aiyar, vice Mr. T. S. Lakshminarayana Aiyar, retired.

Acting.

Mr. S. Duraiswami Aiyar, vice Mr. T. Srinivasa Rau.

Mr. N. N. Sundareswara Aiyar, *vice* Mr. C. Kodandarama Naidu.

Mr. M. Parthasaradhi Aiyangar, B.A., *vice* Mr. S. Hanumanta Rau.

Mr. K. Panchapakasa Aiyar, *vice* Mr. S. Soundararaja Aiyangar.

Mr. T. S. Kalyanarama Aiyar, B.A., *vice* Mr. C. M. Sriivasachari.

CLASS IV. *Permanent.*

Mr. V. S. Narayana Rau, *vice* Mr. M. Rangaswami Aiyangar.

Mr. B. Raghunatha Das, *vice* Mr. A. S. Negeswara Sastri.

Mr. K. Srinivasa Aiyangar, B.A., *vice* Mr. K. Duraiswami Aiyar.

Acting.

Mr. O. Rama Aiyangar B.A.L.T., *vice* Mr. S. Duraiswami Aiyar.

Mr. G. Rama Aiyangar, temporary promotion to Class IV, will have effect from 8th May, 1905.

Mr. Mir Tahir Ali Sahib, is appointed to act as Sub-Assistant Inspector of Mahomedan Schools, Central Circle, during the employment of Khaja Khan Sahib Bahadur, B.A., on other duty or until further orders.

Mr. Muhammad Abdul Khalek Sahib, is appointed to act as Sub-Assistant Inspector of Mahomedan Schools, Southern Circle *vice* Mir Tahir Ali Sahib on other duty or until farther orders.

By a Notification in the *Fort St. George Gazette*, the Primary and Lower Secondary Examinations as at present conducted have been abolished from July 1st.

A hostel in connection with the Government College, Kumbakonam, has been built at a cost of Rs. 60,738-1-3. There is still a balance left of Rs. 7,725-13-9 to the credit of that institution. The opening ceremony was performed by Mr. E. W. Middlemast on the 12th July.

The Madras Government have requested the Commissioner for Government Examinations, and the Registrar of the Madras University to see that no examinership is conferred on a public officer unless through and with the consent of the head of his Department, and has specially drawn the attention of the Director of Public Instruction to the matter.

THE Inspector of Schools, Northern Circle, having enquired whether the Headmaster of a Board (quasi-Government) school may teach his pupils a particular religion, provided he does so out of school hours and out of school premises, the Hon'ble Dr. Bourne, the Director of Public Instruction, has passed the following proceedings:—"The teachers in a school under public management are not at liberty to give religious instruction of any kind during school hours, nor is it desirable that the building be used

for such purposes at any time. Furthermore, they should be particularly careful not to use their influence over the pupils out of school hours so as to induce them to either forsake or adhere to any particular religious views in a way that their parents or guardians would disapprove." According to the Educational Rules, schools under public management are those under the management of Government, or Local Boards or Municipalities.

We are indebted to the *Madras Mail* for the following account of the Madura Native College:—

When towards the close of 1888 the Government of Madras resolved, in pursuance of the recommendations of Lord Ripon's Education Commission, to close the Government College at Madura, which had been in existence for some years, the Committee of Management of the Local Native High School, in co-operation with some of the leading gentlemen of the District, offered to Government to raise that school to the standard of a Second Grade College, if the Government would on its part make over its college buildings and furniture to them. This offer was accepted by the Government, upon the strong recommendation of Mr. E. Turner, I.C.S., the then Collector of the District, and the late Mr. H. B. Grigg, I. C. S., the then Director of Public Instruction, and the Native High School entered upon its career as a College in January, 1889, thus replacing in every way the Government institution, which ceased to exist with the expiry of the year preceding. Since then the Native College has been doing good work under the management of an enlightened Committee of native gentlemen, with the Collector of the District for the time being as its *ex-officio* President.

It was the wish of its first Secretary, the late Mr. R. Venkateswara Aiyar, B.A. B.L. who had laboured strenuously for the establishment of the institution, to have the Committee registered under the Indian Companies Act, with a view to giving it a legal status, and the College a certain degree of stability. But, owing to one reason and another, the carrying out of this idea was indefinitely put off. At last, when, in November, 1903, the local Setupati High School was amalgamated with the Native College, the Managing Committee came into possession of valuable real property, while at the same time it had to accept heavy liabilities with which the property was charged. In the course of the correspondence between the Committee and the Departmental authorities on the subject of the amalgamation of the two institutions, Mr. Middlemast, Deputy Director of Public Instruction, urged upon the Committee the advisability of incorporation as a Limited Liability Company. The question was then seriously taken up by the Committee. The Memorandum and Articles of Association were drawn up and the necessary Government license was obtained for its registration as a Limited Liability Company, but without the addition of the word "Limited"; and within the last few days the Committee has been incorporated under the designation of "The Madura College Board."

THE programme of work, as sketched out in the Memorandum of Association, is an ambitious one; but none too formidable to achieve, if only the influential gentlemen who constitute the Board will set about it in the proper way. Among the objects of the Board are (1) to conduct and manage the several institutions already under its control, as well as others which shall hereafter come into existence, in the town and district of Madura; (2) to enlarge or modify the aim and scope of the education imparted in these institutions; (3) to provide for the delivery and holding of lectures, exhibitions, public meetings, classes and conferences calculated directly or indirectly to advance the cause of education, whether general, professional or technical.

The income and property of the institutions are to be applied solely towards the promotion of the objects of the Association, as laid down in the Memorandum, and no member is to receive any dividend, bonus or remuneration for services performed as such member. If at any time the Association should have to be wound up or dissolved, whatever property should remain, would be transferred to some other Association having similar objects.

The qualifications for membership are well considered and pitched sufficiently high. Members of the Board are to be recruited by co-optation from among the following classes of persons:—(1) Landholders owning not less than 50 acres of land; (2) merchants or members of other callings paying Municipal taxes in the aggregate of not less than Rs. 30, or paying Imperial income-tax of not less than Rs. 50 a year; (3) graduates of any Indian or British University of not less than three years' standing, and of a monthly pay of not less than Rs. 100, or a monthly pension of Rs. 50, or paying an income-tax of not less than Rs. 25 a year; (4) any Government officer with a monthly salary of Rs. 200 and upwards or a monthly pension of at least Rs. 70. Every person on admission to membership is required to pay a donation of Rs. 100 to the Association. As in the past, the Collector of the District for the time being is to be the Chairman of the Board. If any Collector should decline the office, the Association is to elect one from among the members.

BOMBAY.

Two prizes, the first of Rs. 500, and the second of Rs. 200, will be given in order of merit, to the candidates who write the two best essays on the following thesis:—

"The slow-footed years are bringing us to the goal where might shall be subdued by right and where injustice and selfishness shall be swallowed up by goodness."

2. Candidates for the prizes must be graduates of one of the Indian Universities, in Arts, Law, Medicine, Engineering, Science or Agriculture, of not more than fifteen years' standing from the date they took their first degree. They will be expected to show that they have carefully studied the following works of Herbert Spencer:—

- (1) Social Statics and *Man vs. the State*, one volume.
- (2) Principles of Ethics, two volumes.
- (3) Education—Intellectual, Moral and Physical, one small volume.
- (4) Study of Sociology, one small volume.

3. No prize will be awarded to any essay which does not show a thorough grasp of the principles established in the above works, or which does not come up to a reasonable standard of merit.

4. Candidates desiring to compete for the prizes should send in their applications to Prof. T. K. Gajjar, M.A., B.Sc., F. C. S., Techno-Chemical Laboratory, Girgaum, Bombay, on or before 15th April 1906. Each applicant must declare that he is a graduate of an Indian University of not more than fifteen years' standing, and must give the year and the page of the University Calendar where his name can be found.

5. The essays must be written in English and must be sent in sealed covers to Prof. Gajjar at the above mentioned address on or before the 15th June 1906. Each essay must bear at the foot of it the writer's declaration that it is *bona-fide* his own composition. It should also give the writer's full name and address.

6. The result of the competition will be announced at the end of September 1906. Successful competitors for the prizes will be informed of their success by letters and the amounts of the prizes will be forwarded to them by Prof. T. K. Gajjar within two weeks from the date of the announcement.

DURING the debate on the Budget in the Bombay Legislative Council on Saturday the 8th July, the Hon'ble Mr. Setalwad said that with regard to educational matters the budget had provided Rs. 63,000 as a grant to the Bombay University which was a matter of great gratification, but what was important was, how did they intend to apply this grant? There were other difficulties regarding the grant. Students could not get a professorship in Bombay, and higher education was not possible unless the system adopted in the colleges was considerably changed. That was really where higher education began; he urged that there should be more colleges in the Presidency after the modern style. With regard to the Elphinstone College the staff were completely unable to cope with the number of students, but he was glad to observe from the budget that provision had been made for an additional lecturer in that college. He did not doubt the Hon'ble Mr. Giles' statement to the effect that the persons selected had been highly trained, and again he did not doubt that the best selection had been made. But a mere lecturer on Rs. 250 a month was not sufficient for the needs of that college. What was wanted in the Presidency was a number of thoroughly competent professors. Referring to the Grant Medical College the speaker said that there was still no hostel in connection with it. He had himself hammered away at the

subject for many years, and we have got the stereotyped answer from Government year after year, that the matter is under consideration. This was 1905 and he pressed for the settlement of the question without further delay. If such neglect could be attributed to the owner or the manager of a private educational institution he presumed that Mr. Giles would have threatened such an institution or its owner rather in such a manner as would be unpleasant to contemplate. And yet, what would not be tolerated towards the owner of a private institution, is actually permitted by Government. The Engineer's College in Poona, he maintained, had no ordinary adequate quarters for students. He had pleaded for an Arts College in Sind and up to this date he had heard of nothing being done to complete either. He hoped that at an early date the committee appointed by Government would look into the matter of Primary Schools.

At a meeting of the Bombay Municipal Corporation on the 29th June, the Hon'ble Mr. Ibrahim Rahimtulla moved:—That the Corporation are of opinion that the time has arrived when a beginning should be made to introduce free and compulsory primary education for boys in the City of Bombay. That the President be requested to forward the above Resolution to Government, with a request that a joint committee be appointed to consider the details and make recommendations as to the best manner in which the above object can be attained.

Mr. Ibrahim said it was not his intention to read a long lecture on the subject of the advantages of general primary education. The Corporation knew that in this city out of 1,000 infants born every year, from 700 to 800 died. The death-rate amongst the infants was so high that the Corporation appointed a committee some time ago to consider the question, and the committee in its report dwelt upon the ignorance and poverty of the people as the principal causes of that mortality. There was one aspect of the question which had to be carefully borne in mind, and that was that the British Government were known, it must be said to their highest credit, to have been always most anxious to take immediate steps, in whatever directions they found it necessary, to save life. Some members thought that the word "compulsory" would frighten many people. He did not see why that should be so, and particularly in connection with primary education. The effect of every Act that was passed by the Legislature was to compel people to do something, and they obeyed. As to the Mahomedans he might say that their religion enjoined them to go to the remotest part of the world if possible in search of knowledge, and so there could be no objection raised from that quarter. Of course, there could not be a perfect unanimity among the people about a measure of this or any other kind, and he thought even in a civilised country such unanimity was not possible. He could, however, say that there was as much unanimity about it as was necessary. The whole of the Vernacular Press of Bombay was in favour of

free compulsory education; many of their public bodies advocated it; and they knew that the Indian National Congress had also passed a Resolution in favour of it. The speaker then quoted extracts from the Administrative Report of the Joint Schools' Committee, showing the amount education cost the Corporation at present, and what was likely to be the increased expenditure under the proposition. He asked members to consider whether it was not eminently desirable that the Corporation should take some steps to show that they were fully alive to the necessity of the occasion and of going to the root of the evil and trying at all events to remove the cause of the huge mortality in the city of Bombay.

Mr. D. E. Wacha seconded the proposition.

AN AMENDMENT.

Mr. D. G. Padhye said he himself believed that the two things—free education and compulsory education—could be very well separated. He thought free education should precede, and compulsory education come after it. He believed that to yoke the two together was just like yoking a horse and a cart in one line, if not exactly the cart before the horse, and then to push both of them forward. He was also afraid that Government did not appear to be favourable to the project now before the Corporation, and he did not think that it could ever succeed without the co-operation of Government. He moved an amendment: That the Corporation are of opinion that the time has arrived when primary education for boys and girls should be made free in Bombay with a view to making it compulsory in the course of time; that the President be requested to forward the above Resolution to Government with a request that a joint committee be appointed to consider the details and make recommendations as to the best manner in which the above object can be attained.

Rao Bahadur Dhakji Kashinathji seconded the amendment.

A SECOND AMENDMENT.

The Hon'ble Mr. Vithaldas moved as a further amendment:—

That the notice of motion of the Hon'ble Mr. Ibrahim Rahimtulla be forwarded to the Joint Schools' Committee for favour of opinion as to the feasibility of the proposal as a whole, or only so far as it refers to free education, and to submit approximate estimates for putting into effect the proposal.

Mr. Kazi Kabiruddin seconded, arguing that the data necessary for forming an opinion were not before them. He did not think he would be disclosing any secret if he said that at the instance of the Chairman of the Joint Schools' Committee they had already undertaken an investigation of this kind and had appointed a person to make an investigation relative to the question. He supposed that in about a month's time it would come before the Council.

INDIA NOT READY.

Mr. J. A. Wadia thought the Hon'ble Mr. Ibrahim was to be congratulated on introducing such an interesting subject for discussion. But he found very little argument in what had been said by him or by the seconder of the proposition. No doubt primary education was essential and it was the duty of the State to give primary education on as extensive a scale as was possible. It was more an imperial question than a Municipal one, and he believed the Government of India was now fully alive to its importance. But the question must be dealt with gradually; it was just as well that in the beginning they should go slowly. He had been connected lately with an institution giving free education to children and the boys liked to come to it; but after a short time they had to give up attending because poverty compelled them to work for their food. When they were talking of primary education it was of no use to compare India with England, or America, or France, or Germany. Before they talked of these things they must do away with early marriages, they must emancipate the widows—

The President: Education will bring about all that.

Mr. Wadia: No doubt. What he said was that before they went in for compulsory education they must prepare the way for it. They could not compare a backward, bigoted, narrow-minded, orthodox country like India with other countries in the world. Now Japan had been on the lips of everybody. But the Japanese people had sent out a roving commission to find out everything best in this world, and the Commission reported even on the object of religion; but they said they would keep their religion. Of course he did not blame their own ignorance or narrow-mindedness, or anything of that sort he had nothing to say about it; but in talking of education they could not compare with other countries one in which only seven out of every thousand women were educated, where child marriage was compulsory, plurality of wives prevailed, institutions thousands of years old prevailed—

The President: Go on, Mr. Wadia. But we have heard all that before. (Laughter).

Mr. Wadia: Yes; but we sometimes forget it. If the Corporation wished to enforce compulsory education he believed Government would not sanction it and Government would be right. The Hon'ble Mr. Ibrahim might leave this Resolution for his grandson to bring forward; and it might not be passed even then.

At the final stage of the discussion, several amendments were moved, and all these having been put to the vote, the one moved by the Hon'ble Mr. Ohimantlal Setalvad was passed as a substantive motion by a large majority. Mr. Setalvad's motion ran as follows:—"That the Corporation are of opinion that the time has arrived when the question of introducing free and compulsory primary education in Bombay should be investigated and that the

President be requested to forward the above resolution to the Government with a request that a Joint Committee be appointed to investigate and report on the matter."

BENGAL.

BABU JATINDRANATH SEN, M. A., Premchand Roychand Student for 1902, having satisfied the conditions laid down in paragraph 3 of the Rules for the Premchand Roychand Studentships framed by the Senate, the Studentship of Rs. 1400 a year, already awarded to him for two years, is extended for a further period of three years on the usual conditions.

The following appointments on the staff of the Chiefs' Colleges are notified:—Rajkumar College, Rajkot, Principal, Mr. C. W. Mayne; Vice-principal, Mr. P. Hide; Assistant Master, Mr. R. D. Patel; Aitchison College, Lahore, Principal, Mr. F. A. Leslie Jones; Assistant Masters, Mr. J. Kelly and Pandit Lakshmi Chandra; Mayo College, Ajmer, Vice-Principal, Mr. H. Sherring; Assistant Masters, Messrs. S. F. Madden, K. L. Paonasker, and Lald Sangam Lal; Daly College, Indor, Principal, Mr. J. H. Smith.

The Syndicate of the Calcutta University has been asked by His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor to nominate six candidates for appointment to the Provincial Civil Service from amongst the M. A.'s of 1904, and the B. A.'s and B. Sc.'s of 1905. "The object," it is stated in the Resolution, "of giving these nominations to the Syndicate of the University is that young men of capacity and merit, who have had a distinguished University career, may be able to make their own way into the Government service. In other words it is proposed that the three appointments which are now open to competition should be filled from amongst the most distinguished students of the University."

PUNJAB.

In consequence of the illness and subsequent death of Mr. R. H. Gunion, who was in charge of the office of Professor of History, Government College, Lahore, Mr. G. A. Wathen, B.A., Head Master, Central Model School, Lahore, has been appointed to officiate as Professor of History, Government College, Lahore. He assumed charge of his duties on the forenoon of the 8th May 1905.

Lala Sundar Das Suri, M.A., Head Master, Government High School, Amritsar, on Rs. 400 per mensem, in the Subordinate Educational Service, has been appointed to officiate as Head Master, Central Model School, Lahore, in the Indian Educational Service, with effect from the forenoon of the 24th May 1905.

[JULY 1905.]

On the recommendation of the Director of Public Instruction, Rs. 1,22,676 have been granted to the District Boards of the Province for expenditure by them on primary schools during the current financial year. These allotments have, of course, nothing to do with the new supplementary grant of three lakhs, the distribution of which has yet to be made public.

THE UNITED PROVINCES.

The correspondence is published between the Maharaja of Bulrampur and Sir James La Touche in reference to the gift by the former of Rs. 3,00,000 towards the erection of suitable buildings for the Canning College in its new home in Badshah Bagh, Lucknow, the College at Kaiser Bagh having become too small for present requirements.

The *Indian Daily Telegraph* says: "But for the ready generosity of the Maharaja of Bulrampur we are afraid the scheme for providing Canning College with premises on a scale commensurate with its present requirements would have remained in abeyance for an indefinite period, and we must congratulate the Maharaja on the public-spiritedness shown by him in providing a solution of the difficulty confronting the committee in the matter of funds, and thus enabling them to carry out a much needed project. The example afforded by the Maharaja might well be taken to heart by the Government, and the present would appear to be a fitting opportunity for reconsidering their obligations to the College. The amount now due in respect of arrears of grant and interest is about seven lakhs. We commend the matter afresh to the attention of the Government."

Foreign Notes.

Mr. W. J. GOODRICH, M.A. Oxon., has been appointed Junior Assistant Lecturer in Classics in Manchester University.

SIR ARCHIBALD GEIKIE, LL.D., F.R.S., has been invited to deliver the Huxley Lecture at Birmingham University next year.

HAILEYBURY's new Headmaster is the Rev. St. J. B. Wynne-Willson, an Assistant Master at Rugby.

At the annual meeting of the Childhood Society for the Scientific Study of the Mental and Physical Conditions of Children (May 10), Prof. Armstrong, speaking on "Teaching Common Sense in the School of the Future," delivered a diatribe against

the school of the present. Common sense, he said, was in reality, uncommon. More often than not school and college were destructive of Common Sense.

The cry of the suffering child was only beginning to make itself heard. The worship of the academic had existed too long. Teaching had had no connection with things outside the school. It was the games, rather than the lessons, which promoted alertness, individuality, and Common Sense under the present unfortunate system of education. He strongly approved Sir John Fisher's scheme of education for cadets—one third of the time being given to literary study, one to scientific, and one to practical work.

HARVARD's appeal for half a million to increase the remuneration of the staff has brought in £360,000 and the circular for the rest says:—

The position of Harvard to-day among American Universities is due not so much to its age, traditions, or able administration as to its noble line of teachers. That the teachers in the college should be the best in the land; that the older professors should be free from the cares of a straitened income; that the younger teachers should be able to give themselves without distraction to their work, and that the best men should not be drawn away to other colleges, but should see before them reasonable promotion in work and salary, is essential to the leadership of Harvard and the culture of her sons.

Universities are so keen for dollars in these days that one is mildly startled to learn that the University of Mississippi, like any ordinary perverse library committee, has refused 25,000 of Mr. Carnegie's dollars for a library. Mr. Vardaman, the Governor of the State and a member of the Board of Trustees, explains the brief reason why from an elevated moral platform: "The University does not want money coined from the blood and tears of the toiling masses." Allowing something for the rhetorical energy of expression, one has some difficulty in imagining from what other source Governor Vardaman ever expects to get dollars for his University. Anyhow, it is refreshing to have such tidings of high social morality wafted from New Orleans. There are Universities that do not consider such things so curiously, prudently refraining from looking gift horses in the mouth. Poverty is said to acquaint a man with strange bedfellows, and perhaps the University of Mississippi is not so poor as consideration. Nor do the Trustees appear to have thought of redeeming "the blood and tears of the toiling masses," to some extent at least by a wise application of the dubious dollars.—*The Educational Times*.

The Educational Review.

The scheme of Rural Schools promulgated by the Madras Director is a mere outline and embodies the more striking of the many impressions that he has formed during an extended tour. So far as it goes, the sketch appears to be on the right lines. Particularly praiseworthy is the idea that much initiative is to be left to the individual teacher, and scope allowed for variety of excellence. An irreducible minimum of requirements will necessarily have to be prescribed, the temptation to do nothing beyond the minimum, so great to the out-of-the-way schoolmaster, being counteracted by offering special rewards for extra effort. The Sub-Assistant Inspectors, whose number has been recently increased, will find their work of a higher sort than before. It will consist less of the baneful grant-examination and more of the fostering of schools and the raising of their tone and efficiency. The Results Grant System of aid, which has at last received its quietus, is justly held to have encouraged cram and unpractical methods of teaching. The schoolmaster's income will hereafter consist of a fixed salary to be supplemented by a capitation grant and rewards for particular excellence. The curriculum is to be adapted to the needs of rural life. The Director's suggestions in this regard are highly sensible and practical and calculated to make the children as bright and interested inside school as outside it. Training schools have already been placed on a better basis, thanks to the energy and zeal of Mr. Stone, and with their model practising schools, may be trusted to respond to the increased demands that will be newly made of them. We fear, however, that the Director will not get much useful information

from the students under training about the plan and site of school-houses or the probable help of the inhabitants of villages. The District Boards, on which all interests are represented and which are in the last resort to bear the cost of the rural schools, can alone decide these questions with any degree of finality; and Sub-Assistant Inspectors, who are in many cases members of the local Boards, will see that the views of the Department are pressed on the attention of these bodies. In the work of erection of these school-houses the co-operation of the officials of the Revenue Department will be found to effect an economy both of time and of money. We trust Government will instruct Tahsildars and Revenue Inspectors to regard it as part of their duty to enlist the co-operation of villagers and secure their active help in erecting school-houses.

The experience of the Central Provinces, made available to the whole of India by Mr. Sharp's report, will doubtless be of great use in the practical working out of this scheme. Apart from the very conception of Rural Schools, one can see in the outline of the scheme now promulgated the influence of that Report. In the main lines of the proposed curriculum, in the favour shown to native physical culture, in the desire to obtain the intelligent co-operation of local bodies, in the anxiety to fit the children for their actual work in life, even in such trifling matters as the aversion to English words of command in drill, we fancy we catch echoes of Mr. Sharp's report. A new note is struck by Dr. Bourne when he declares his intention to allow room for the teacher's individuality in the method and even in the substance of tuition. A laudable purpose, no doubt, but hard to realise in practice. Another departure from the Central

Provinces practice which we should strongly advocate is the abandonment of the monitorial system. It is an evil, as even Mr. Sharp admits, but why it is a necessary evil one cannot understand. Madras will prove, we hope, that it is not. Financial limitations will be the only possible defence of the crude plan of teaching by monitors; but the monitorial system does not solve the financial difficulties connected with primary education, and experience has shown how difficult it is in a vast area of operations to replace an inferior agency once established by a superior agency.

The principle of half-time for these schools we consider so important that the absence of all mention of it in the scheme of Dr. Bourne causes an apprehension that the omission is intentional. We would fain believe otherwise. The class of people for whom these schools are specially intended will be deprived of half their objection to them if the children could be left free for wage-earning work for half the day at least. It is true Mr. Orange speaks of the half-time plan as having been tried elsewhere, but not hitherto with equally good results. That children who come from, or have to go to, severe physical labour cannot make much progress in studies is an objection against all continuation and evening schools; and it is risky to allow poor parents who depend on the wages of their children to choose between sending them to full-time schools or employing them to increase the household income. The needs of children who have not to do wage-earning work may be met by separate schools where possible, and by special arrangements in the half-time schools elsewhere. It appears to us that it is only then that the benefits of the scheme will extend down to the strata of population hitherto untouched by the system of public instruction.

The management of these rural schools the Director proposes to vest in the District and Taluk Boards. As these bodies will have to find a great part of the money for the scheme, it looks but fair that they should manage the concern. No one, however, who knows their constitution, will consider them fitted to perform the task. Composed in a haphazard and heterogeneous manner, they are incapable of combining for any purpose except to register the will of a strong presiding official. We should view with favour the creation of local boards of management for small circles or ranges of schools to which members of District Boards may be appointed, but not exclusively. The subordinates of the Education Department must be *ex-officio* members of these local committees. Teachers in neighbouring high schools or colleges and others interested in education might also have seats on them. We would appeal to all educated and public-spirited citizens to help the Department in all possible ways in the practical working of a scheme which is full of promise for the future of the country. It would be a betrayal of trust if we did not take our share, each one according to the measure of his power and influence, in the amelioration of the masses, sunk as these are in ignorance and superstition. To mention only one of the ways in which a considerable Mirasadar may forward the cause: can he not, by advice, generous treatment, and gentle pressure of his tenants and labourers, induce them to send their children to the schools and secure their regular attendance?

For the scheme to be worked with any chance of ultimate success, we want teachers of better quality and in greater numbers. The training schools, reformed and

crammed to their utmost capacity, will be many years in supplying the men required. But will the training institutions be so cramped? In other words, will the profession attract recruits? As a writer points out elsewhere, an affirmative answer cannot be returned unless the pay and prospects of the primary schoolmaster are greatly improved. His low estate has been frequently commiserated in official reports; but owing to the magnitude of the problem and owing also, let us add, to the want of powerful advocacy such as causes not so great have been fortunate enough to obtain, the matter has gone no way forward for a long time. On the contrary, the gravity of the situation is always obscured by a method of stating the village schoolmaster's income, which on that account we venture to characterize as mischievous, if not unfair. His regular wage as schoolmaster falls as low occasionally as Rs. 3; generally it is Rs. 5. But to mitigate the horror of the impression that such a bald statement is calculated to produce, his income as postmaster is added (Rs. 2½ we believe); the doles of rice, &c., that he gets from charitable parents are brought into the reckoning; nor are the few annas that he may obtain by writing letters, petitions, &c., forgotten. So that on the whole his salary is made to appear as approximating closely to Rs. 10. As if his employer is justified in reducing his wage because he turns a few honest pice by other means! Besides, is every village teacher a postmaster also? Can he always depend on his extra income? Is it not necessary to free him from the necessity of this additional labour? Alas! when shall Pity, like a naked, new-born babe, blow his woes in every eye, that tears shall drown the wind?

For some years the Conference of Educationists that met in Madras repeated a resolution containing a plea for the betterment of the primary schoolmaster's lot; and the idea of the first batch of teachers that organised the Conference was to go on repeating the plea until things sensibly improved. But a sad change came over the proceedings of the Conference when it ceased to pass resolutions, and no wonder it is not taken seriously by the authorities. The Coimbatore Conference of Educationists, of which a full account appears elsewhere, has endeavoured by its first resolution to revive the interest of the public in this all-important matter. It is time the Madras Conference accepted the gentle rebuke and resumed its agitation on behalf of the primary teacher. The Coimbatore teachers ask for nothing less than a pension scheme for all teachers of whatever grade and in whatever service. How chimerical it sounds! and yet when one thinks of it, what can be a more reasonable request? Some time ago the Council of the Teachers' Guild attempted to gauge the support that a very modest scheme of a Provident Fund for Teachers might command from managers. The result was disappointing in the extreme. The heart of the manager was in the main untouched by the appeal. The only element of hope lies in the fact that a few institutions have, either in actual working or in contemplation, pension or retiring funds for their staffs. For instance, the Madras Christian College has a liberal pension fund for its employes, and the Wesleyan Mission institutions, the Pachaiyappa's College, and the Town High School, Kumbakonam, are maturing similar schemes of their own. A central and unified scheme for institutions under heterogeneous management is perhaps

out of the question until the time—too remote, alas!—when the Government of the land can provide pensions for its teachers as well as for its 'public servants.' (Are not teachers in schools public servants?) Meanwhile we can only hope that the good example of the Madras Christian College will be largely followed and that each institution will provide for the 'pensioned ease' of its teachers on its own lines. With regard to the primary schoolmasters, however, the immense majority of whom are soon to come under the employ of Local Boards, Government may by promise of aid induce these bodies to consent to a general consolidated scheme. A few Boards already have pension funds, and the difficulties of the others cannot certainly be insuperable. The redress of the primary schoolmaster's woes is a cause worthy of the highest endeavours of Government and Local Boards, and if achieved, will constitute by far the greatest step in administrative reform that we have heard of for many generations.

We would commend to the earnest attention of our educationists, both official and non-official, the new scheme of salaries about to be adopted for elementary teachers by the London County Council. The conditions being fundamentally different, a comparison of the mere figures is profitless and perhaps also misleading. It is rather the attitude of the Council towards the schoolmaster and his status that is full of instruction for the Indian school-manager. How true the following is of India: "The teaching profession is not so remunerative as others which require neither the intelligence nor the training required of teachers."

A regular graded scheme of salaries is not to the taste of the ordinary Indian manager

as it is likely to hamper his freedom and put a check on his vagaries. Occasionally too he delights in higgling and taking the utmost possible advantage of the necessitous state of his employees. It is not, however, the need of a graded scale that we are now enforcing, though it is great. It is rather a particular feature of it which the London County Council Scheme has made prominent. To take a concrete case, men-teachers' salaries are to begin at £100 and rise by £5 a year to £150. After this, subject to certain conditions, there is to be a further rise by £7½ a year to £200. The principle seems to be that every teacher has a right to look forward to a definite yearly rise up to a certain point, and that special merit should be rewarded by a further advancement thereafter. Neither the initial salary nor the yearly increase up to a certain point is made to depend on the teacher's academic qualification or the standard taught by him. Once he is taken on the staff he is assured of a decent living and reasonable promotion.

The debate in the Bombay Corporation regarding compulsory primary education in the city of Bombay is full of interest. We were not in the least surprised at the opposition that the idea met with. Compulsory instruction of the masses has been for some years a beautiful vision of the future in men's dreams, and a mild shock was only to be expected when an attempt was made by eager hands to precipitate it on solid earth. We cannot explain the Hon. Mr. Wadia's apparent irrelevancies except on the supposition that he was just then rubbing his eyes and comprehending the matter slowly. No one will maintain that the idea is practicable for the whole of the country, but a tentative intro-

duction of the measure in selected spots has been before now advocated in these columns. In all India what spot is more propitiously circumstanced for the purpose than the city of Bombay? Enterprise, enlightenment, wealth—all are found in their most powerful combination in Bombay, and there is little reason to doubt that the scheme, once launched forth boldly, will be crowned with success. Other cities will be slow in following, but will watch with the greatest interest the progress of the movement in the Western Capital in all its stages. The inquiry which the Corporation has initiated has not come a day too soon, and we trust it will be conducted in a hopeful and enthusiastic spirit. After all, if one goes out of British India, the experiment is not altogether the first of the kind in the country. The Gaekwar of Baroda has already carried off that honour.

No departure in principle is made in the Director's recent circular regarding text-books. Still it contains a protest against the use of compendiums, keys, &c., as regular books, in supersession of authorised text-books. The practice is said to be indulged in by teachers themselves and fostered by the system of examinations in vogue. Inspecting officers are directed to change their mode of examining so as to render recourse to cram books unnecessary, and to recommend withdrawal of recognition and aid from schools which use unauthorised books. These remedial measures are good. But they do not touch the root of the evil. Cannot something be done to check the publication of these wretched things? In most cases it will be found that some teacher is the author, and every teacher is under the Director's control. It would be a wholesome exercise of authority if that officer should make it known that all teachers who write such books would incur his displeasure. No more capital crime against sound education can be conceived, and yet one can remember cases of severe treatment meted out to comparatively venial offences. It might be made a rule, for instance, that no teacher who was proved to have written an objectionable book would be considered eligible

for an examinership or other patronage from the Department.

The Madras University and the cause of sound culture in South India must lament the death of Col. W. H. Hallett. A friend of his has written in the *Madras Mail* a record of his career, useful and honourable beyond ordinary lives. An eminent Shakespeare scholar, his services were for many years in request as examiner in English to the Madras University and his questions had a distinctive note of originality about them and used to call forth the real ability of the examinees. He had, besides, remarkable elocutionary powers, and it is among the boasts of the present writer that he listened in 1888 to a Convocation address which for literary finish and grace of delivery was simply incomparable. One of Col. Hallett's last public appearances in Madras was when he gave a recitation in the Victoria Public Hall of certain scenes of 'Macbeth'. The effect, we remember, was electric, and many a student at college caught his manner at the time. Even now at public recitations by young Indian students one detects an echo of his fine declamation. Those who knew his initials and his favourite subject, the drama and the stage, would have read with keen appreciation the valuable articles that he contributed from England to local papers. We remember being struck with a resume of the Bacon-Shakespeare controversy from his pen,—a resume which was marked by a sweetness and urbanity generally absent from writings on the subject. Himself a convinced Shakespearean, he disapproved of the orthodox attitude of absolute contempt for the Baconians, and endeavoured, with some success, to prove that the Baconian theory was not after all so inherently improbable as to be dismissed in an off-hand manner.

In accordance with Imperial Educational Policy the Madras Government have abolished the Two Examinations Abolished. Lower Secondary Examination altogether and the Primary as it is at present conducted. The reservation in the case of the latter examination would indicate that

in future inspecting officers will examine schools *in situ* and grant certificates to deserving pupils of having passed the primary grade of education. Government apparently holds that no public examination must break the secondary stage of instruction. Still the middle point of the course may be marked by a kind of certificate. This may be granted by head masters and accepted at its worth by the public.

The authorities of the Mississippi University have administered a severe rebuff to the donor of free libraries at great cost to the University. They have declined an offer of 25,000 dollars from him on the ground that the University does not want "money coined from the blood and tears of the toiling masses." Assuming that their indignation was not misplaced and that Mr. Andrew Carnegie was the worst of sweaters, was it consistent with their duty as Trustees to the University to refuse the donation? We should certainly commend the moral stamina of a person in distress who scorned the help of another of whose conduct he violently disapproved. But when he is guardian of a public institution, would he be justified in sacrificing its interests for the display of his righteous indignation? How casuistry may answer the question we cannot say; but it is clear that the adoption of an affirmative answer in the abstract would impoverish public institutions and render great movements impossible. The grand moral teachers of the past have not rejected the service of their weaker brethren. Our own temples, how were they built? Whose money is lavished on the festivals connected with them? Can a hungry Indian traveller hope for a meal who would not eat in a *Chuttram* maintained by money obtained in improper ways? We doubt whether our University and its colleges would survive by a twelve-month adoption of the rash Mississippi example. The only case where money might be justly rejected by the authorities of an institution is where it is clearly proved that unrighteous

means have been employed for the avowed purpose of benefiting the institution.

But it is perhaps unfair to push the sentiment to the extreme and judge it by unintended results. It might be no more than a striking demonstration of the hatred of capitalists that prevails in the West. And in America, where dollars are plentiful and the donors thereof not scarce, it may well be possible to convey impressive moral lessons by refusal of benefactions which in other countries would be regarded as munificent.

Mr. Morant of the Board of Education Office has won much praise for the high educational ideals and principles enunciated in his memoranda. His happy instinct seems, however, to have deserted him as he laid down the mode of appointing assistant masters. Our readers do not need to be told that recently a feeling of dissatisfaction has grown up among assistant masters with the arbitrary way in which some headmasters exercise their powers of appointment and dismissal, and that, owing to the consequent agitation, Local Authorities seem prepared to curtail the absolute powers of headmasters. Mr. Morant, on the contrary, is of opinion that full efficiency can be secured only by making the headmaster responsible for the organization and discipline, and for the appointment and dismissal of his assistants. *School*, from which our information is derived, predicts that in the end he will have to bow to the prevailing view. We hope so, for it is not good policy to make the prospects of a whole staff depend entirely on the will of a single man. But if we are to have only one extreme or the other, we should much prefer the English practice to the Indian, for here in private institutions the headmaster is as a rule not even consulted as to the appointment or promotion of those for whose work he is held responsible. There are several compromises possible between these extremes; that one appears the best which vests the choice in the first instance in the headmaster subject to the veto of the managing body.

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A PLEA FOR COMPULSORY OBJECT LESSONS.

THE writer having had the honour at the recent Coimbatore District Educational Conference to move a proposition relating to Object Lessons and the desirability of making them *compulsory* in schools, and this proposition having been carried unanimously, he has thought fit to state here, at greater length than was found possible at the Conference, his ideas on the subject, and to invite suggestions from those who may care to make them, so as to satisfy himself how far he is right in advocating *compulsion* by the Department, or whether there are other methods which will serve equally well to enable us to realise the object in view.

In one of his recent utterances, the Director of Public Instruction is reported to have remarked that if we are going to develop the faculty of accurate observation, so essential for original research, we cannot begin too early, we must straight begin by dealing with concrete objects. It is also reported that he exemplified this statement by an anecdote that out of a class of about 50 boys, only two counted the spokes of a bicycle wheel correctly! This regrettable incident, eloquently proclaiming the fact that carelessness in dealing with things is far from being a habit with our boys, is only surpassed in pathetic interest by another which occurred some time

ago within the writer's own knowledge. A certain student of the fourth form, aged 16, happened to state that the ordinary candle measured 2 feet. An attempt was made to correct his notion of a foot; just then the Principal entered the room, who, by the way, is a person of but average height. He called on the boy to estimate his height, and the answer was returned that he was—sixteen feet! It need not be doubted that the boy knew his arithmetical tables by heart as well as any other; only he had not realised the meaning of the *inch* and the *foot*. He might have seen a foot-rule, but he had not observed it. The yard-stick of the shopkeeper, by which no doubt the cloth for his coat had been measured, had but produced in him an indefinite and undefinable impression as to its length. His teacher in the Primary class (supposing him to be one who knows no better than the average Primary teacher does) who probably cased into him the arithmetical relation between the various units of length, could in all probability have succeeded better, had he, instead of making his face a yard long, told the boy that the cane with which he flogged him was a yard in length. But the opportunity was lost. And here stands a fourth form boy, not without any, but with his own private and original ideas about the *inch*, *foot* and things of that kind. Doubtless, it may be presumed that the boy in question has

many a brother like himself in almost every form and in every institution.

The above incident provokes the writer to venture to, ask, in how many Primary and Lower Secondary Schools in the Presidency do they keep a set of measures of weight, and ask the boys to handle an ounce or a pound, or to lift a hundredweight and thereby enable them to understand the magnitude of a ton? In how many schools, again, are the little children, repeating the tables of money, actually shown a rupee before they are told its copper value? As for the accuracy in regard to their knowledge of volumes or figures, the less said the better. To take as a test case, not a few of a sixth form consisting of 50 boys would, when questioned, discover to us a bewildering variety of cubes, with faces ranging from 3 to 8 in number, and attribute to various solid figures properties unknown to ordinary mortals. The inference, therefore, is irresistible that of things learned in Primary classes, some unconvincing and dissonant words alone remain, but the things signified by them have vanished and are nowhere.

This is no exaggeration; on the other hand, the writer feels confident that similar instances of intellectual aberration have come within the knowledge of others also. So it is as much for others to consider as for him the far-reaching evil effects of the existing system of teaching without objects. It is the writer's belief, which may at once be stated, that the introduction into our Lower Secondary and Primary Schools of a comprehensive course of compulsory Object Lessons, dealing with common objects, animals and vegetables, would go a long way to remedy the prevailing evil and to improve the faculty of observation and reasoning of the school-going children, with marvellous good returns resulting in due course.

In discussing the desirability or feasibility of introducing such lessons, it may be deemed necessary to meet some of our conservatives in education. The objections usually raised are chiefly:—1. That those that received instructions on the existing lines have risen and are still rising to be great intellectually, and so there is no need for change. 2. That the Code contains, though in an optional way, a provision for Object Lessons, and consequently managers and others concerned are at liberty to have any amount of object-teaching in their respective schools. 3. That if it were made compulsory, it may operate prejudicially to the interests of a large section of teachers on the staff of Lower Secondary and Primary Schools, who do not know, nor can easily be made to know, the nature and scope of Object Lessons. 4. The argument of 'rupees, annas and pies.'

In regard to the first objection, it is obvious that the objectors seem tacitly to imply that the practice of teaching as it now obtains in our Lower Secondary and Primary schools is the *best possible* one, and that it cannot and need not be improved upon. This is clearly not an attitude for a healthy human mind to take. And as for the many that have risen to be great, may it not be that they have done so in spite of, and not in consequence of, the shortcomings of our teaching methods? And are there not really hundreds of young men now left groping in ignorance and doubt for each successful youth that asserts his intelligence and rises? Suppose for example, it is desired to put into some young boys the idea of hardness and softness, and with this view a piece of wax, a stout glass tube and a thin steel file are handed to them for observation. The boys easily decide the nature of the wax; but it is not so easy for them to say which of

the other two is the harder. Possibly, some of the boys may think of trying their strength on the objects by attempting to break them. If the teacher warns them that that is not the real test of hardness, and that perhaps by applying such a test they might succeed in breaking the steel file more easily than the glass tube, and explains to them with reference to what they observed and did in regard to the wax what the real test of hardness is, and shows how the glass can be cut by the steel file, it may be presumed that a larger number of the class will go away with a clearer idea as to the meaning of hardness and softness, than if the teacher had, as unfortunately he very often does, merely told them that steel was the hardest and wax the softest of the three bodies. If one eye is better than two ears, the actual witnessing of glass cutting will stand the boys in better stead later in life than their merely listening to a few words of the teacher, forgotten perhaps the moment the teaching ends, or at best leading them some day, not improbably, to waver again within themselves which of the things, glass or steel, is the harder of the two, and actually decide in favour of the former. It is needless to multiply instances.

As for the second argument that the Code allows it and that managers may do it, is it transgressing the bounds of courtesy to ask how many of them in charge of the numerous Lower Secondary and Primary schools in the Presidency at all evince an active interest in educational problems of this kind, except in so far as they directly or indirectly affect their examination percentages? The examination craze is too notorious to need any special mention in this connection. Now that the Lower Secondary Examination has been abolished, it may be interesting to watch how

many of the managers of the said schools find it possible to realise that *liberty of action* herein and *duty* are synonymous terms. Even supposing that a few zealous-minded managers see their way to doing it, where is the guarantee that in the thousands of schools in the Presidency a similar attempt would be made, or a uniform level of teaching aimed at, unless the Education Department makes object-teaching the rule, and also standardizes the operation thereof?

The third objection need not hold us long. Gauging from the signs of the times, and from the public utterances of responsible educational officers, we may in a way surmise the scope of the Government's latest educational programme. It is, in all possible ways, to make for progress, the betterment of the class of Primary and Lower Secondary teachers forming part of the scheme. The demand for a more efficient race of teachers may be met, at all events slowly, by the increasing number of trained teachers that the training institutions of all grades working under Government supervision are capable of supplying. Under these circumstances, if, as has been urged, "the occupation of some of the teachers in these departments would be gone," it is only in the interests of the community at large that the well-being of individuals is subordinated.

Lastly, the objection of increased cost certainly deserves a serious consideration. The writer for one does not believe that a school can thoroughly equip itself with all the necessary teaching appliances, so as to satisfy a competent and well-meaning critic, without paying for them. Though, as has been asserted, enthusiasts might succeed in collecting, at practically no cost, the specimens required for a school museum, we are not sure that the element of cost can be altogether ignored.

To mention only one instance, a school museum, whatever else it can be without, means at least increased accommodation; and this in a majority of cases, especially in rural schools, must involve expense. But the expense must be met—at the peril of our lives, it must. It may be argued that although the schools, under public management, such as those conducted by Municipalities, Local Boards or Committees, could without difficulty find the ways and means to start a school museum, the private proprietors, on whose well-known tender mercies the destiny of thousands of young boys so largely depends, would find it hard to cope with the altered situation. This is hardly worth answering. Such proprietors must summarily be told that “The Sabbath is meant for man, and not man for the Sabbath.” The readers of the *Review* do not need to be informed that it is the considerable number of the tribe of proprietors that have been the bane of our educational progress. The truly commercial instincts which have prompted them to bring their institutions into being are only excelled by the sort of treatment they accord to the teachers in their employ, or by the way in which they strive to fulfil the letter and not the spirit of the rules of recognition of schools. The working principle of these educational undertakers being *minimum cost and maximum profit*, which doctrine they hold it desecration to violate, it would indeed be a matter for surprise if they did not obstruct the course of educational reform and progress. The parental world must now rise and show unmistakably that educational institutions will no longer be permitted to be run on capitalist lines exclusively, but that the spirit of co-operation should be more and more in them.

school-going children; these objections, it may be returns resulting in notice, and the write

should have been the last to have wasted his strength or the time of the readers of the *Review*, caring to answer them at any length, but for the fact they were actually and in all seriousness urged by sane men in open meeting or in private conversation.

Let us now turn and look at the other picture and consider how far the Object Lesson is used in western countries as a means of cultivating the observational and reasoning faculties of youth. On this subject we must take the verdict of those that have had opportunities of observing the practice both in the West and in this country. Considering the number of text-books pertaining to object-teaching published in, and the courses of Object Lessons organised in the educational institutions of, England alone—the South Kensington syllabuses of education and the elementary works published thereunder for instance—we cannot but conclude that object-teaching is an integral part of the Primary and Secondary Education in the West, and that it does not form part of educational systems here. This is confirmed, if further assurance is indeed necessary, by a remark which Mr. T. T. Logan, Inspector of Schools, made last month while presiding at the Coimbatore Conference. He said that “the one cardinal difference he had always noted between schools in England and schools here was the various plans adopted and encouragements given in the former, such as the ‘Observation Blackboard’ and the like to encourage the faculty of observation and legitimate curiosity in children, contrasted with the utter absence of any such stimulus here.” America seems to be farther ahead; or scholarships would not be offered to people willing to go and learn ‘concrete-teaching’ there in preference to other countries. Compared with such ‘tall’ systems, the pros-

pect before us must be called cheerless. Still there is no reason for us to despond. The Department guiding Public Instruction in this country keeps receiving its inspiration from the West, and already something has been done in this direction in connection with the several training institutions in the Presidency. A scheme of Rural Schools is also projected, where concrete-teaching should dominate and bring forth excellent fruit ‘after his kind.’ These are signs of the times; and this is the reason why the writer here ventures to ask the Department to see that some kind of ‘varying uniformity’ is observed in all Primary and Lower Secondary schools, so as to make teaching of living interest and not the miserable lifeless thing that it has too long been. A small change in the Educational rules making Object Lessons compulsory, instead of being optional as in the present curriculum, is the one definite step that the writer urges on the attention of the Department as a means of bringing about, in the near future, a fraction of the result aimed at, “for the faculty of accurate observation cannot be developed too early.”

Increased facilities being thus afforded to the Indian student, his curiosity which is at present characterised as being something that is not legitimate, is bound to find ample occupation in healthier channels. A systematic, or even an unsystematic, study of the objects of the animal, vegetable and mineral kingdoms by direct handling and examination, while thus contributing to the training of the senses, which scientific men like other ordinary men possess, would ensure the formation of habits of using them without making mistakes; and by virtue of the natural longing for the expansion of the mind, which successful individual efforts must necessarily

create, would always place him in a valuable receptive intellectual attitude, which is the aim of all scientific education.

The results of observation need to be carefully recorded as well as any inferences that may be drawn from them; and this leads us to consider, though very briefly, another subject of the Primary and Lower Secondary course, in no less deplorable case than object-teaching itself. It is doubtful if there is a thing called *Vernacular Composition* in existence for the Primary or Lower Secondary pupil, or for the matter of that, his master. It is just possible that we may find it included in the approved curriculum; that is to say, the name of it. So far as the writer is aware, he believes he is right in saying that the thing does not exist; for if it had existed at any time in our school course, we should have found it fruitful at least in the case of the writers of Vernacular readers now in use. It is not disparaging to these writers to say that, not having been shown the right way at the right time, most of them fail to show anything like style in their composition generally. The so-called style can only go from one extreme which consists of “uncouth” or high-sounding words, to the other which is a string of proverbs. Now, as this state of things is not as it should be, Object Lessons can be very usefully employed to stimulate and exercise the habit of composing accurate, short and pithy sentences with a view ultimately to enable the pupils to fashion for themselves some kind of style of writing. It hardly needs to be pointed out that this side of it, properly cared for in the lower stages, will considerably lighten the work of the teaching of English in the higher classes, and Composition both English and Vernacular will cease to be the lifeless things or the up-hill work that they are, and have all along been.

T. S. VENKATARAMANAN.

SHAKESPEARE AND THE INDIAN
DRAMA.

WE shall consider here what are the points of similarity and difference between the Shakespearean drama, as the highest expression of Western dramatic genius, and the Indian drama, and also what the lessons are that a loving study of Shakespeare's plays will teach us for application to the Indian drama of the present day. It is scarcely necessary to dwell much on the value of this subject, some aspects of which we shall discuss here. In every walk of life, one of the chief inspiring sources of improvement is a cultured contemplation of the achievements of other nations, not with a view to imitation, nor introduction of the state of affairs prevailing outside our land, but with a view to the modification of our own institutions and ideals, so as to preserve all that is good and essential in our own, while adopting all that is good in those of others. This kind of work is of the utmost importance in connection with the drama, because the drama is the highest expression of the secular side of a nation's genius, and each nation can see the others at their best only therein. The range of the drama is as wide as the world of human emotions, and it can illuminate all the varied aspects of our complex nature. Hence it behoves us to consider the Indian drama, its origin and development, and how the characteristic Shakespearean beauties can be so woven into it as to bring into existence a new kind of beauty for the enjoyment of our countrymen.

It is now more or less settled that the Hindu dramatic system was not borrowed from the European system. In fact, dramatic literature, in the true sense of the term, was non-existent in Western Europe till the fif-

teenth century, by which time the golden age of Indian dramatic literature had long been over, and the Indian classical drama had begun to decline. As for the theories that traced the origin of the Hindu dramaturgy to the Greeks and the Chinese, they were once largely current, but thanks to the labours of that great orientalist Professor Wilson, they have been shown to be wrong. Lassen, who put forward the theory of Greek influence, based it on such slight grounds that we cannot but reject it as erroneous. Apart from the similarity between the Sanskrit Vidushaka and the 'servus currens' of the classical comedy, and between the Sanskrit Vita and the classical "paratities edax," which are of no evidential value, the only facts on which the theory rests is the use of the word 'Yavanika' which occurs frequently in Sanskrit dramas, and the existence of trade and political connection between the Greeks and the Hindus. Weber, while adopting Lassen's view, admits there is no internal connection between the Indian, and the Greek, drama. Frazer says, in his *Literary History of India*, that "it still remains for those who assert foreign influence to prove it more conclusively than up to the present has been done." MacDonnell says in his *Sanskrit Literature*: "The improbability of the theory is emphasized by the still greater affinity of the Indian drama to that of Shakespeare. It is doubtful whether Greek plays were ever actually performed in India; at any rate, no references to such performances are preserved. The earliest Sanskrit plays extant are, moreover, separated from the Greek period, by at least four hundred years. The Indian drama has had a thoroughly national development, and even its origin, though obscure, easily admits of an indigenous explanation. The name of the curtain, Yava-

nika, may, indeed be a reminiscence of Greek plays actually seen in India; but it is uncertain whether the Greek theatre had a curtain at all; in any case, it did not form the background of the stage." When we try to discover the significance of the word *Yavanika* we are so much in the region of guesses that it may very well be said to be the fact that the curtain was called *Yavanika* because curtains for the Indian theatre were purchased from Greek merchants. We shall see later on how the Indian drama differs widely in essential matters from the classical drama, and has more points of kinship with the Western Romantic drama which was the product of the Renaissance, and which found its greatest exponent in Shakespeare, than with the drama of the Greeks. Again, as for the suggestion made in some quarters that the Indian drama owed something to Mussulman influence, it is too absurd to need any serious refutation. The Semitic race is not pre-eminent in any of the secular arts and sciences, and in none of the arts has it achieved so little as in the dramatic art. Besides, by the time that the Mussulman influence could have been exerted, the Hindu drama had already reached its zenith and was already so highly developed and so rich in beauty that it had no need to borrow beauties from neighbouring nations, especially when the intellectual possessions of these were not so great as to induce others to go to them as humble learners. Thus the Hindu drama was of indigenous origin, and had a long and noble career before it began to decline.

It will not be out of place to indicate briefly here the course of development of the Hindu drama. The Hindu drama, like the English Mystery and Miracle plays and the Greek drama in its earliest stages, in fact, like all

literature in its infancy, was intimately associated with religion. It came into existence at the time of the Sattrayagas, which were very common centuries ago. Purañic recitations, religious discussions and discourses, dramatised versions of Puranic stories afforded instruction and refined amusement to the learned Brahmins assembled there during the intervals between the performance of the various sacrificial rites. It would seem to be a guess worthy of some attention to say that the rule of Sanskrit dramatic criticism that noon and sunset should be described during the course of a play is a survival of the old custom of closing the dramatic representations at noon and sunset to enable the hearers to perform their religious duties. The other theory put forward as to the origin of Sanskrit drama is based on the fact that the word *Nataka* (drama) is derived from *Nat*, "the Prakrit or vernacular form of *Nrit*, to dance." The theory is that the drama consisted originally of rude pantomime, in which the dancing movements of the body were accompanied by mute mimicking gestures of of hand and face"; that afterwards dialogue was introduced as in *Gita Govinda*; and that finally the lyrical element and the dialogue were blended together. But the undoubted fact that the drama among all nations is at first intimately associated with religion, and the further fact that in all Sanskrit dramas the prologues point to the fact that the drama was regarded as a part of religious festivals, seen to show that the first theory is right, and that though the graceful additions of music and dancing had very probably no religious significance, the origin of the drama was undoubtedly religious. It is difficult to go down the stream of time from that remote past and watch the slow evolution of dramatic genius in India. No record is preserved of those

early attempts at giving dramatic representations of Puranic stories. They must have been somewhat like the *Harikathas* of the present day. Nor are there any vestiges left of later dramatic work, in which a number of characters and dialogues were introduced, and a consistent story was presented not by the narration of a single man, but by the acting of many people. Division into acts and scenes, directions as to stage management, development of character, beauty of sentiment, diction, and imagery,—these must have come into existence only slowly. But the oldest records of dramatic literature that we have now show us the Indian drama in all its wonderful variety and richness of beauty. Sudraka, Kalidasa, and Bhavabhuti are some of the earliest dramatists that we know of, and they have created for us a world of wonderful loveliness. They wrote at a time when the national life was strong and vigorous, when the Hindu princes patronised arts and letters, and were themselves learned men, and the people were proud of themselves and of their past. It is erroneous to say that Sanskrit plays were never acted, that the Sanskrit dramatists wrote above their audience, and that there was not much demand for the plays. Any one who sees the easy, and the almost colloquial character of the style in Kalidasa and some others among the elder dramatists, the balance and proportion between the various parts of the plays, the attention paid to the devices for keeping up the interest of the hearer, the various directions as to stage management, the simplicity of the narratives and the swiftness with which they move to their conclusion—will see that the plays were meant to be acted and were acted. They were generally acted on occasions of festivals and national rejoicing. After the Mahomedans came into the land, litera-

ture lost its chief motive power and the people were too busy saving what they could from the burning house to attend to literature or science. Though the Mahomedans had progressed in some arts, yet in poetry and the drama their achievements had been very slight. Also, Hindu secular literature, being intimately allied with the Hindu religion, was hated by the Faithful who felt they had a special call from Heaven to kill the heathen and put down "idolatry." During the Indian dark ages, the pundits kept the lamp of knowledge burning in obscure villages, and there is no man but feels admiration and gratitude for those noble souls, to whom learning was dearer than anything else in the world, who tilled their few paternal acres and kept body and soul together, and cared for life only as something enabling them to attain culture and cultivate the fine arts and adore the Eternal. But when the drama left its hold on the national pulse and retired from the stage to the study, it lost much of its living interest, its truth to nature, and simplicity of tone. The pundits were mainly poets by effort, critics by training, and hermits by temperament. They produced learned and correct dramas, but not living ones. They laid down a large number of rules for the construction of plays. There was no longer the old freedom of movement and beauty of style. The style grew artificial and the movement laboured. The Hindu drama went from bad to worse, till at last the old drama scintillating with beauty had declined into long, wooden, and uninspired effusions. Meantime, after the wave of Mussulman conquest had passed over the land and the people began to breathe again, and the conquerors and the conquered began to live together, the dramatic instincts of the people craved satisfaction, and a new species of

dramatic composition arose which strove only to be popular, which had forgotten the rich and noble traditions of the Sanskrit classical drama, and which had no higher ideal before it than to provide popular amusement. Thus there was a complete divorce between the popular drama and the learned drama, and the dramatic literature of the Hindus had fallen into a pitiable condition of inertness and decline.

It will be well to say a few words here about Indian dramatic criticism. We may say generally that in æsthetic criticism the Hindus reached a high level of excellence. There are numerous books on the subject of dramatic criticism. The *Dasarupaka* of Dhananjaya, the *Saraswathikantabharana* of Bhoja, *Kavya-prakasa* of Mammata, *Sahityadarpana* of Viswanatha, *Kavyadarsa* of Dandin, *Rasagangadhara* of Jagannatha and the *Pratapadriyam* are some of the best known works. In these, we have very learned discourses on the different kinds of dramatic entertainments, the conduct of the plot, the characters of dramas, the objects of dramatic representation, dramatic diction, and scenic apparatus. The charge brought against this dramatic criticism is that it stifled dramatic talent by its exacting a slavish obedience to its numerous arbitrary rules. The truth, however, is that dramatic talent declined more because the national energy was ebbing slowly owing to misrule and political decline, than through the difficulty of following the rules of rhetoricians, and that Hindu dramatic criticism has much that is beautiful and praiseworthy in it.

We shall now consider the subject and deal at length with four aspects of it. We shall consider first the differences and similarities between Shakespearean drama as the highest

XI

expression of Western dramatic genius, and the Sanskrit classical drama; we shall then dwell on the modern popular theatre and its defects; we shall then consider the trend of dramatic effort at the present day in consequence of our contact with the works of Western dramatists; and finally, we shall try to understand the chief lessons from a study of Shakespeare, which will help us in forming a new dramatic literature of power and beauty.

In considering the first question, the points of similarity and difference between Shakespeare as a representative dramatist of the West and the Sanskrit classical drama, we shall deal with it under five heads, weaving into this part of the essay some account of the ideas of Sanskrit rhetoricians about the ideals of dramatic literature and the elements of a good play. These five heads are, dramatic ideals, dramatic method, dramatic style, the construction of the play, and stage accessories.

Dealing with dramatic ideals, one thing requires prominent mention. There is a wide gulf of difference between the classical drama and the modern romantic drama. The Greek ideal was a life according to Nature, a balanced mind that accepts life as it is, an artistic perception of the beauties of external nature; the Greeks had little perception of

a tone

Of some world far from ours
Where music and moonlight and feeling
are one.

and The light that never was on sea or land,
The consecration and the poet's dream.

But the Christian religion introduced a new element into the West. As Schlegel says: "The very reverse is the case with the Christian view; everything finite and mortal is lost in the contemplation of infinity; life has become shadow and darkness, and the first day of our real existence dawns in the world beyond the

grave." Also, "The Grecian ideal of human nature was perfect unison and proportion between all the powers, a natural harmony. The moderns, on the contrary, have arrived at the consciousness of an internal discord which renders such an ideal impossible; and hence the endeavour of their poetry is to reconcile these two worlds between which we find ourselves divided, and to blend them indissolubly together. The impressions of the senses are to be hallowed, as it were, by a mysterious connection with higher feelings; and the soul on the other hand, embodies its forebodings as indescribable intuitions of infinity in types and symbols borrowed from the physical world." Matthew Arnold points out in a very interesting essay in his *Essays in Criticism* how paganism took the world by its outward, sensible side, while Christianity admitted the whole world all alike, but all transfigured by the power of a spiritual emotion, all brought under a law of supersensual love having its seat in the soul. In this respect we can see what kinship exists between the Christian and Hindu ideals of life, in the contempt for mere pleasure, the regard for life only as a door to salvation, and the respect for the higher emotions which characterise both. There is also another distinction between classical and romantic imagination. In a striking sentence in his *Literary Studies* Bagehot says: "The characteristic of the classical literature is the simplicity with which the imagination appears in it; that of modern literature is the profusion with which the most various adornments of the accessory fancy are lavished upon it." We shall see, on a careful study of Sanskrit dramatic literature, how these two characteristics by which the modern romantic drama is distinguished from the classical drama are present in the Sanskrit drama. The Sanskrit dramatists regard passion as something symbolical, as a memory of ante-

natal union, as something spiritual. We can see how this spirit breathes through that wonderful stanza of Kalidasa,

రమ్యాశీషీక్ష్మమధురాంశ్య నిశమ్యశబ్దాన్
పర్యత్సుకోఢపతి యత్సభితోపి జంకుః॥
తదేతస్సాస్త్రరతిహాసమబోధ త్పూర్వం
భావస్థిరాశీ జననాంతర సామృదాని॥

(The reason why even a happy man is filled with a vague longing and melancholy when he sees lovely things and hears harmonious sounds is that he remembers, without clearly realising, antenatal love and passion which remain fixed in the soul without rising to the surface of consciousness). Also, in the descriptions of the emotions, and of natural phenomena, there is a warmth of colouring and a profusion of adornment due to the work of the 'accessory fancy' which are absent in the classical drama and which are so prominent in the modern romantic drama, and especially in Shakespeare. Kalidasa's forest scenes in *Sakuntala*, no less than the forest scenes in the immortal *As you like it*, have these characteristics in a pre-eminent degree. One other feature in which the Sanskrit drama resembles the Shakespearean drama, and differs from the classical drama is the absence in it of any distinction between tragedy and comedy. As Schlegel observes:—"To the English and Spanish drama, the terms tragedy and comedy are wholly inapplicable in the sense in which they were employed by the ancients." The English and Spanish dramatists 'mix seriousness and sorrow with levity and laughter.' Also, the nature of the dramatic art as conceived by the Sanskrit dramatists is similar to that in the West. The similarity of the definitions of the drama in the East and in the West is very striking. Ward, one of the most recent of dramatic

critics, defines a drama thus: 'Dramatic literature is that form of composition which accommodates itself to the demands of an art whose method is imitation in the way of action.' A play has been defined by the Hindu rhetoricians as a poem that is to be seen or a poem that is to be seen and heard. But in spite of these points of kinship between the Sanskrit drama and Shakespearean drama in regard to dramatic ideals, there are points of difference also. The range of emotion allowed in Sanskrit dramas is limited; it is not as wide as life itself. Shakespeare's conception about the scope of his art is stated in those immortal lines:—"To hold, as it were, the mirror up to nature, to show virtue her own feature, scorn her image, and the very age and body of the time his form and pressure." (Hamlet, Act III, Scene 2). But the Sanskrit dramatists felt bound by their traditions and by the rules of dramatic composition to limit themselves to a prescribed range of emotions. Rules are laid down as to who should be the *Nayakas* and *Nayikas*, or heroes and heroines, what should be the *Bhavas* or sentiments and emotions which should be described, what things alone could be represented on the stage. *Nayakas* or heroes are classified into *Lalita*, gay, graceful, and good-humoured; *Santa*, gentle and virtuous; *Dhrodatta*, high-spirited and magnanimous and *Udatta*, courageous and ambitious. The dramatist should make the hero consistent with himself, and not give him qualities not in consonance with his nature. *Nayikas* are *Svakiya* or the wife of an individual himself; *Parakiya*, or the wife or daughter of another; or *Samanya*, or one who is independent. As regards the objects of dramatic representation, it is laid down that they must be the *Rasas*, which are the effects of *Bhavas* or mental and physical

conditions. These *Bhavas* are divided into *Shayibhavas*, or permanent conditions, and *Vyabhicharibhavas* or, fleeting conditions, and about these divisions there is a voluminous body of subtle and interesting writing in our Sanskrit hand-books of rhetoric. The *Rasas* are *Stringara* or love; *Vira* or heroism; *Bibhat-sa* or disgust; *Raudra* or furious passion; *Hasya* or mirth; *Adbhuta* or the expression of the marvellous; *Bhayanaka* or the expression of the terrible; *Karuna* or tenderness and pity; *Santa* or calmness. This last is seldom aimed at, because the true function of the drama is the portrayal of the soul in action. Also, there are numerous rules as to what should not be represented on the stage. As MacDonnell says: "Indeed nothing considered indecorous, whether of a serious or comic character, is allowed to be enacted in the sight or hearing of the spectators". Again, the Hindus have no tragedy at all. This one fact disposes of the old theory that tragedy always preceded comedy 'because in the infancy of society stronger passions predominated, and it was not till social intercourse was complicated and refined, that the follies and frivolities of mankind afforded material for satire.' This is wrong for the simple reason that a society must advance considerably in civilisation and refinement before there can be any species of dramatic composition. In India the dramatists and rhetoricians set their faces against a tragic conclusion to a dramatic narrative. This is a serious defect. As the great Greek critic said: 'Tragedy purifies the affections of human nature by the influence of pity and terror'; and we can see what a grand power for good it is in the hands of a master like Shakespeare. Though the Sanskrit critics of the dramatic art differentiated between various species of dramatic composition, and divided them into ten *Rupakas*

and eighteen Uparupakas, yet they had no place in their theory of the dramatic art for the noblest form of composition—the tragedy. Again, that wonderful series of historical dramas, which was the most glorious expression of the deep feeling of patriotism which thrilled the English people in the Elizabethan age, and which is still one of the most powerful inspirers of patriotic feeling in the minds of Englishmen and acts as a trumpet-call inspiring them to noble acts of heroism and self sacrifice in the cause of their beloved country, has no parallel in the dramatic literature of India. The cause is not far to seek. We have not had till now that pride of race, and that faith in the country's glorious destinies that have always characterised Englishmen, and are the real causes of the unexampled greatness of English civilisation. Another point of difference is that in Shakespeare there is what Matthew Arnold calls 'high seriousness,' a poetic criticism of life, in spite of his apparent attention to the plot alone. As Gervinus says: "The interest in moral and psychological truth is always higher with him, than the interest in outer æsthetic beauty." This poetic criticism of life is not so consciously aimed at in Sanskrit dramas as in Shakespeare, and they seem to care more for the plot and outer æsthetic beauty than for moral and psychological truth. Again, Shakespeare's ideal was *imitation*, and not *idealization*. The ideal element in him lies in the diction, the representation, in the unity of composition, in his characters (especially in the delineations of womanhood). But in Indian dramas, the realistic element is in the background, and has not the same prominent position as in Shakespeare. One fact that requires mention in this connection is that, compared with the Greek, and the modern romantic drama, Nature occupies a much more important place

in the Sanskrit drama. Not only does it abound in descriptions of Nature, but it represents the characters as being in constant communion with it. This adds to the beauty and ideal character of the Sanskrit drama, and is the crowning grace in the idyllic beauty of *Sakuntala*. While on the question of dramatic ideals, it may be pointed out that the Indian conception of womanhood as can be understood from a study of the noblest specimens of Indian dramatic art is ideal and noble like that of Shakespeare, and free from the licence which disfigured all the Restoration drama, and from the disgusting realism that is so characteristic of many modern plays. In fact, the *parakiya* or the wife of another is not to be made the wife of a dramatic intrigue: 'a prohibition,' Wilson adds, 'that would have sadly cooled the imagination and curbed the wit of Dryden and Congreve.' Wilson says further, "The loose gallantry of modern comedy is unknown to the Hindus, and they are equally strangers to the professed adoration of chivalric poetry; but their passion is neither tame nor undignified. It is sufficiently impassioned to degrade the object of the passion; while at the same time, the place that woman holds in society is too rationally defined for her to assume an influence foreign to her nature, and the estimation in which human life is held is too humble for a writer to elevate any mortal to the honours of divinity." Also, he says: "The love of the Hindus is less sensual than that of the Greek or Latin comedy and less metaphysical than that of French or English tragedy."

Now, proceeding to consider the second head of the first question, viz., the dramatic method, the first thing to be considered is the subject of the Unities, namely, the Unity of Time, the Unity of Place and the Unity of

Action. Shakespeare neglected the first two unities, and cared only for the unity of action; and even in regard to this, he invented a higher unity in conformity with the demand for more action in dramas than the Greeks allowed. In this respect the Sanskrit drama approximates to the Shakespearean drama. The unity of action is fully recognised. The unity of place is not mentioned at all, as may be very well expected from the utter absence of scenic embellishments in those times. In the Grecian theatre the decorations were of a substantial character, and so the scene could not be shifted and had to be the same throughout; but in India scenic effects were seldom attempted, and everything was left to the imagination. The unity of time is curiously modified, and "the time required for the fable elapses invariably between the acts." In practice the duration of an act is very commonly that of the representation, or at most "one course of the sun," the night elapsing in the interval between the acts. In one piece, the *Uttararamacharita*, no doubt we have a longer period, and twelve years are supposed to elapse between the first and the second acts. In Kalidasa's *Sakuntala* and *Vikramorvasiya* several years elapse between the first and the last acts. This was in consequence of the subjects of the plays, and affords a striking analogy to the license of the Romantic drama. A feature in which there was difference between the Shakespearean drama and the Sanskrit classical drama was the invariable presence in the latter of a prologue at the beginning of the play and the *Bharata-vakyam* at the end. The peculiarity of the prologue in Indian dramas is that the praises of the author are sung in it, and the subject of the drama is introduced to the audience; and the *Bharata-vakyam* is a benedictory stanza at the close of the play. "It (the pro-

logue resembles the prologue in ancient and modern times and accords with what have been termed the prologues of Euripides and those of Plautus." The *Faust* of Goethe affords a specimen of an induction at the present day, and it was expressly modelled on that of *Sakuntala*. As Wilson says: "In the Hindu theatre, however, the actors of the prelude were never more than two, the manager and one of his company, either an actor or an actress, and it differs from similar performances of other peoples by leading immediately into the business of the drama."

A short account may here be given of the method adopted by Sanskrit dramatists in developing the plot. The first Act or the *Ankumukha* corresponds to the prologue of the ancient theatre, and furnishes a clue to the whole story. The ensuing acts carry on the business of the story to its final development in the last. However, in Sanskrit dramas, the wonderful dramatic method of Shakespeare—each play consisting of the introduction, the growth, the climax, the fall or return of the action, and the close or catastrophe—is not pursued with equal clearness or success. Sanskrit dramatic criticism, however, has clear and definite rules on this point. The business of the piece, according to it, consists of five elements; the *Bija* or the circumstances out of which the business arises; the *Bindu* or the unintentional development of some secondary incidents which furnishes a clue to the event; *Pataka*, which means an episode; *Prakari*, an episodical incident in which the principal characters bear no part; *Karya* the object or the end. Again, the end of the business admits of five conditions: Beginning, promotion, hope of success, removal of obstacles, completion. The combinations of the incidents or the *Sandhis* by which an object is ultimately attained, are

also five: The *Mukha* or opening; the *Prathi mukha*, or secondary event, calculated to obstruct or promote the catastrophe; the *Garbha*, or the covert prosecution of one's purpose, apparently giving way to impediments, but in reality realising the original idea; *Vimarsha*, in which an effect is produced contrary to the intended cause, or a change in the course of the story by which expectation is baffled, and an unforeseen reverse ensues; the *Upasamhriti* or the denouement.

One prominent characteristic of Shakespeare's method is seen in Sanskrit dramatists also, namely, the absence of invention of the plot. They, like Shakespeare, were content to take the story from older sources, throwing their strength into weaving the incidents into a harmonious whole, and into the accurate portrayal of individual character. On the question of characterisation, the prominent Sanskrit dramatists resemble Shakespeare in that they vitalise their characters—in that they make them living and breathing men and women as well as representatives of permanent phases of human nature, and not mere wooden, lifeless types. Sakuntala is a living, breathing woman, quite as much as Miranda and Desdemona; and is at the same time typical of meek and beautiful womanhood. In considering this method of characterisation as employed by Shakespeare, Ulrici says: "The greatness and peculiarity of Shakespeare's genius is manifested in the fact that without passing beyond the limits of individuality, without in the slightest degree idealizing the special figures—in other words, in spite of the sharpest and fullest individualization of his characters, he nevertheless contrives to give the whole an *ideal* and *generally applicable* significance." The greatness of this method is clearly seen only when

we contrast it with that of Ben Jonson, who sets forth special features of character, or that of Moliere, who paints only types. In this respect the Sanskrit dramatists adopted the right method, and though the range of passion they allowed themselves the freedom of expressing is limited, and though there is often a good deal of conventionality in the expression of passion, the result is that we have a striking gallery of figures in the Sanskrit dramas of the best type. Another striking characteristic of the Shakespearean dramatic method, namely, the presence of comic and serious elements in the same play, appears in Sanskrit dramatists also. The classical drama set its face against such putting together of serious and comic elements in the same play. But Shakespeare's unerring dramatic instinct rightly led him to mingle comic with tragic elements, because he wanted a play to be a picture of human life, and in life tragedy and comedy exist side by side. In Sanskrit dramas, however, there is not the same happy fusion of comic and tragic elements that there is in Shakespeare. We have the *Vita* and the *Vidushaka*, the parasite and the fool, but what a difference there is between the fool of the Sanskrit drama and the fool of Shakespeare! The former is a person who utters funny remarks which have no connection with the story and is fond of good living and ease. The latter contributes to the progress of the action and is admirably portrayed. Again, like Shakespeare, the Sanskrit dramatists introduced romantic and fabulous incidents into their plays, and for this the rich mythology and folklore of India afforded ample material. Also, there is one very important feature in which Shakespeare's art differed from the classical drama, and resembled the Sanskrit classical drama, and this is the weaving in of a secondary action along

with the main action. While Aristotle laid stress on unity of action, Shakespeare cared more for unity of character, and to achieve this higher unity, he allowed himself the freedom of combining several actions, while the classical drama insisted on a single action. But in this respect he has attained supreme success while in most Sanskrit dramas, there is not the same harmony between the two actions. MacDonnell says: "Common to both (Shakespearean drama and the Sanskrit drama) are also several contrivances intended to further the action of the drama such as the writing of letters, the introduction of a play within a play, the restoration of the dead to life, and the use of intoxication on the stage as a humorous device." In regard to Shakespeare's dramatic method in comedy there is one feature in which the Sanskrit dramatists resemble him, and one feature in which they differ from him. His wit is unlike the wit of the Sanskrit dramatists and takes the higher form of humour. As Coleridge says: "His wit is produced not by a combination of words, but by a combination of images." In fact, Sanskrit farces descend to very low depths of coarseness and have no refinement at all. In the tragi-comedies the wit lies in the words and acts of the *Vidushaka* and is not of a high order. The feature in which they resemble is that the comedy in both cases is not the comedy of manners or of character, but the comedy of incident. The comedies are romantic comedies in the widest sense of the term, that is to say, "they treat of subjects far away from the ordinary course of human experience, they range into domains which the power of the dramatist alone can bring into living relation with the mind of the spectator, in which he alone can make the reader at home, as the poet is at home there

himself." Another feature in which the Sanskrit drama differs from Shakespeare's is its inclusion of conventional descriptions of sunset and sunrise. These are mere purple patches and not organic portions of the plays. How different from Shakespeare's, which are so transcendently beautiful in themselves, and yet spring so naturally from the narrative itself! Again, in the handling of the supernatural, there is a supreme beauty in Shakespeare which is seen nowhere else, and which is peculiarly lacking in Sanskrit dramas. In the latter, we find supernatural figures, but there is very little supernatural about them because they are not vitalised by the imagination.

Coming now to the third head of the first question namely dramatic style, it must be said that the style of Shakespeare has a richness and variety, and a harmony with the subject of the play that are foreign to the Sanskrit drama; also, there is not the same successful attempt in the latter at suiting the style to the character that we find in Shakespeare. Sanskrit dramatic criticism says that there are four *Vrittis* or styles of dramatic composition, namely, *Kausiki*, which is appropriate to *Sringara* or love; *Sattwati*, which is appropriate to *Vira rasa* or heroism; *Aribhati* which is appropriate to *Raudra rasa* or furious passion; and *Bharati*, which is common to all. The first three chiefly concern the incidents and the situation, the last concerns the dialogue, and means merely appropriate and elegant language. There are two features in which the Sanskrit drama resembles the Shakespearean drama and differs from the classical drama in the matter of dramatic style. First, it has a complex beauty and profusion of ornament foreign to the Greek drama. Secondly, prose and verse are mixed together. In Greece, the exigencies of the theatre made

it necessary that the human voice should be unnaturally and unmusically strained, and hence the introduction of the recitative for making "pleasantly artificial the distortion of the face and the straining of the voice occasioned by the magnitude of the building." The ordinary business dialogue of the Hindu drama is for the greater part in prose, but reflection or description and the poetical flights of the author were in verse. Wilson says: "It is impossible to conceive of language so beautifully musical or so magnificently grand as that of many of the verses of Bhavabhuti or Kalidasa." Sanskrit is spoken by heroes, kings, Brahmins, and men of high rank; Prakrit, by women and inferior characters. Two other noteworthy points are that funs and comic distortions of words and lyrical passages occur frequently in Sanskrit dramas, as they do in Shakespeare.

Proceeding to consider the fourth branch of the first question, namely, the construction of the play, one chief characteristic of Sanskrit plays is their great length. Shakespeare's plays are much longer than the Greek plays, and Sanskrit plays are much longer than Shakespeare's plays. There is not in them the same swift movement as there is in the Shakespearean drama. Also, his consummate skill in arranging the story and developing it, and the way in which scene after scene contributes to the progress of the action are wanting in Sanskrit literature. The Vishkambhaka and Pravesaka seem to be similar to the Greek chorus. They are members of the theatrical company, who may be supposed to sit by, and on any interruption in the regular course of the narrative, explain to the audience its cause and object. These are but clumsy contrivances, and Shakespearean drama is immensely superior to the Sanskrit drama in this respect.

Coming now to the last head of the first question, viz., the stage accessories, it must be said that in representations of Sanskrit plays there was little attempt at correctness of costume and scenic effects. MacDonnell says: "The stage scenery and decorations were of a very simple order, much being left to the imagination of the spectator as in the Shakespearean drama." One matter in which the Sanskrit drama had an element of superiority to the Western drama is that there was a more intimate connection between the drama on the one hand, and music and dancing on the other, than was the case in the Shakespearean drama.

We shall now deal with the popular drama. It is not necessary for us to consider here the ruder forms of dramatic entertainment that have survived to the present day, the Bommalattam or the representation of a story by means of wooden figures which appear on the stage while a person manipulates them from behind a screen, and recites the dialogue; the Canarese Kalika, and the Malayalam Kathakali and Sakiyarkoothu. These are straggling survivals from a remote past, and despite the attempts made to call to their aid modern decorations and make them rivals of the regular drama, they can never aspire to rise to the realm of the fine arts. As for the modern popular drama, it must be said that the great defect of the modern plays that are enacted is that they are amorphous; the story is narrated in a haphazard fashion; the dialogue is conducted anyhow; there is no attempt at an artistic development of the plot, at a careful delineation of character; in short they have neither literary merit nor acting value. Another defect in them is that there is no good dialogue at all; the actors utter a few words, and break off into songs, and sel-

dom care to suit the tone to the feeling sought to be expressed. It is well-known that actors and actresses who are high in popular estimation are unable to express the sentiments in appropriate language, and utter a few words in a halting and helpless fashion, and with an air of relief break off into songs, which help them to cover the triteness of the sentiments and the imbecility of the language in a flowing drapery of harmonious sound. As for the songs, their literary quality is nil, and they are sung in any tune the actor pleases. A third defect is that refinement of feeling and expression is conspicuous by its absence. The popular drama simply reeks with indelicacy in conception and lewdness in expression. This is an inevitable state of things. The actors come mainly from the dregs of the community and have no reputation to lose. They strut about on the stage for an hour, and the rest of their time is spent in taverns and brothels. What can be expected of them, but filthiness of conception and expression? How can prostitutes and gay Lotharios rise to a conception of the dignity of human nature and inspire the audience with a noble sympathy for the higher side of human life? The condition of the stage seems to be more or less the same all over India. In Bengal people have not been wanting who declare that the playhouses should be closed, not because they are puritans and object to popular amusements, but because the plays degrade and vulgarise the people. Again, as for the acting, the less said about it the better. The actors seem to think that it would be enough if they trust to their natural abilities. They saw the air with their arms; they stand in all sorts of attitudes. Actors without action are a pitiable spectacle, and even the stars of

XI

the popular theatre have absolutely no conception of proper action. Till recently, there was no attempt at scenic effects even, but late there has been considerable improvement in this respect. Again, there is absolutely no attempt at a fusion of the comic and serious elements in a play. The buffoon comes and tumbles on the stage, fires off stale witticisms at everything and everybody, and disappears. He is no portion of the story of the drama. One is tempted to weep at the comic, and laugh at the tragic parts of a play. Such plays as *Indrasabha* and *Dambacharivilasam* are the despair of people who wish to improve the theatre and reform the public taste. When one thinks of the beauty of our ancient drama and the vulgarity and ugliness of the modern popular dramas, one cannot but grieve for our departed dramatic genius and cry out:

"I know not where is that Promethean heat
That can thy light relume."

We shall now consider the trend of dramatic effort at the present day, the direction which the drama seems likely to move in consequence of the influence of the works of Western dramatists. Works like *Manonmaniya* of the late Mr. Sundaram Pillai though highly interesting, will not be a proper model for future dramatists. It is wanting in incidents, it is deficient in dialogue; and there is no power displayed in the delineation of character. A more noteworthy feature of the times is the springing into existence of amateur dramatic societies. These, deploring the depths of vulgarity to which the popular theatre has descended, have tried to improve the drama by introducing elements of beauty borrowed from the Western drama, and the Sanskrit classical drama, and by rejecting from the list of actors people who are of low morals and who have not the advantages of culture and artistic sense which can exist on

among the higher classes of society. In this respect they have done very noble work. Among them the Suguna Vilasa Sabha deserves prominent mention. It has tried to purify and better the popular taste by acting dramas free from those miserable defects that disgrace the popular theatre, and to encourage the writing of dramas which are true to the best traditions of the Sanskrit classical drama, while introducing elements of beauty suggested by a careful study of the best dramas of the West. For this, for all the noble work done by it, it deserves the lasting gratitude of the country. The greatness of the work comes home to us with all the greater force when we recognise the lamentable fact that love of learning and the fine arts, for which we were once so deservedly famous throughout the world, is now departing from among us, and that 'getting and spending we lay waste our powers.' The members of the Suguna Vilasa Sabha have paid special attention to scenic effects and have achieved wonderful success in this direction. They have removed from stage-music its crying defect—lewdness, and raised it to its legitimate position. They have aimed diligently at appropriateness of costume and attained a high level of excellence therein. Of course, they have much to learn yet, in regard to acting and dramatic composition. But the progress made till now justifies us in expecting great things from them. As regards the modern Parsi theatre, it depends for its effects mainly on scenic beauty, and music, and is confined to the staging of operas. It is a beautiful thing in itself, but it will have no effect on the development of the regular drama in India.

We shall now consider what are the chief lessons from a study of Shakespeare, which will help us in forming a new national drama-

tic literature of power and beauty. The first lesson is, that the Indian drama must widen its range of emotion, must go to life and nature for its material, and refuse to be bound by the innumerable rules as to who alone should be heroes and heroines, and what sentiments alone should be expressed. All art is a creative interpretation of life, and poetry is a creative interpretation of life expressed in emotional and rhythmical language. Dramatic poetry differs from other kinds of poetry in that its method is interpretation of life by means of action. "The world is all before him where to choose" and the dramatist must cast off shackles forged in ancient days, which impede his natural freedom of movement. The second lesson is that we must aim at producing tragedies. It is a serious defect of Indian dramatic criticism that it refused to allow the writing of tragedies. The Greeks, who had an unerring instinct in matters of art, paid great attention to the production of tragedies. They rightly eulogised tragedy as "purifying the affections of human nature by the influence of pity and terror." It deals with the profoundest problems of life from a dramatic and æsthetic point of view, and elevates and chastens the mind. Again, a third lesson is that we must aim at greater truth to Nature. In ancient and modern Indian dramas, the dramatists were often the slaves of conventions; the stilted language, the hollow sentiment, and the fustian style that give a painful shock to us every now and then were due to the fact that the dramatists felt they must write in that fashion to entitle them to be accepted as dramatists. The advice to dramatists should be that described by Sir Philip Sidney as having been given to him by Nature: "Look in thy heart and write." Coming to dramatic method, there are many valuable lessons. First, as regards

characterisation, more attention should be paid to consistency and truth in the delineation of character than is paid now. No doubt there are many wonderful creations in the works of our older dramatists, but in later productions and in modern adaptations, I find that the author has his eye only on the progress of the story and not on characterisation. No doubt in all dramas there should be the interest of plot; but that by which the dramatist is peculiarly himself is his ability to achieve interest of character and interest of passion. These cannot be achieved without a vigorous conception of character and insight into the workings of the human heart. The Western drama has now degenerated largely into an auxiliary of the scenic artist; it has become an accessory, and not the principal, element in dramatic representation. As Archer says: "No theatre can be in a really healthy state in which acting entirely out-distances authorship." One may say that the evolution of the drama in the West has been from plays neither readable noractable to plays both readable andactable, and from these to plays which areactable, but certainly unreadable. Dramatists are not wanting now, but though their name is legion, their merits are nil. Interest of plot is the only thing they care for; subjects are chosen from far off climes to dazzle the audience by strangeness of dress and scenery; the old greatness of the drama is utterly gone never to return. This is a state of things which we should try our best to avoid. Secondly, in regard to the development of the plot, we must imitate with care the method of Shakespeare. We must remember that every action has its growth, height, return or consequences, and close. Shakespeare's drama represents in an organic sequence the five stages of which a complete

action consists and which are essential to it: (1) the introduction or exposition, (2) the growth, (3) the climax, (4) the fall or return of the action, (5) the close or catastrophe. If a dramatist has a central idea and tries to develop it in this manner he is bound to achieve success. Thirdly, in regard to the fusion of comic and serious elements in a play, we must sit at the feet of Shakespeare and learn the secret which he had of so fusing them as to produce a harmonious whole. Though our dramatists have always put together serious and comic elements, they have never consciously striven to fuse them together, and they have never attained that wonderful measure of success which Shakespeare alone attained. Next, in regard to the second action, which Shakespeare introduced along with his main action, and developed in such a way as to heighten the effect of the latter and yet possess a beauty of its own, we must learn his method and adopt it. The element of a second and subsidiary action has long been present among us, but it was generally disjointed and out of tune with the main action. If we are able to catch the secret of the Shakespearean method in this respect, we can add greatly to the beauty and interest of our plays. Coming now to dramatic style, the most important lesson that we must learn is that the dialogue is the soul of a play, and that it must be suited to the sentiment. It has degenerated much in modern compositions, and the mischievous traditions of the modern popular theatre in the matter of substituting songs for dialogue have been fatal to the progress of the drama. In this direction there is vast room for improvement, and there is no greater model for us to follow than Shakespeare. The language of his plays is not only beautiful by itself, but the speech

put into the mouth of each character is appropriate to him, and contributes to the progress of the story. In Sanskrit classical drama, the dialogue is expressed in elegant and appropriate language, but there is not the stamp of inevitableness which there is in the speeches of Shakespeare's characters. As for the modern Indian dramas, the tradition of diluting dialogue with songs has had a most mischievous effect. Songs when freely indulged in have a tendency to divert the mind from the thought, and are fatal to excellence of dialogue, and beautiful delineation of character. We must improve our dramas to a large extent in this direction. With regard to the construction of the play, we must learn from Shakespeare his consummate skill in arranging the story and developing it, and the manner in which scene after scene contributes to the progress of the action. Our old dramatists resorted to clumsy contrivances for narrating those parts of the story which they were not able to develop by means of the dialogue. The modern Indian dramatists are no better, and must learn that unerring skill which seizes upon the dramatic situations and describes them in such a way as to make them dramatically effective, and at the same time has an accurate perception of what are known as 'the architectonics of a play' of the relation of the parts to the whole, and of the method by which an artistically faultless dramatic composition might be written. It may be mentioned in this connection that, though scenic effects and appropriateness of costume have attained a high level of excellence, sufficient attention is not paid to the actor's function of interpreting the meaning of the dramatist by look, tone and gesture, which alone can fully bring out the secret that lies hid in a speech. Of course we have

not had those noble traditions which the West has now. But by carefully attending to the methods of the best actors of the West and trying to realise the true function of an actor, we can achieve wonderful results.

In conclusion, it must be pointed out that, though we have been hitherto considering the directions in which changes should be made in regard to the drama, we should remember the wonderful richness of our literary inheritance. A dramatic literature, which has as its greatest names Kalidasa and Bhavabhuti, need not hide its diminished head before any literature in the world. Ours is a land where some of the greatest dramatic geniuses of all time lived and shed their lustre on the whole world, and though now, through the operation of causes over which we had no control, the brilliance of our dramatic genius is under eclipse, and we have declined from our position of leadership, we feel sure that we are destined to rise to far loftier heights of dramatic production than have been reached till now, through a loving and appreciative contemplation of the elements of beauty that are present in our Sanskrit classical drama, and of the perfection attained by the greatest dramatic genius of the world.

CHAOS AND CONTRADICTION

IN PRESENT-DAY EDUCATIONAL THOUGHT.

At the Evening Meeting of the members of the College of Preceptors on May 17, Mr. James Wilson, M.A., in the Chair, Mr. F. H. Hayward, D. Lit., M.A., B.Sc., F.C.P., read a paper on "Chaos and Contradiction in Present-Day Educational Thought." He said:

NO RECOGNIZED AUTHORITY.

The main point which I would enforce and illustrate in this paper is that there is in Britain

no such thing existent as recognized authority on matters of educational doctrine. That chaos and conflict which, prevailing among Protestant sects, is regarded by themselves as a sign of energy and vitality, and by Catholics as a sign of fundamental error, certainly flourishes in the rankest luxuriance among educationists. It seems to resolve itself not always into mere difference of emphasis, but quite frequently into absolute difference of standpoint.

I shall have but little time in the present paper for general reflections. But I venture on the remark, here and now, that the way out of our difficulty is not "less theory," but "more theory." At present our teachers distrust the name, and with very good reason. But ultimately theory will unify—or, at least, help to unify—educational thought. It will not make good teachers out of hopeless teachers; but it will help all teachers to see a new significance in their work.

MEDICAL PETITION.—COMMERCIAL PRESCRIPTION.

I now proceed to the first on my list of present-day contradictions. It is taken from an episode which is, doubtless, within the recollection of you all. Fifteen thousand medical men petitioned the Board of Education to introduce the teaching of hygiene and temperance into primary schools. So far, so good; though there is something a little surprising—if surprise is permissible in educational affairs—in the fact of such a recommendation coming from outside the school itself. But surprise gives way to amazement when we hear of the supplementary suggestion.

Coming fresh from their vivisectional failures, the doctors proceed to tell us, the teachers and masters of this country, what subjects we should leave out in order to make room for hygiene and temperance. For some occult reason they decided on the omission or subordination of history and geography; or perhaps one may more correctly say the lot fell upon those hapless subjects, which, accordingly, were cast overboard like Jonah. But history and geography, like Jonah, were not yet done with; a great and benevolent fish ap-

peared in the form of the Associated Chambers of Commerce. Sir Albert Rollit, within a few weeks of the presentation of the medical petition, had to prescribe for English schools; and his prescription was—a more careful teaching of history and geography. Thus medical men were recommending for schools the omission of the very subjects which commercial men were strongly urging. Surely, if we teachers had clear views on educational matters, some definite sense of educational values, and, above all, some show of authority with regard to the educational affairs of the nation, we should have the right to tell medical men, commercial men, military men, and all other non-educators, to mind their own business before minding ours.

PROF. ARMSTRONG v. PRESIDENT STANLEY HALL.

Unfortunately, however, Chaos and Contradiction prevail among professional educationists themselves. Take two distinguished men like Prof. Armstrong of England and Prof. Stanley Hall of America. The former is closely identified with the proposals for the teaching of elementary science issued by the British Association. What is the sum and substance of those proposals? To make our teaching exact and quantitative; to base it on measurement. But there comes Dr. Stanley Hall, the great leader of the American "child-study" movement, an educator who says equally hard things with Dr. Armstrong about the inefficiency of science teaching, but prescribes a precisely opposite remedy. Listen to his words, and remember that he is condemning in America the very thing that Prof. Armstrong is advocating in England. "The half-score of text-books in physics I have glanced over," says Dr. Hall, "seem essentially quantitative, require great exactness, and are largely devoted to precise measurements, with too much and too early insistence on mathematics. . . . The normal boy in the teens is essentially in the popular science age. He wants and needs great wholes, facts in profusion, but few formulae."

FOR AND AGAINST "FACTS."

Dr. Stanley Hall, in the great work on "Adolescence" from which I have just been quoting, has suggested other contradictions. "Boys," he tells us, need "facts in profusion." Now this is a very interesting confession, because there is a dead set against the giving of "facts," "information," or "mere knowledge" made by sundry gentlemen, who, seeing clearly enough that the time is educationally out of joint, esteem themselves, like Hamlet, born to set it right. For example, there is Mr. Harold Gorst, who possesses the double distinction of being the son of Sir John Gorst and the father of a book called "The Curse of Education." Now this book, which is appearing on railway bookstalls, along with "Dr. Nikola" and "Sherlock Holmes," at the modest figure of sixpence, is simply a kind of Rousseau's "Emile," minus all the sparkle and plus a few additional fallacies. It represents educational reaction dressed in the garb of educational radicalism. Of course, the author runs down "facts" as vigorously as Mr. Gradgrind ran them up. On the first page he speaks of the British child being "stuffed"—a favourite and fine word, "stuffed"—with "six pounds of facts," the German and French child with "seven pounds"; and he recurs again and again to the expression. Mr. Gorst will therefore be interested—though, perhaps, also pained—to hear that Dr. Stanley Hall believes the normal boy to need "facts in profusion." What, too, will he think of the introduction of an examination paper on "general information" in connection with sundry examinations? The situation is ludicrous. Here, on the one side, are teachers and examining bodies discovering that pupils are frequently grossly ignorant of common necessary "facts," and, to remedy the evil, prescribing a paper on "general information"; here, on the other side, are platform orators and writers of books with sensational bookstall titles telling us that there is a surfeit of "facts" and "information."

The contrast is really sharply marked. I find

it, for example, in two gentlemen with whom I have been brought into slight personal contact. Sir Thomas Acland, whose name is known and honoured in the West Country, says that "the great purpose of education is not to accumulate facts, but to cultivate the powers of observation"; while ex-Prof. Laurie brings it as a complaint against mediæval education that the minds of the pupils did not receive "the nourishment of facts." Edward Thring, I need scarcely say, was another "fact" iconoclast, and so, I think, is his disciple, Prof. Armstrong. "Drawing out the powers of the mind," says the former, "is different from packing in dead facts, even when the packing is neatly done." Now it seems to me generally an extremely difficult task to discover what Edward Thring was really driving at; so, with regard to the words just quoted, I hesitate to express any amazement and disapproval, and venture merely to claim that the "neat packing in" of facts—in other words, the conferring of knowledge in accordance with the psychological laws of the mind—is surely a supremely important thing. Nay, I feel constrained to quote a fellow-Herbartian, if he will allow me to call him so—I mean Prof. Adams. On page 131 of his wonderfully lucid book, compared with which Edward Thring's three books seem a London fog variegated with fireworks, he says: "Since each new fact is acted upon by the facts which form part of the apperceiving soul, it follows that, the more the facts that have been organized into faculty, the more readily will the mind act." This, of course, is the invariable attitude of Herbartians, who, though they may differ among themselves upon many things, are not in the habit of joining the hue and cry against knowledge and instruction.

I could find other pairs of writers whose views upon the "fact" question are in conflict. The late Mr. Quick's attitude was, on the whole, wise and moderate, and showed a striking absence of that one-sidedness and partisanship which are so often identified with the work of our present-day "educational reformers." But in one

place he has a tilt at what he calls "storing the pupil's memory with facts—facts about language, about history, about geography." On the other side may be adduced a quotation from the well-known work "Essays on a Liberal Education," which represented, forty years ago, all that was radical and progressive in secondary education. In this work we find Mr. Wilson, now Archdeacon Wilson, urging, in connection with the teaching of natural science, that "a certain broad array of facts must pre-exist before scientific methods can be applied."

DEFINE YOUR TERMS.

Of course, I do not mean to suggest that these contrasts of view are necessarily absolute and irreconcilable. Possibly the word "facts" varies somewhat in its meaning and use. But I do claim that such real or apparent contradictions as those I have adduced reveal something unsatisfactory in present-day educational thought. They show that we have not yet succeeded in hammering out any clear educational categories. Education appears to be in a state similar to that which, theologians tell us, preceded the formulation of dogma—a state in which orthodoxy and heterodoxy, apostolical tradition and wild heresy existed side by side undifferentiated. It is because, as it seems to me, Herbart is pre-eminently clear that he is so valuable to us at the present time. If only men of Thring's calibre or of Dr. Laurie's calibre possessed both the definiteness of standpoint and the categorical lucidity of Herbart, educational thought in this country would be in a different state from what it is. However, this is not the moment for such general reflections. I hasten to add that certain educationists use precisely similar language about "knowledge" and "information" that others use about "facts." This is not surprising, as "facts," "knowledge," and "information" mean, I suppose, much the same thing. Prof. Armstrong tells us that "mere knowledge counts for very little," as if there were any "mere" knowledge, as if all knowledge did not possess, as the Herbartians contend, the possibilities of apperceptive energy, and as if

Spencer himself had not declared: "Knowledge is turned into faculty as soon as it is taken in." In contrast to Prof. Armstrong's contention, I will again quote from "Essays on a Liberal Education." "In the education of the upper classes," says Mr. Wilson, "there is too little of positive and exact knowledge and too much of mere training and drill. We have too much distrusted the virtue of knowledge." Again, De Morgan's educational ideal, "to know every thing about something and something about everything," goes quite counter to the somewhat absurd attacks upon "knowledge" and "information," to which I have referred; while Sir Oliver Lodge's retort to Mr. Benson is in the same sense. "A master's business," Mr. Benson had said, "is to try to see that there is mental effort." "Not a bit of it," replied the Principal of Birmingham University. "A master's business is to supply proper pabulum."

"PROPER PABULUM."

It is plain from such quotations as these that the Herbartian objections to a purely formal or gymnastic ideal of education—objections put into a classical and, I venture to think, almost an immortal form in the fifth chapter of Prof. Adams's book—are very living and pertinent objections, aimed at real dangers. Many of our educationists, in their theoretical disquisitions seem to forget the need for what Sir Oliver Lodge calls "proper pabulum." Time was when the mind was compared to a sheet of paper on which the teacher had to impress certain marks; when societies were formed for the "diffusion" of information among the "working" or other classes; when men spoke of knowledge being "power," when ideas were supposed to come from without and to enter the mind and give it a content and a fullness; when Disraeli's words, "The duty of education is to give ideas," would have been regarded as sound sense and not dangerous heresy. Now all is changed. On every side is heard the voice of the educational prophet (if not the educational cheap-jack) assuring us that knowledge is

of little worth; that education is a process of drawing out and not of putting in; that training is more important than instruction; that the mind is not a *tabula rasa*, but a perpetual-motion machine. Educational philosophy is daily stressing more and more the efferent at the expense of the afferent, forgetting that the afferent may become the efferent, or that, in Spencer's words, "knowledge" may become "faculty." True, there are voices on the other side, but they do not so catch the popular ear—the ear of the Education Committee-man for example—as the voices depreciatory of knowledge.

FROEBEL v. HERBART.

And here I have a bone to pick with the followers of Froebel. It seems to me that the stress they lay upon the efferent side of mental life very easily lends itself to error and perversion. When Froebel said, "What can be put into a man is, properly speaking, *there already*," he uttered words which fill me with such amazement that, if I did not know how great Froebel really was, I should put him down for an educational madman in virtue of a declaration such as this. One remembers the words of Prof. James: "An adult man's interests are almost every one of them intensely artificial; they have slowly been built up." One remembers, too, that the Catholic Church and other Churches have always, rightly or wrongly, insisted on the early creation in the child's mind of certain apperception masses; and I know, from personal contact with people, how this factor profoundly modifies the whole mental structure.

We, Herbartians, are sometimes supposed to be educational revolutionists; at any rate, a Board of Education not usually regarded as violently republican or radical prescribes for teachers the study of Froebel in preference to the study of Herbart. But, ladies and gentlemen, if you will look into the question, you will find that Herbartianism is moderation, conservatism, even reaction, compared with the red, wild revolutionism patent or latent in the words of Froebel

just quoted: "What can be put into a man is, properly speaking, *there already*." The child, for Froebel as for Wordsworth, is "father of the man," an "eye among the blind," a "mighty prophet," a "seer blest," on whom surely, then, no sacramental hands need to be laid, and still less the nerveless or leprous hands of modern education.

Now I venture to say that, if the child is all this, and if doctrines such as these are sound educational truth, no Board of Education has the right to administer an Education Act whose essential principle seems to go wholly counter to Froebel's view. Priests—and even, in a sense, teachers—must alike stand aside, put off the shoes from off their feet, and (in a new sense) worship on holy ground at the shrine of a divine child. The Herbartian view—so conformable with the common and orthodox views of men—that the teacher is called upon to build *into* the mind of the child a structure which, though not foreign to that mind, is at least new to it—is a view, which, though it must ultimately be brought into harmony with the view of Froebel, confronts it at present in seemingly sharp contrast. "Seemingly," I say; for I cannot believe that the contrast is to be suffered to exist much longer. In Germany the Herbartians, according to the hostile words of an educational freethinker, have become "the most distinguished coadjutors in Church teaching, for their system gives religion the widest scope for bringing everything into her service." How little, in England, do the various parties recognize their true friends and their true enemies! It was not so very long ago that, with a shiver, I awakened to the consciousness that Herbartianism was a conservative force; and I fancy that many of the orthodox ladies who wax enthusiastic over Froebel will some day awaken, with a shiver, to the consciousness that Froebelianism is a foe to much that they regard as specially vital.

Some one will reply that Froebel never meant what he said when he used the words I have

quoted—just as some one else will presently tell me that one of Froebel's most eminent followers, Mr. W.H. Herford, does not really mean the words which I shall quote from him about "Nature." Somehow or other the Froebelians have a lax and easy-going way of using language, but it seems necessary to remind them that all fallacies cannot be transformed into facts by gushing over them or by quoting Wordsworth's "Ode." The late Mr. Quick tells us about a German teacher who, faced by the circumstance that his pupils were *gedankenlos*, found it necessary, before calling upon them to write an essay on a given subject, to present them with a large amount of material to write about; he found it necessary, in short, *viele einzupumpen*. For my own part, I sympathize sincerely with the German teacher, and am daily engaged in the same conscientious practice, despite the horrible things said by Edward Thring about "pumping" and the rest. I mention the point because, as it seems to me, Froebelians and others wholly ignore it; in fact, the question of the relation between the receptive and the active sides of mental life has never yet in England been seriously grappled with at all.

I have spent far more time than I wished in discussing—and discussing, I fear, in a very airy and inadequate fashion—this question of the relation between the innate and the receptive, the efferent and the afferent, the Froebelian and the Herbartian factor. The want of clear ideas upon this question seems to me at the root of many of our present-day contradictions. I will adduce a few more examples.

A CASE OF OPPOSITE INFERENCES.

I have already mentioned both Prof. Adams and Prof. Armstrong. In reading over their works I came across a reference in each to Sherlock Holmes, and was struck by the fact that the two educationists drew exactly opposite inferences from the skill and efficiency of the famous detective. Prof. Armstrong seems—I speak with caution—to trace that skill and efficiency to a process of mental discipline rather than to knowledge and apperceptive power, while Prof.

XI

Adams traces it to these latter. "Holmes's apperception mass," he says, "contained the German word *Rache*, which means 'revenge.' Holmes was right. Lestrade was *wrong*. But if it was not a matter of reasoning backwards or forwards: it was a matter of knowledge." And here let me say that any one who wishes to realize how enormous (superficially, at any rate) is the contrast between the only two orthodoxies that arouse any real educational enthusiasm—I mean Froebelianism and Herbartianism—had better read a chapter or two of Prof. Adams's book after imbibing a dose of "self-activity" and "drawing out" doctrine. He will then read such sentences as the following:—"We seem to find ideas exercising a power that is independent of the mind. . . . The kind of apperception masses in the mind really determines what kind of mind it is. . . . Ideas enter our minds in spite of us." It is no good mincing matters. The two standpoints are unreconciled by the educational thought of to-day, though I am far from thinking that they are irreconcilable.

MAKE CHILDREN THINK FOR THEMSELVES?

I pass on to another contradiction, though one that is, perhaps, ultimately traceable to the fluctuating views on the knowledge question to which reference has been made. Our pseudo-reformers assure us that the great thing necessary is to make children "think for themselves." Educationists, in fact, seem to be slowly, and perhaps unconsciously, separating into two camps—those who lay stress on power, skill, sharpness, efficiency, independence (including this capacity of "thinking for oneself"), and those who lay stress mainly on goodness, and in consequence, on giving to children what Matthew Arnold called an acquaintance with "the best that has been thought and said in the world." Education will never begin to progress in earnest until these views have been synthesized. However, waiving this wide question, I would quote, in reply to the much-in-evidence maxim that

teachers must make their pupils "think for themselves," the words of Mrs. Shelley relative to her own son: "Teach him to think for himself? O my God! Teach him to think like other people!"

BOOKS v. NATURE.

I have a second ground of controversy with the followers of Froebel; though in point of fact, my complaint is mainly against some of the unguarded expressions which they and others let fall. Mr. Gorst, and the educational crusaders who draw their inspiration from Froebelian and Pestalozzian sources, or rather, perhaps, in the long run from Rousseau, assure us that schools should be less "bookish." Now I need not give or discuss the reasons for the onslaughts of these men upon books; there is always a reason for an onslaught, and I would be the last to deny that premature devotion to literary work in schools has been a great evil, and that the fealties of Nature have a prior claim, though not a final claim, over the invented symbols, and even the recorded thoughts, of man. But I live in a country which, however attractive in many ways, stands in no need of any anti-book movement, and I therefore welcome the words of Mr. H. G. Wells: "The first and most universal function of the school is to initiate into the ampler world and the more efficient methods of the reading and writing man."

Froebelians may reply that they do not disparage books, they only object to their premature introduction into school. Well, Mr. W. H. Herford—a neighbour of mine on the shores of Tor Bay—is an exponent of Froebel. He assures us in a work which he edited two years ago that "one day we shall believe that all we truly know, the stuff of all real knowledge, we learn from Nature; all the rest—hearsay, rote knowledge—being *vox et praeterea nihil*." That is pretty strong, surely! Are, then, the rhapsodies of the Hebrew prophets, the "Republic" of Plato and the "Utopia" of Sir Thomas More products of "Nature" in any real sense? Strange to hear the

voice of Rousseau sounding in our ears after half a century of Darwin! Strange, I remark once again, that excellent and orthodox ladies do not see, what the theologians saw at the time, that Froebel's standpoint, when divested of gush and delusion, is revolutionary in the highest degree! My own views on "Nature" are far from definite, and, therefore, I do not wish dogmatically to assert that Froebel's mystical and symbolical way of contemplating her is wholly wrong; but I would urge that, in the course of evolution, latest developments are often the highest developments, and that books, in the words of Milton, "are not absolutely dead things, but do contain a progeny of life in them; . . . they do preserve as in a vial the purest efficacy and extraction of that living intellect that bred them. . . . A good book is the precious life blood of a master-spirit, embalmed and treasured up on purpose to a life beyond life." I prefer this to Wordsworth's stanza:

Books! 'tis a dull and endless strife:
Come, hear the woodland linnet,
How sweet his music! on my life,
There's more of wisdom in it.

Tastes differ, I suppose. I am certain, for my own part, that, if listening to the woodland linnet is an act of greater wisdom than the reading of certain books, the reason must be that the books in question contain trash unsurpassable anywhere except in the "Lyrical Ballads"

THOROUGHNESS?

Another interesting case of chaos and contradiction is concerned with the question of "thoroughness." Some writers make a great point of this. I heard a prominent West Country educationist, who had noted the comparative ineffectiveness of much of our present-day teaching, say that the multiplication of subjects was a grave peril, and urge the need of "thoroughness." But I turn to the pages of Edward Thring and I come across these words: "There is something so wise, so unanswerable, in

the modest yet firm requirement that the lessons must be done 'thoroughly,' and a boy not advance till he has mastered what he is doing, that the request commands assent at once. The fallacy is—*it cannot be done*." I do not attempt to adjudicate in this case; I merely point out that, while one earnest educationist urges the need of "thoroughness," another urges its impossibility.

THREE R's.—NAY, FOUR.

Another controversy rages over the "three R's." From the one side come complaints that we no longer teach the "three R's." so efficiently as in the good old times of forty or seventy years ago, when the curriculum was limited and unambitious, and troublesome "theorists" had not invaded our shores. But from another side comes, with the complaint that the teaching of the "Three R's" is necessarily a very mechanical business to a considerable extent, an exhortation to apply ourselves to a "fourth R"—namely, reasoning. Our pupils have not only to read, write, and reckon, but also to reason; this, in the opinion of Prof. Armstrong and of Sir William Collins, Chairman of the London Education Committee, is the "fourth R" which is so infinitely more important than the other three. To all which it may be replied that education will have to find a place both for the mechanical and for the rational, in the same way that it will have to find a place both for the receptive and the active factors to which reference has been previously made. All these exhortations to apply ourselves to a "fourth R" and the like are mere testimonies to the fact that we have at present no philosophy of education that possesses any authority.

CONFLICTING TEXT-BOOKS.

The next on my list of present-day contradictions is taken from a Board of Education syllabus. It is, no doubt, quite right to prescribe for teachers who have to take the Certificate Examination a number of famous educational books for study; but in the present state of educational

theory—or, rather, in the present absence of educational theory—there is some danger of teachers losing all respect for educational books. "How much," they say, "have we to accept, and how much to reject? How much of Herbert Spencer's book on Education is established truth, and how much is error?" Nobody, apparently, can say. I was struck, therefore, by the fact that for the Certificate Examination of 1906 Spencer and the two Arnolds were given as alternative subjects. Now, Spencer despised history and the classics, and laid chief stress on science; while the Arnolds despised science, and laid chief stress on history and the classics: at any rate, this statement is approximately true. Thus those teachers who study Spencer will imbibe exactly opposite principles from those imbibed by teachers who study the Arnolds.

"MERE MEMORY."

Certain of our reformers, not content with attacking "mere knowledge," "mere facts," "mere information," and the like, have some hard things to say against "mere memory." I remember a passage—a ludicrous passage, when you consider the question from all sides—in which Edward Thring spoke of how "secondary" a thing memory is. Could there have been a more unsuitable expression? Is not memory the most primary and indispensable of all mental functions? However, if you attend long enough to the utterances of educational cheap-jacks, you will be certain to come across an attack upon "memory," and then, perhaps, for change, you will look at the daily paper for January 7, 1905, and read, in the report of a teachers' conference, that Mr. Phene Spier laid stress on the importance of "cultivating the memory."

THEORIES OF ART TEACHING.

In the same report you will read that the Principal of the Birmingham Municipal School of Art spoke of the "great danger in the present system of trying to teach design in elementary schools." I speak with deference, because art is a department of work with which I am not very

familiar, but I do know that, if the encouragement of design is a wrong thing, then Froebel and all his followers are utterly mistaken, and another great educational delusion must be added to the historic list. I am told by art teachers that on the whole subject of art teaching there is complete chaos of view among Government examiners and others; some, in the spirit of Froebel, laying stress upon a kind of free and easy creativeness, others upon exact reproduction of objects and copies.

GRAMMAR v. HYGIENE.

For an unusually kaleidoscopic example of educational chaos I would refer you to the two dates, February 15, 1905, and February 17, 1905. It is not often that, in my exciting researches on educational chaos, I have come across an instance of one voice of authority unconsciously contradicting another within the space of three days. Such, however, is the present instance. Sir John E. Gorst, speaking on the King's Speech three months ago in the House of Commons, urged that, if the young mothers of the nation had less grammar and geography and a little more knowledge of hygienic questions, it would be better for the nation. Two days later I opened a West Country newspaper, and read how His Majesty's Inspectors were urging that, "in view of the difficulty experienced in secondary schools, pupil-teacher centres, and evening classes, owing to the lack of knowledge of English Grammar on the part of many of the pupils coming from elementary schools, all children in the standards should receive instruction in the elementary principles of grammar, and a certain minimum standard knowledge in this subject be expected of pupils in the higher standards."

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT.

I could add considerably to the list of contradictions already presented to you. Take, for example, the striking subject of corporal punishment, upon which much difference of opinion makes itself felt. I do not propose to argue the case for or against prohibition; but I would point

out that defenders of the practice—and I am one of them—are gravely divided as to the class of offences to which it is most suitably applied. Most Education Committees representing popular and empirical opinion seem to regard corporal punishment as legitimate only in the case of "grave moral offences." I could quote many rules issued upon this basis. But Edward Thring, in one of the wisest parts of his suggestive, though often perplexing, writings, argues at considerable length—and, I think, with success—that corporal punishment is specially *unsuitable* for moral offences, and should be used for purposes of external discipline only. Teachers who follow Edward Thring will have to disobey their rulers, and those who obey their rulers will have to go counter to the views of Edward Thring.

Again, I could quote both from Thring and from Dr. Laurie, as well as from other authorities, the recommendation that when corporal punishment is administered at all it should be administered in private. The Bristol Authorities, however, are of a different opinion, and say expressly that it should be administered "in front of the class or school."

CO-EDUCATION.

Again, questions like co-education are still absolutely unsettled, Dr. Stanley Hall, in his great work on "Adolescence," having pronounced an unfavourable verdict where a favourable one was expected.

ADMINISTRATIVE CONTRADICTIONS.

Of administrative contradictions there is legion. A distinguished educational administrator said to me that once on a time a candidate for an educational post presented himself before his Committee with fifteen advanced science certificates. "Needless to say," remarked the administrator, "he was not appointed." Yet I might call attention to the fact that at Bristol the unfortunate applicant would get £10 extra for every five such certificates, and I fancy that under the London Committee the more you have the better.

Again, practical experience of a very definite kind counts for much in certain educational walks of life, and its absence is fatal to an applicant; yet Arnold was appointed to Rugby, and many public school masters and many of His Majesty's Inspectors are appointed to their posts, with little or no such experience. Contrariwise, a knowledge of "theory" is supposed to be of priceless value in certain kinds of educational work; but woe to the man who doesn't know how to bottle up his stock of theory at the right moment!

THE REIGN OF CHAOS.

I must now begin to bring my remarks to an end. They have been numerous enough, I hope, to show that the testimony of Prof. Findlay and of Mr. H. G. Wells to the chaotic state of educational thought in England is true. The former says: "Our study of education is in its infancy"; the latter says: "There is nothing having any authority higher than individual opinion; nothing threshed out and permanently established. From one lecturer in education comes one assertion, and from another another, and the algebraic result is scarcely a matter for boasting."

HERBART TO THE FRONT.

Even on the question of the aim of education there is fundamental divergence of opinion, though there are a few signs that the Herbartian formula is coming increasingly into favour. I am by no means absolutely convinced that Herbart's "character-forming" formula and its implications are a perfectly and ultimately adequate solution to our difficulties, but I do claim that they are illuminating and unifying; they bring together so much; they link instruction with apperception, apperception with interest, interest with character; they put everything in a new, or at least a vivid, light; they knock on the head hoary old fallacies—such as that "virtue cannot be taught," that the mind can be exercised *in vacuo*, that training is distinct from instruction, that ideas are dead things, and that

education is merely a process of drawing-out similar to the conjurer's method of drawing eggs out of his own forehead. I believe, in short, that Herbart was the clearest and most constructive—though I do not say the most original—of all educationists, and that his way of regarding education would do much to remove the chaos that prevails both as to aims and as to methods. How great is that chaos! "The aim of education is to give ideas," says one authority, in language that would shock the Froebelians, who talk sometimes as if the educator can "give" nothing and must draw out everything. "The aim of education is to develop the powers of observation," says a second. There are scores of other formulæ ranging from "the harmonious development of all human powers"—Pestalozzi's favourite, though by no means his only one—to "efficiency," which appears to be Mr. H. G. Wells's.

Surrounded by chaos such as this I turn, not with blind devotion or with unreasoning depreciation of other writers, but nevertheless with some confidence, to the great work published just a hundred years ago. In the "Allgemeine Pädagogik," Herbart says: "We know our aim"; and the work itself is a sufficient proof that the boast was no idle one.—

The Educational Times, June 1905.

FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCE.

By PROF. J. J. FINDLAY.

After some years mainly spent in the absorptions of professional practice, I have reverted to the task of training teachers, and am impressed as much as formerly with the importance of aiding the student of education to "systematise" his thoughts. The lecturer stimulates his students to this effort by exhibiting his own mind at work, and he does not hesitate to exhibit himself as a learner, ever re-shaping his "system" as new experience and new investigations clear new paths. The following paragraphs have

been written out as an exercise in this field. They constitute an introduction which in detailed exposition might occupy six or more lectures, but if properly handled by discussion, interchange of views and reading would fruitfully keep students and lecturer engaged for twenty hours. I do not give references to literature, for if one begins it is difficult to stop, but any reader who is following the current literature of education will recognise the sources of some of the waters which flow in this stream; but some of the new tendencies in education are scarcely yet fixed in book form.

THE SCOPE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCE, BEING THE FIRST SECTION IN A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF THE PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION.

CHAPTER I.—The popular view of education contrasted with the systematic or scientific. The latter demands an acquaintance with various related sciences which supply data, some descriptive, some normative.

First, biology, leading to physiology and genetic psychology. The facts of life (animal and human alike present phenomena which in turn exhibit laws of behaviour.

Secondly, sociology, ethics and politics offer another group of data which are closely related to those offered in biology, but are distinguished from these by the emphasis laid (1) upon the social aspects of human life; (2) upon the place of ideals moral and religious, as a factor in human development; (3) upon the aspect of education as an elaborate process conducted in civic institutions, whose teachers are a profession, fulfilling duties in the body politic. After a review of these data, a definition of education may issue as a foundation for a systematic structure of thought upon every branch of education.

But since these foundation sciences are in themselves among the most difficult branches of inquiry, the student cannot hope in his first experiences to gain an exact and final grasp of his study in a year or two. The aim of such lectures as these is rather to promote habits of

systematic thought, so that the structure called educational science may shape and reshape itself in the mind as experience and study present new opportunities.

CHAPTER II.—*The Contribution of Biology*—(a) The fundamental conceptions of life as "development," and as adjustment; (b) The distinction between the adult (self-sufficing, independent, caring for offspring) and the infant, the minor.

This distinction differentiates two fields of "educational" activity. Education in the sense of the term as used in Acts of Parliament looks solely to the welfare of the rising generation.* (c) But education in the wider sense is synonymous with culture, with the improvement of the adult of the human species. When a student is engaged on the history of education, it is often best to employ the term in the wider sense, as a survey of all the forces that have fostered culture and intellectual progress, but for the purposes of professional practice, it is best to limit the term, and include in the scope of education only those efforts which are directed to care for the immature of the human species. The comparison of human life with various types of animal life exhibits education as a universal process in which mankind are able to make unique progress on principles which are, nevertheless, playing an analogous part in the animal world. (d) This is especially true in the field of parentage and social

* Some writers are beginning to recognize that within the term "rising generation" there should be included many classes of unfortunate human beings who will never rank with adult citizens, although they are of adult age, who are as helpless and dependent as children. Their progress—in the interests of society itself, quite apart from our instincts of compassion—demands that they be aided by educative processes analogous to those employed on behalf of scholars. This view comprehends the care of defectives and criminals within the scope of education, teachers being aided here, as indeed in all the work of our profession, by the physician. But it will be a long time before this attitude towards the abnormal classes of society is accepted in any thorough sense by public opinion.

relationships; hence the connection between biology and sociology.

CHAPTER III.—*The Contribution of Physiology*.—Here we confine our conception of life to its physical manifestations. The important phenomena may be classified thus: (a) The special importance of brain structure in all mammalia; and therewith the study of the nervous system. (b) The study of the growing organism from infancy to maturity, and its physiological changes. (c) The congregation of large numbers of scholars in buildings for the purposes of life in the school creates the modern science of school hygiene. (d) The intimate relation between body and mind requires conceptions of duty in the care of the body (personal and social) which are beginning to be realised in the present day with new force (the ethical aspects of hygiene).

CHAPTER IV.—*The Contribution of Genetic Psychology*.—(a) A reform in the relation of psychology to education is apparent; the formal psychology of earlier days did more harm than good by its pretentious claim to prescribe both method and ideal to the teacher. Excessive introspection by the adult teacher into his own adult experience helps little to an understanding of the immature mind. (b) Popular errors, however, concerning the nature of mind need to be corrected, and to this end an elementary analysis of mental processes is of assistance. (c) This should be combined with practical observation of mental processes as witnessed in the mental life of the growing organism; this special aspect of psychology (called genetic psychology, or child study,) when treated practically, is of positive value to the teacher. (d) The scholar is expected while in the teacher's charge to enlarge his experience by gaining definite knowledge in many realms of thought, to develop his tastes, and to acquire many serviceable habits: those portions of psychology, therefore, which profess to throw light upon the processes by which knowledge or appreciation or skill are acquired merit special attention, but they need always to be studied in

close relation to experience in actual teaching; logic and æsthetics may also aid the teacher in analysing relations between the scholar and his environment. Few teachers, however, are able to bring these formal studies into close relation to school experience.

CHAPTER V.—*The Contribution of Sociology*.—The law of adaptation and reaction to environment finds its fullest expression in the life of the scholar, as growing into membership with a social organism, whose roots are in the past life of mankind, and whose branches reach over every region of the globe. (a) The scholar grows to be a member of the body politic, and not only of the family—hence the school is a civic institution controlled by several "corporations"—and the teacher is their agent. (b) The practical demand made by these corporations is that the scholar shall become gradually adjusted to his place in the community, gradually extending his outlook and his experience over tradition, language, science, conduct, service. This is the aim of education as gathered from observing the social aspect of human life. (c) And this aim is always seeking to be realised (i) in the curriculum of school pursuits, (ii) in an appropriate organisation of school societies—each of its own type, with its specific corporate life.

CHAPTER VI.—*The Contribution of Ethics*.—The "ends" for the teacher's labour as indicated in biology and sociology do not satisfy. For the phenomenon of unsatisfied ideals is a fact of human experience that cannot be ignored. Man is not content with his environment; he admits the claims of something called "duty," which compels him to resist society and even to force his environment to adapt itself to him! Effort after a "higher life" may, indeed, if preferred, be regarded as a biological and sociological phenomenon necessary to the survival of the type—re-adaptation rather than adaptation. The teacher's task is therefore not fulfilled when he merely adjusts the growing organism to existing conditions.

The moral and religious experiences of the teacher, whether aided or not by formal reflection upon ethics and theology, are his guide in this field of inquiry. While psychology may help him to realize the mental mould of "character," ethical experience alone will help to judge what its "content" should be. And this needs to be re-examined, for professional purposes, from two points of view: (a) the growing scholar is immature in morals and religion as in every other part of his life (chap. iv. c). Hence the ethical life of a school community should differ from that of an adult social organism; the teacher's influence and exposition need to be simple, and (b) the teacher as an agent of the community (chap. v., a, above) has to conform to a professional standard by limiting his own freedom in influence over the scholar. This is especially important, since the young are so susceptible to suggestions from adults.

CHAPTER VII.—*The Contribution of Politics.*—The function of the State as now exercised in modern communities is establishing an intellectual and spiritual control over the rising generation more powerful in its effects than the influence of any religious or political corporation known to human history. Hence a systematic survey of the scope and effect of education is incomplete unless the bearings of political science are taken into account. The methods by which the State (national and local authorities), the Church, and other corporations exercise this control must differ from the methods appropriate to the exercise of activity. Political science, with its own data and its own ideals (differing for every nationality and, indeed, for every locality), indicate conditions to which the school and the teacher have to conform; but there must be elasticity and freedom in the life of the school if education is to fulfil in any degree its higher aims. This study constitutes a distinct field of scientific enquiry which may be termed the administration and organisation of education.

CHAPTER VIII.—*Summary: the ground covered in a definition of Education.*—(a) Education is a deliberate process, something additional to the inevitable experiences which lead every organism to conform to its type and achieve its destiny. (b) The scope of education as a field for professional practice is confined to the welfare of the rising generation. (c) Its achievement is undertaken by a variety of corporations (family, Church, State, and so forth,) each of whom asserts claims upon the scholar. (d) The end of education may, in vague language, be described as seeking the "welfare" of the rising generation: the content of the term *welfare* can only be filled in after inquiries which concern the widest and deepest interests of human life. These, as organised science, are offered in biology, sociology, and ethics. The specific deliberate influences which we call education are such as promote this welfare apart from the satisfaction of merely physical needs, which are still left(?) as a responsibility for the family alone. (e) The machinery for achieving this end is a civic institution called the school, which is organised under many types, consisting always of scholars (a group of the rising generation) and of (professional or lay) teachers.—*The School World, May 1905.*

SIR JOSHUA REYNOLDS'S CONTRIBUTION TO PRINCIPLES OF METHOD.

Professor J. J. Findlay recently read a paper on "Sir Joshua Reynolds; some account of his contribution to principles of method," at a meeting of the College of Preceptors. A few extracts from it may be found suggestive.

"The arts practised in the school-room are many; some, such as handwriting and spelling, are merely mechanical; others, such as manual training or modern languages, involve many mechanical exercises, but lead, in their higher stages, to work which should bear the features of fine art. All alike, however, are distinguished from the groups of studies which lead to learning, to the wisdom of science, by the fact that the end of the achieve-

ment is skill in the art, mastery in power of production, whether or no this power be accompanied by ordered scientific knowledge.

I invite you to follow with Reynolds the steps by which he desired his students to mount from the threshold to the summit, and to study his views in their universal aspect. There is one idea which pervades the whole of the "Discourses," and may well be selected as the central theme of this lecture, namely, the part played by imitation or copying in the acquirement of skill:

A painter must not only be an imitator of the works of Nature, which alone is necessary to dispel this phantom of inspiration, but he must be as necessarily an imitator of the works of other painters; this appears more humiliating, but it is equally true; and no man can be an artist, whatever he may suppose, upon any other terms.... For my own part, I confess, I am not only very much disposed to maintain the absolute necessity of imitation in the first stages of the art; but am persuaded that by imitation only variety and even originality of invention, is produced. I will go further; even genius, at least what is generally so called, is the child of imitation.

Now, since Reynolds's day a great deal of scientific work has been done by psychologists in studying the part played by imitation in the life of young children, and the results tend to show that all that Reynolds maintains as to the need for imitation in the training of older students is doubly important in dealing with children of school age. For we recognize not only the value of conscious voluntary imitation where a model is selected with the express intention of copying, but there is the power of suggestion to be reckoned with, the tendency, largely instinctive in the years before adolescence and displaying itself in many directions even in later years, to mould personal action on the model of those whose behaviour is witnessed about us.

This, then, is leading general principle, and it is so obviously true that it may be asked whether it is really necessary to urge it upon the atten-

tion of the teacher. It appears to me to be very necessary, because the traditions of our profession have been fostered on other lines, on methods positively antagonistic to the principle here laid down. The teacher still bears in his ways the character of a man of learning; his concern is with ideas rather than habits, with abstract thought rather than skilled practice; and his method has necessarily been evolved from those occupations which have given him this special stamp.

Reynolds, however, does not limit his range to the beginnings of art acquirement: he traces this universal law of imitation from the early stages to the later stages. The keynote of the first is obedience; the keynote to the second is freedom.

What is it then that the young scholar should obey? He is to subject himself to rules—i.e., to prescriptions laid down by his teachers which he may not fully apprehend, but to which he is bound to render implicit obedience; and it is in the selection of rules, in the order in which the succession of these rules is planned, that great skill may be displayed by a good teacher. A craftsman who is not a teacher has no method. He can merely say: "Do as I do; watch me, imitate me, and you will come out right." The teachers says the same (and, unless he can behave as a model, he cannot teach!); but he does more: he plans a sequence of exercises, each embodying some new rule, some new habit, and the obedience that he exacts is not merely the attention of an apprentice, but the reflection of an intelligent scholar, who compares and remembers. The one is the method—or, rather, no method—of the workshop; the other is the method of the school—the school of art.

There are two branches of great importance, lying very remote from the topics of Reynolds's "Discourses," in which these principles seem to me to find application at every turn. One of these is the acquirement of English—both the writing of good English and the appreciation of good literature; the other is the acquirement of

a foreign language. In both of these fields I believe that our teachers would receive more help from studying the methods of reflective and thoughtful artists—I mean artists in literature as well as in painting—than from the more recognized exponents of method within the profession. Such a book, for example, as Hamerton's "Intellectual Life" or Ruskin's "Elements of Drawing," although the ideas in detail cannot be applied to our work, serve to start off the mind at a new tangent, and when, with such an impulse to start us, we turn to our strictly professional task, we find ourselves at work with a freedom and independence which is seldom attained so long as we keep along the ordinary routes."

Professor Adams who was in the chair said: The relation of the art of painting to the science of teaching was of the highest importance because the one illustrated the other in the relation of the concrete to the abstract. The French school of impressionist painting was really an exemplification of this. The clean palette that these painters claimed was of considerable interest for teachers. The principle was that the combination of colours should be made within the mind of the observer instead of on the painter's palette. In teaching the same was true to a certain extent. Teachers were too apt to combine the materials for the benefit of the pupil, whereas the really skilful teacher offered first one item then another, and left them to join themselves within the region of the child's mental activity. Many teachers—particular those of the Froebelian school—were a little afraid of imitation: They were afraid imitation would interfere with the wonderful power of initiative—of self-activity. There did not seem to be any real conflict between originality on the one hand and imitation on the other. Imitation was the power by which one became possessed of the external world and by which at the same time one was incorporated by the external world. The work of imitation was to supply that great fund of correlated activities that were relegated to the lower brain, while it

was the privilege of the upper brain to select from this store those activities that could be combined for certain useful purposes in a way that was relatively original. There were degrees of originality, and what was original to the individual concerned might not be original from the point of view of the race. The amount of originality in the individual was strikingly small in proportion to the amount of imitation: yet the two elements were equally important in the development of the individual."

OUR ENGLISH LETTER.

CAMBRIDGE, July 1905.

The academic year is over, with all its triumphs and its failures, its joys and disappointments. Examinations have been held and results published—one alone remaining over—the Oxford 'Greats' list, delayed as usual until the men have been through the ordeal of *viva-voce*. The chief event is the Mathematical Tripos List at Cambridge, in which two men are joint Senior Wranglers. A few years ago the Senior Wrangler bore, like the Turk, no brother on the throne: indeed, it is said that the difference of a dozen marks out of a 'possible' twenty thousand made the difference of a place. But now, when the first part of the Tripos is less glorious than the whole used to be, 'brackets' are common. We have had a bracket of four, and one of two is quite ordinary. This year there is once more a bracket of two, Mr. Littlewood and Mr. Mercer sharing the honour. The special peculiarity is that both are only in their second year, and have thus reserved for themselves two years for the more arduous work of the second part. It seems a pity that, when the examination is so shorn of its ancient importance, the name of Senior Wrangler should still be retained for success in what after all, to such men of talent as these, is merely an elementary examination.

Mr. Littlewood hails from St. Paul's School; Mr. Mercer is yet another example of the possibility, for a man of exceptional talents, of rising from the lowest rung of the educational ladder to the highest; he was first at an elementary school; he then obtained a county scholarship at Liverpool University; and finally, coming to Cambridge, he has attained the highest honour open to anyone of his year. As he is not the first of his kind, it is to be hoped he will not be the last.

Christ's College has just celebrated the fourth centenary of its foundation—in the peculiarly British way, by a dinner. There were many features of interest about the celebration. Several distinguished old Christ's men were there, including Mr. Justice Buckley and Mr. Fletcher Moulton. As is well-known, the chief glory of Christ's is Milton; and on this occasion the memory of Milton was honoured by the singing of Lawes's original music to the songs of 'Comus.' It is probably many years since that music was last sung exactly as it was written: and it was appropriate that Sir Frederick Bridge, who has done so much to enlarge our knowledge of old masters, should have been there to hear it.

Meanwhile the Education controversy still goes on. It is pleasant to be able to note that occasionally it is conducted in an amicable fashion, and that a step forward is taken now and then. Some of the most distinguished Nonconformists and Churchmen in Manchester have recently met in order to try to understand each other's position on the Education question, and to formulate, if possible, an eirenicon. Among them are several well-known scholars and professors of Victoria University. They have recently published the results of their deliberations—a concordat on which they were unanimous. Neither side, it is declared, made any sacrifice of principle, and yet they have reached a common ground. They have published their scheme in the hope that something like it may be taken as the groundwork of a future scheme to be passed by the next Government. The chief terms of the concordat are the following: (1) All schools are to be managed by the authority. Existing Voluntary schools are to be rented from their owners. (2) The authority should invite representative members of the religious bodies to constitute an advisory committee to manage the ordinary Bible teaching in each school. (3) No religious teaching should be given in school hours except such as is ruled lawful under the Cowper-Temple clause. (4) No religious tests should be imposed on teachers.

These proposals have given rise to much discussion, and have been attacked, as was to be expected, from both sides. Mr. Hirst Hollowell, the champion of the Extreme Nonconformist party, will have none of it; and the High Church party is equally hostile. The main objections are laid against the curious clause that deals with the 'advisory committee.' It is tolerably certain that the House of Commons will never agree to such a body—whatever may be meant by 'advisory.' But the objection to the right of

entry in school hours, which these gentlemen seem to agree upon, is hardly less strong. We may be sure that Nonconformists as a whole will never consent; and the concordat, however valuable in its way, seems to show that until the air is cleared by a general election, the time for conferences has not yet come. Nor, indeed, to judge by the tone of Mr. Cripps and others at the Church Congress, has the church party yet perceived quite as clearly as it ought that it made too violent an effort to secure predominance. Even the Welsh revolt, now an accomplished fact, hardly seems to move them; and yet even the *London Journal of Education*, whose support was so valuable when the Act of 1902 was being forced through, is convinced of its error: 'We cannot conceive of unpopular legislation on the subject of education carried out by force. The period of bluff is over: Wales is in earnest. The Board of Education will have to find a way out of the impasse. The Church of England will have to stand aside and look on. Popular control and the abolition of religious tests—it must come to this.' If the *Journal* and other like-minded papers had only recognised as much as this a year or two ago, a vast amount of trouble might have been saved.

Rugby has long been known as a remarkable specimen of an English public school of the old type. Ever since Dr. Percival went there in 1835 it has been a school where the boys worked. It is therefore a matter to rejoice over that so many Rugby masters, who presumably have had some share in making the boys work, are now being transferred to Headships of other schools. Mr. Waterfield, a year or two ago, became Head of Cheltenham; Mr. Fletcher, a little later, Head of Marlborough; and now, Mr. Wynne Willson, for the last few years master of the Lower Sixth at Rugby, has been elected to succeed Mr. Lyttelton as Head of Haileybury. All these new Head Masters are young men of energy and open-mindedness; and we shall be surprised if the next few years do not show a great change in the character of the education given at our public schools.

School-life has always had a fascination for the story-teller and many great novelists have worked into their novels episodes from their own school-days. Thus Thackeray told the story of the fight between Cuff and Dobbin; and, if 'Grey Friars' were taken out of his novels, a great gap indeed would be made. Meredith also, in *Lord Ormont* and his *Aminta*, has not a few school scenes. Yet no great novelist has ever devoted a book exclusively to school life. Nor have those books which lesser men have written on the subject

been by any means always successful. 'Tom Brown,' it seems, is likely for long to retain its place at the head. Farrar's tales are enormously popular, but their defects are obvious. Talbot Baines Reed knew perhaps more about the boy than any other of his rivals, and his stories ('The Fifth Form at St. Dominic's' in particular) would be unrivalled if only he had had the advantage of being a public-school boy himself. But, educated at the City of London School, Reed knew nothing of our great boarding schools from within, and as a result he is constantly failing to give just that nuance of tone and suggestion which makes all the difference in a work of realism. In dash, go, and moral excellence his works leave nothing to be desired. Whether his defects will be supplied by Mr. Horace Vachell's story called 'The Hill,' cannot yet be decided; but that book, dealing as its name denotes, with Harrow, is so true to life and so full of the minute touches of the eye-witness, that perhaps the vacant place may be, in time to come, claimed by Mr. Vachell.

Reviews and Notices.

'PRACTICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR WITH EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION,' BY MARY F. HYDE. D. C. HEATH & Co., LONDON. PRICE, 2s. 6d.

This treatise on the principles of English Grammar is simple, interesting and impressive. The get-up is decent, and the characters stand out in bold print. Here the Science of Grammar is simplified, and the book with its copious exercises helps the teacher and the pupil. One special feature of the book is the choice examples selected from the classics. The examples are in themselves an education, so to say, and will surely create a taste for good literature.

The book justifies the name 'Practical,' and the complexity and intricacies of advanced Grammar are studiously omitted. It is divided into five parts. Every sub-division is exhaustively revised; and every chapter has a sufficiently long list of choice illustrations subjoined to it. Part the fourth treats with 'Analysis' in a lucid manner, and Part the fifth There did not seem twenty pages of which are devoted to 'Syntax,' and is highly beneficial to every originality on the one hand, and is added, of other. Imitation was a special study on 'Use of the Language.' The book is, became possessed of the external world. The work 'tech' will make the to supply that great fund of correct 'hat' is popularly that were relegated to the lower sh."

which at the same time one was 'speech' and one on the external world. The work 'tech' will make the to supply that great fund of correct 'hat' is popularly that were relegated to the lower sh."

"THE ESSENTIALS OF COMPOSITION AND RHETORIC" BY A. H. ESPENSHADE, M.A., LONDON. D. C. HEATH & Co.

A good and elegantly got-up book of 386 pages of matter, neatly and boldly printed. It is intended to be a practical guide to students aiming at a decent and elegant style of composition; and the book amply fulfils the author's intention. A goodly list of exercises is subjoined to every chapter. A notable feature of the examples in the book is, that they are mostly chosen from the students' exercises. The author deprecates the idea of exposing the faults of the great writers. "The makers of our literature have fairly won their way to fame, and they have not committed any faults so serious that they deserve to be put in the pillory by every schoolmaster." The practice, deserves indeed greater denunciation. It is much worse than idle vanity on the part of the schoolmaster; for it unconsciously engenders in the student the petty habit of fault-finding, the bane of true appreciation. The examples are well chosen and adapted to the purpose, and form ready-made material for the composition teacher.

The book contains many chapters that afford interesting study; such, for instance, as 'How One May Improve His Vocabulary,' 'The Choice of Words,' 'Correctness,' 'Good Use,' &c. Amidst much that must necessarily be commonplace in a work like this, there are a few useful and practical hints that the student may well bear in mind. The author may often times be considered puritanical when he forbids the use of 'which' with a phrase or clause as its antecedent, and condemns such usages as 'the then king.' He takes serious objection to the use of the 'Split Infinitive' and distinctly brands the gerundive use of the participle as ungrammatical. But he talks of a 'participial noun,' which is a sort of grammatical antithesis! But one misses in the book a chapter in 'the Figures of Speech' though it receives a passing treatment.

There are five appendices to the book, which are invaluable for reference. Appendices A B and D are specially useful and will amply repay close and attentive study. The language of the book is particularly lucid and simple and the treatment of the subject is interesting throughout.

MURRAY'S ENGLISH COURSE: A SCHOOL MANUAL OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR, ETC., BY T. D. HALL, M.A. REVISED AND ENLARGED. JOHN MURRAY, ALBEMARLE STREET, LONDON, 1905. PRICE 2s. 6d.

This is a revised edition of the "School Manual of English Grammar," which has been in vogue for nearly thirty years. Much new matter has been added and many necessary changes have been made to meet the requirements of the present day; no pains have been spared to make a good school-book. The first five chapters of the book treat of the questions of Philology which surely is beyond the compre-

hension of the high school boys, to whom the book is primarily adapted. The puzzling portions of Grammar treating of 'shall and will,' 'Subjunctive Mood' may, it is suggested, receive a more elaborate treatment than has been given in the book. In the 'Analysis of sentences,' again, the old and illogical method has been maintained of cutting off restrictive clauses from the words or phrases with which they are organically connected. The knotty question of 'Participles,' 'Gerunds' and 'Verbal Nouns' has not been treated with sufficient clearness. The questions and exercises appended to the book are very carefully selected and arranged. The book has in many respects outgrown its former self and discovers many distinct traces of improvement. We sincerely hope that the book will hold its own amidst a host of grammars that have invaded the schools.

A FIRST ALGEBRA, BY BAKER AND BOURNE. GEORGE BELL AND SONS. PRICE 2s.

This handy cloth-bound volume of 192 pages is a welcome addition to our elementary text-books on Algebra. Coming from the hands of experts engaged in teaching, we can think of nothing better-qualified to lead the beginners to realise that 'Algebra is generalised arithmetic.' The teacher who follows the method of this book can give the pupils an insight into the use of symbols, make the introduction to algebra attractive instead of dull and show the practical nature of the subject. The arrangement of matter is well-adapted for teaching purposes. The initial difficulties are lucidly explained. This book meets excellently the wants of candidates preparing for the Matriculation Examination: hence it may with great advantage be prescribed as the text-book in the high school classes.

THE WORLD AND ITS PEOPLE—THE BRITISH ISLES. THOMAS NELSON & SONS. PRICE 1s. 6d.

Messrs. Nelson and Sons are to be congratulated upon having published a new series of geography readers specially designed to accord with the latest specimen Schemes of the Board of Education. This book gives a full account of the physical, commercial and political aspects of the geography of the British Isles. It is divided into 54 chapters, the headings of which are so happily phrased that they invite even a casual reader to a careful perusal. It claims the high merit of attractiveness by virtue of the simple style, lucid explanations, vivid descriptions and colored illustrations. It would greatly help the teacher in planning his lessons and making them interesting. It may be recommended to the more advanced boys of the Fifth and the Sixth Forms.

ELEMENTARY PRACTICAL MATHEMATICS, BY H. A. STERN, M.A. AND W. H. TOPHAM. GEORGE BELL & SONS.

The first two chapters are devoted to the explanation of Contracted Arithmetical processes and graphical methods. Chapters III to VIII are devoted to the measurement of length, angles, mass, area, volume, and specific gravity. The instruments that may be required for the measurements above indicated are described and their uses clearly pointed out wherever necessary. The last chapter is devoted to the calibration of tubes and graduated vessels. Thus it will be seen that the book contains much useful information within a small compass.

THE RUDIMENTS OF PRACTICAL MATHEMATICS, BY A. CONSTERDINE, M.A., AND A. BARNES, M.A. JOHN MURRAY. 2s. 6d.

This book is intended by the authors to be used by students in Technical Schools who wish to follow industrial careers and whose knowledge of Mathematics may not extend beyond the four simple rules of Arithmetic. The book deals with a variety of things and contains such a fund of practical information that it may be taken as a *vaude mecum* by one to whom a knowledge of practical Mathematics is indispensable. The methods adopted throughout the book are clear and concise.

ALGEBRAICAL GROUNDING, D. E. SHORTS, M. A. RIVINGTONS. 1s. net.

A small and handy book of 46 pages containing the fundamental principles of Algebra from the beginning to the end of Binomial theorem. As the author says, it contains but a summary of oral teaching which a student is often asked to note down and commit to memory. The book is useful in its own way.

EASY GRAPHS, BY H. S. HALL, M.A. MACMILLAN & Co. 1s.

A very interesting book dealing as it does, with an interesting subject. The subject of Graphs is one which may, with advantage, be learned by students as many questions are easily solved with the aid of graphs. The book in question is an excellent introduction to the study of Graphs.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

Lieutenant-Colonel John Lawrence VanGeyzel, M.B., I.M.S., to be Lecturer on Experimental Physics, Medical College, for the session 1905-06.

The following promotions are made in the Provincial Educational Service:—

Mr. Rao Bahadur M. Rangachariyar, M.A., from Class IV to Class III.

Mr. S. Subramanya Aiyar, B.A., from Class V to Class IV.

Mr. G. V. Subbarayudu Sastri Garu, B.A., from Class VI to Class V.

Mr. Subrahmanya Sastri Narayanaswami Aiyar, B.A., from Class VII to Class VI.

Note.—The above promotions will have effect from the date of the vacancy caused by the death of Mr. W. H. Goddard.

Mr. E. W. Middlemast has been appointed Fellow of the University of Madras in the place of Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck resigned.

Mr. J. R. Cunningham (St. Andrews) has been appointed Professor of English, Pachayaippa's College, Madras. He has taken charge of his duties.

We regret very much to record the death of Rev. John Mackenzie of the Madras Christian College. Mr. Mackenzie joined the Christian College in 1899.

The anniversary of the Board High School, Amalapuram, came off on the 22nd July with Mr. H. L. Braidwood, I. C. S., in the chair. The Report of the Headmaster showed improvements in the school in all directions.

The Senate of the University of Madras will meet on Friday, the 8th September at 4-30 P.M. Among other items on the Agenda, the Hon'ble Sir S. Subramania Aiyar will move on behalf of the Syndicate that the following draft new bye-laws to replace the present bye-laws 90-93 in regard to the elections to the Syndicate be adopted:—

1. The Syndicate shall consist of the Vice-Chancellor as Chairman, the Director of Public Instruction, and 10 elected members.

2. The elected members shall be ex-officio or ordinary Fellows.

3. At least 5 of the elected members shall be Heads of, or Professors in, colleges affiliated to the University,

and 5 other bye-laws on the same subject restricting the duration of the membership to two years in the case of elected members, and prescribing the procedure, to be adopted in filling up vacancies in the Syndicate.

To be moved by the Hon'ble Sir S. Subramania Aiyar.

The Syndicate recommends:—

That the scheme approved by the Madras Government to utilize the Griffith Legacy for the establishment and maintenance of a University Library in connection with the Connemara Public Library be adopted.

Mr. John Cook will move that a Committee be appointed to draft the new body of regulations required by Section 26 of the Indian Universities Act of 1904.

In response to a public requisition addressed to him, the Hon'ble Mr. L. A. Govindaraghava Iyer who visited Tanjore on professional business, delivered a lecture on the 21st July evening at the Union Club, Tanjore, the subject of the lecture being "The Education of the Masses."

In the course of his remarks, the lecturer observed that the education of the masses was a question whose solution could no longer be postponed. It was required for the highest and the most permanent interests of the country. In all matters that concerned their progress in domestic, social or political movements, the co-operation and the following of the masses was indispensably necessary; and whenever any demand was made upon Government, or any reform asked for, they were told that the masses did not move with them and share in their aspirations. He was afraid there was some truth in this charge; and it had now come to be recognised both by Government and by the people that the education and the enlightenment of the masses, which had been unfortunately neglected in the past, was an essential factor of true national progress, and that efforts should be made to place the system of Primary Education on a sound and rational basis. Under the system which it had been decided to supersede, a child looked more stupid inside the school than outside it, as the present Director of Public Instruction put it from his place in the Legislative Council on the occasion of the Budget debate. If that was so, no outside criticism was at all required. At that time, the Hon'ble lecturer suggested for consideration a scheme of Primary Education similar to that which worked so admirably in the Central Provinces; and though the suggestion did not in the first instance recommend itself to the authorities, yet they would find now that the scheme of rural schools which had been recently published bore a close resemblance in several important points to the Central Provinces scheme, which provided for the education of those pupils who were not likely to continue beyond an elementary stage.

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system and of the machinery to carry it out, each of which by itself suggested many difficulties. So far as the system of education was concerned, the main end to be kept in view in any scheme that might be devised for the Primary education of those youngsters whose parents could, from a variety of circumstances, be able to spare them for only three or four years of their youth should be the training of the eye, the hand, and the mind, and the development of their intelligence for some useful pursuit in life. So long as agriculture remained the main occupation of the people, the scheme for the education of the masses and the curriculum in the Primary schools should be so shaped as to provide for the necessities of the agriculturist. His observing and thinking faculties must be fully exercised and developed; and with his intelligence thus disciplined, he would be able to appreciate the changes suggested to him for the better practice of agriculture. Instruction in the three R's would make him independent of the village Kurnam, to whom he now looked for information regarding the extent of his holdings, and the amount of his tax and other matters. Again, in geography, for instance, he might be taught what more immediately concerned his firka or his taluq rather than the rivers and the mountains on the continents, a knowledge of which was hardly useful to him in after life. The subjects in which instruction was given should be such as lay within the range and the level of the agriculturist's intelligence, to which they should naturally appeal.

If the system of education now in vogue was defective, the machinery employed to impart instruction was inefficient. To teach young boys was a most difficult art, and yet for that very difficult work they had teachers on Rs. 7 to Rs. 10, a salary which was less than what they had to pay for their cooks! This anomaly had now been recognised and was to be rectified. The question that was often asked was, supposing they were given a proper curriculum and proper teachers, where were the pupils? The speaker had known of cases where schools had to be closed for want of pupils; but if pupils had not flocked to these schools it was because their shrewd parents were not convinced of the ability and the wisdom of the course of studies prescribed for them. When, however, the practical advantages of the new scheme of rural education came to be appreciated, these schools also would be largely patronised. Thanks to the Government of Lord Curzon, they had now more funds to devote to education than ever before, and otherwise, Government were doing all they could to spread education. But had educated Indians no duty to discharge in the matter? Considering the vastness of the field and the limitedness of the resources even of the Government, it was the duty of educated men to help in the spread of education amongst the masses, by themselves starting schools for them or strengthening and improving such schools wherever they existed. A system of sound Primary education for the masses would render possible the realisation of some of their wildest

ambitions in matters of social and political reform, which, without it, would be impossible.

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The Government of Mysore have issued a list of Revised Rules for the guidance of the Committees of Government Girls' Schools in that province. Among the more important of them is the provision which says that whenever possible European and Indian ladies should be appointed on the Committee, and also Rules Nos. 11 and 12 which run as follows:

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BOMBAY.

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The subject for essay for the Manockjee Limjee Gold Medal is "The application of the principles of Sanitary Science to Indian Cities;" for Karsandas Mulji prize, "A critical examination of different method of social reforms advocated at the present day"; for the Dossabhoy Harmasji Cama prize, "Midwifery practice among the Natives of India, the dangers connected with it, a practical suggestion for its improvement"; for the Sir James LeGrand Jacob prize, "How far has the spirit of citizenship been developed in India under the influence of the British Rule"; for the Ashburner prize, "The decay of Indian artistic work of the possibility of reviving it" and for the Dr. Theodore Cooke Memorial prize "Relative efficiency and cost of different kinds of illuminants."

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Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

Lieutenant-Colonel John Lawrence VanGeyzel, M.B., I.M.S., to be Lecturer on Experimental Physics, Medical College, for the session 1905-06.

The following promotions are made in the Provincial Educational Service:—

Mr. Rao Bahadur M. Rangachariyar, M.A., from Class IV to Class III.

Mr. S. Subramanya Aiyar, B.A., from Class V to Class IV.

Mr. G. V. Subbarayudu Sastri Garu, B.A., from Class VI to Class V.

Mr. Subrahmanya Sastri Narayanaswami Aiyar, B.A., from Class VII to Class VI.

Note.—The above promotions will have effect from the date of the vacancy caused by the death of Mr. W. H. Goddard.

Mr. E. W. Middlemast has been appointed Fellow of the University of Madras in the place of Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck resigned.

Mr. J. R. Cunningham (St. Andrews) has been appointed Professor of English, Pachayaippa's College, Madras. He has taken charge of his duties.

We regret very much to record the death of Rev. John Mackenzie of the Madras Christian College. Mr. Mackenzie joined the Christian College in 1899.

The anniversary of the Board High School, Amalapuram, came off on the 22nd July with Mr. H. L. Braidwood, I. C. S., in the chair. The Report of the Headmaster showed improvements in the school in all directions.

The Senate of the University of Madras will meet on Friday, the 8th September at 4-30 P.M. Among other items on the Agenda, the Hon'ble Sir S. Subramania Aiyar will move on behalf of the Syndicate that the following draft new bye-laws to replace the present bye-laws 90-93 in regard to the elections to the Syndicate be adopted:—

1. The Syndicate shall consist of the Vice-Chancellor as Chairman, the Director of Public Instruction, and 10 elected members.

2. The elected members shall be ex-officio or ordinary Fellows.

3. At least 5 of the elected members shall be Heads of, or Professors in, colleges affiliated to the University,

and 5 other bye-laws on the same subject restricting the duration of the membership to two years in the case of elected members, and prescribing the procedure, to be adopted in filling up vacancies in the Syndicate.

To be moved by the Hon'ble Sir S. Subramania Aiyar.

The Syndicate recommends:—

That the scheme approved by the Madras Government to utilize the Griffith Legacy for the establishment and maintenance of a University Library in connection with the Connemara Public Library be adopted.

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Female Education Association of that station. Mr. Amirudin Tyebji presided. The Nawab Saheb said that the object of the deputation was to collect subscriptions for establishing a Female Normal Training Class at Aligarh, which contemplated sending out female teachers to other Mahomedan centres. H. H. the Begum of Bhopal had contributed Rs. 35,000, it was believed that her munificence would be followed by other donations. Some twenty young Mussulman ladies had signified their willingness to join the normal class in which religious education would not be forgotten. Mr. Rafiuddin Ahmed, Urdu tutor to H. M. the late Queen Empress, then addressed the meeting, and the Chairman having alluded to the urgency of helping on the scheme, the proceedings terminated.

BENGAL.

ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENTIFIC AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION OF INDIANS.—Mr. G. C. Sen, M.A., one of the scholars of the Association, left for England by the *Golconda* in order to study Applied Chemistry, including dyeing and paints at Leeds, and afterwards in Germany. Mr. J. K. Das Gupta, a passed third-year student of the Engineering College, another scholar of the Association, also started by the same steamer in order to learn hardware manufacture and Mechanical Engineering at Birmingham.

A SPECIAL meeting of the Calcutta University was held on the 8th July to consider a proposal for the extension of the Medical course from five to six years. Surgeon-General Bomford moved that the medical course be extended to six years. In the course of his remarks he said that with the exception of the Principal of the Madras Medical College, the Principals of the Medical Colleges in India approved of the proposal and that the opinion of the Universities Commission that five years were sufficient was of little value as there was no medical expert on the Commission. Lieutenant-Colonel Harris seconded the motion. The Honorable Babu Bhupendranath Basu moved, as an amendment, that the five years course be retained. Dr. Nilakanth Sarcar, seconded the amendment. On the amendment and the motion being put to the meeting, one after the other, 32 voted for the amendment and 17 for the motion. The amendment was declared carried.

THE Government have published the extensive correspondence, which has passed between the Bengal Government, the Government of India, and the Secretary of State, upon the subject of the proposals for making provision in Bengal for the technical education of students in Mining and for the instruction of persons already engaged in the mines, who desire to obtain a certificate of competency.

A scheme has been sanctioned, to be brought into effect at once, whereby a five-years' course of mining

instruction is arranged in connection with the Sibpur Engineering College, Calcutta. Eighteen months, of the five years, are to be spent in obtaining practical experience in some mining centre under a Mining Manager, who will receive a fee of Rs. 750 for each pupil. The scheme provides for a number of scholarships to encourage students, and also for the appointment of:—

(1) A Professor of Mining and Engineering at Sibpur.

(2) A Peripatetic Mining Instructor, to give lectures in selected mining centres, with Indian and other assistants.

The pay of the two principal appointments is to rise to at least Rs. 1,000 in five years, beginning with Rs. 750.

THE sum of Rs. 1,80,000 has been granted to the Calcutta University by the Government of India for acquisition of land. A committee was appointed by the Senate to select a suitable site in the neighbourhood of the Senate House for extending the University premises, to take steps for acquiring the land so selected, and to suggest the purposes for which buildings should be erected on the land so acquired.

The Report recently submitted says: We are of opinion that first and foremost, the University needs a building for a library worthy of its name. It should have a good frontage, and be attractive enough to draw students to avail themselves of the Library and cultivate habits of reading. It should provide a Reading Room for students, a large Hall which might, if necessary, be used for examination purposes, and one or two rooms for accommodating the Calcutta University Institute, which, it is believed, ought to find a place in the premises of the University. In close proximity to it there should be space available for later developments, such as laboratories, which should be taken in hand after the Library.

The sites that we would recommend are sites which have recommended themselves to the University since the idea of acquiring land was first conceived. The site that we would prefer for the Library is the site of the Market on the immediate south; but as appendant to it, we would acquire also the site of the Bustee on the immediate west.

We hope to have, ere long, from the Land Acquisition Collector a definite valuation of the sites with the structures thereon. But from the materials in our possession, we gather that the sites are about three and a half bighas each in area that the Market site will cost us about Rs. 1,80,000, and that the Bustee site will cost us about Rs. 1,40,000, exclusive of compensation for structures on the sites.

The design of the Library should be taken from some model in India or in England; and we propose to move the Public Works Department for plans and estimates. We have already stated that the laboratories should be taken in hand later on. Meantime, we propose to ascertain, by reference to experts, what they would consider to be an adequate supply

of apparatus for College lecturing in the various scientific subjects.

THE Hon. Mr. Chaudhuri asked the following questions at the meeting of the Bengal Council on the 8th July. (a) Will the Government be pleased to state why it was that no member of the Indian Education Service was appointed to officiate as Director of Public Instruction in Bengal during the absence of Mr. Alexander Pedler on leave? (b) Is there any precedent for putting the Assistant Director, who is a very junior member of the Service, in charge of the Director's Office during the Director's absence from India? (c) Is there any foundation for the report which has found currency in the local Press that it is the intention of Government to appoint a member of the Indian Civil Service as Director of Public Instruction in Bengal on the retirement of Mr. Alexander Pedler? (d) Was it not laid down by Lord Dufferin in his Minute on the appointment of Mr. White, I.C.S., as the Director of Public Instruction in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, that, failing a competent member of the Educational Service qualified for the post of Director of Public Instruction in any province, the Educational Departments of other provinces are to be indented upon before the appointment can be given to a member of the Indian Civil Service; and is the rule laid down in the Minute considered to be in force in Bengal, or has it been supplanted by any special or later instructions from the Government of India, and, if so, when and to what effect?

The Hon. Mr. Carnduff replied as follows:—"The appointment of an officer to officiate for Mr. Pedler during his recent leave was considered unnecessary. The leave was short; and the time was not the inspection season. The duties of his office were, therefore, entrusted to his Assistant. As to Mr. Pedler's successor, the discretion of the Government is not limited in the choice of a Director in the manner indicated in the question. The choice depends on all the circumstances and requirements of the case. These have been submitted for the consideration of the Government of India."

On August 3, in the House of Commons, Mr. Hugh Law asked the Secretary of State for India whether his attention had been called to the answer given on July 8, 1905, by the Honourable Mr. Carnduff in the Bengal Legislative Council to a series of questions asked by the Honourable Mr. Chaudhuri, from which it was understood that the Government of Bengal contemplated appointing a member of the Indian Civil Service to the post of Director of Public Instruction as soon as it should become vacant by the retirement of Mr. Pedler in March, 1906; and whether, in view of dissatisfaction caused by this announcement among the members of the Educational Service, and in all sections of society in India, he would state what action His Majesty's Government proposed to take in the matter, in view of the effect which such an appoint-

ment would be likely to have upon recruiting for the Indian Educational Service.

Mr. Brodrick: I am aware that the Government of Bengal propose to appoint a member of the Indian Civil Service to succeed Mr. Pedler as Director of Public Instruction in March next. That office is not reserved for the Educational Service, and Local Governments and Administrations have full discretion to fill it as may seem most for the advantage of the public service. I am not aware that the proposal has caused dissatisfaction in all sections of society in India; as regards the Educational Service, the Government of India has been informed by the Lieutenant-Governor that the arrangement contemplated will be for a period of from two to three years at most, and that he looks forward to a return at no distant date to the practice of selecting a Director from the Indian Educational Service. I do not propose to take any action in the matter.

On Saturday the 19th inst., the Bengal Government was invited to make a statement on the subject at a sitting of the Legislative Council, but replied that it was not prepared to do so.

The *Statesman* comments on the incident as follows:—"The absurdity of this is emphasized by the fact that the truth of the matter had already been let out by Mr. Brodrick, who after all has his uses." Our contemporary sees in Mr. Brodrick's statement an implication that "while the Government here was refusing information and as usual, affecting to treat the matter as still an open question, a decision had already been arrived at and the arrangement was regarded as settled by the Government of India. It is possible that in this matter, as in other recent matters, the Government walked half blindly, not realising until too late the force of the opposition which would be roused."

THE following items of University intelligence are published for general information:—

UNIVERSITY INSPECTION OF COLLEGES.

1. Before the regular periodic and efficient inspection of the Colleges affiliated to the Calcutta University is introduced by the New Regulations, the Senate, on the recommendation of the Syndicate have considered it desirable and expedient to institute a kind of preliminary investigation into the condition of the Colleges affiliated to this University and situated within its new territorial jurisdiction, which might perhaps save time, and indicate to Colleges what will be expected of them when the formal expert inspection is legally authorized.

2. For carrying out this preliminary investigation two bodies of Inspectors have been appointed,—one for the Calcutta Colleges and the other for the Mofussil Colleges,—each consisting of three members.

Body of Inspectors for Calcutta Colleges:—Hon'ble Mr. Justice Saradacharan Mitra, M.A., B.L., G. W. Kuchler, Esq., M.A., H. R. James, Esq., M.A.

Body of Inspectors for Mofussil Colleges.—Dr. P. K. Roy, D. Sc., G. W. Kuchler, Esq., M.A., W. H. Arden Wood, Esq., M.A., F.C.S., F.R.G.S.

3. The inspection of the Calcutta Colleges will commence on the 1st September and that of the Mofussil Colleges on the 13th November, 1905. The programme of inspection will be as follows, subject to any modification that may be considered necessary hereafter.—

4. The procedure at each institution will be:—

(1) Inspection of the premises and of the classes at work under the guidance of some one person deputed by the management for the purpose.

(2) Inspection of the registers and other documents.

(3) Interviews with any members of the staff who may desire the same.

(4) Conference with the Manager or Managers or persons deputed to represent them.

5. The following are the main points upon which a detailed report will be submitted on each College so as to enable the Syndicate to judge of its efficiency and decide whether the rights of affiliation, already conferred upon it, should be continued or withdrawn or restricted with reference to the new Act.

The Report of the Inspectors will also assist the Senate in framing regulations under Section 25 (2) (i) (j) (k) and (m).

(1) *Constitution and Management.*—Whether the College is under public or private management; if under the former, the nature of the management, the relation which it bears to the teaching staff and whether there is a College Council which is concerned with the internal discipline of the College; if under private management, whether the managing body consist of a single individual or a number of individuals; in what capacity they are members, whether as proprietors or as trustees or simply as members elected by a body at home or in this country and the relation in which the home body stands to the local body or representative; whether the managing body has been incorporated under the Companies Act; the rules that govern the constitution of the managing body, how far it is responsible for the appointment of the teaching staff; whether the internal discipline of the institution is left to a College Council; and what exactly is the relation of the Principal or the head of the Institution to the managing body.

In this connection the Inspectors will expect to receive from the managing body a short history of the institution, stating the reasons that led to its foundation, the developments it has undergone and any definite proposals with regard to its future which the management has in view.

(2) *Teaching Staff.*—Full particulars as regards teaching staff will be required (*Vide* Statement A). Special attention will be given to the adequacy and suitability of the teaching staff in English and Science. Information will also be required as to

the conditions governing the tenure of office of the professors and the teachers; and whether, in institutions under private management, provision is made for any pension or retiring allowances.

(3) *College Buildings and Hostels.*—Whether the buildings are rented or owned by the management; how far the accommodation provided is adequate; whether the sanitary arrangements are satisfactory; what proportion of the students are provided with hostel accommodation; the nature and suitability of the hostel buildings; the arrangements made for the management and financing of hostels; the steps taken to have lodging houses licensed by the College authorities for students who do not live in hostels or either with relatives or guardians; whether the head of the College or any member of teaching staff resides in or near the College or the place provided for the residence of students; what part the Head of the College or the staff take in the internal management of the hostels and the supervision of the students out of College hours.

(4) *Equipment.*—Whether the furniture and appliances provided are adequate; and, where affiliation is in any branch of experimental science, whether the College is provided with a properly equipped laboratory or museum, and whether adequate provision is made for the periodical renewing of apparatus, etc., and the purchase of necessary materials.

(5) *Strength.*—Particulars regarding strength and classes of students attending the College should be furnished in the form of Statement B. If the College had been originally started for a particular class or community of students information should be given as to how far this object has been fulfilled, and if not reasons should be given for failure to carry out the object.

(6) *Financial condition.*—In order to judge of the financial stability of the College, particulars in the form given in Statement C should be furnished; full information will be required as to the nature and value of the endowments which the College possesses and its other financial resources; the rates of fees charged should be given as compared with other Colleges in the same district or locality; whether there are any special funds for scholarships and for the payments of the fees of the students either in whole or in part.

(7) *Library.*—The rules of the library and a catalogue of books contained in it should be furnished and information should also be given as to whether there is a reading-room and consulting library besides a lending library and whether adequate provision is made for periodical additions to the library.

(8) *Registers.*—Whether a register of admissions and withdrawals, a register of attendance, a register of fees, a time table, a register of receipts and expenditure, etc., are duly maintained; whether the leaving certificates are in order, and whether the College has duly observed the intercollegiate rules.

(9) *Miscellaneous.*—The Inspectors will also enquire as to whether adequate provision is made for the physical education of the students, and to what extent students, clubs and societies have been encouraged for the promotion of their physical and intellectual welfare.

6. Managers of Colleges are requested kindly to be prepared to give all the information required in this memorandum and to have the accompanying statements filled in and handed over to the Inspectors on arrival.

7. All communications to the Inspectors may be addressed to the Registrar of the University, Senate House, College Square, Calcutta.

PUNJAB.

PLANS prepared under the orders of the Punjab Government for re-building Bishop Cotton School, Simla, are understood to have been agreed to by the governors of that institution. The new buildings are to be fine ones, costing some Rs. 3 lakhs. The scheme proposed for the future government of the School provides for giving the Government, who are to provide the funds, a controlling voice in the management by transferring to Government nominees two of the four seats upon the Council now held by candidates elected by the *ex-officio* members.

THE Director of Public Instruction offered to hand over the evening continuation classes for girls at Lahore to the Young Women's Christian Association in January last. It was proposed that the classes should include subjects to help girls who had left school to further their education and as far as possible it should be of a practical kind. It was also pointed out that competent ladies should be put in charge of the classes, no teacher already engaged during the day being eligible. The Director's offer was accepted, a Superintendent was chosen, a list of subjects drawn up, a fair number of names were registered and the classes started. By the end of March the numbers in the classes were as follows:—Cooking, 3; dress-making, 16; typewriting, 3; painting, 16; French, 5; singing, 29. Thus, cooking, singing, painting, and dress-making were the favourite subjects. The attendance was fairly regular, the pride and enthusiasm shown in the work were evident, and, judging from the way new pupils join, a huge success in time may be anticipated.

The Statesman and Friend of India.

Foreign Notes.

MR. ROCKEFELLER has presented £2,000,000 to the General Educational Board of the United States, and £200,000 to Yale University.

BIRMINGHAM, Liverpool, and Manchester Universities, have all held their degree ceremonies. At Birmingham the great feature was the appearance of the first Bachelors of Commerce; at Manchester special interest attached to the honorary doctorate conferred upon Dr. Murray Butler, President of Columbia University; and at Liverpool there was an additional function in the opening of the new Electro-technic Laboratories, built from a bequest of £10,000 by the late Mr. David Jardine.

THE Irish schoolmaster again comes off very badly in the way of salary. A certificated headmaster in a public elementary school in Scotland got an average salary last year of £176 14s. 3d.; in England and Wales, £159 9s. 11d.; in Ireland, £105 4s. 9d. For assistant-masters the figures were, in Scotland, £120 11s. 8d.; in England and Wales, £110 3s. 1d.; and in Ireland, £73 13s. 10d. Where an Irish head-master got 20s., a Scotch head-master got 35s., and an English 30s., while an assistant teacher in England got 24s. every time an Irish head-master got 20s.—*The University Correspondent.*

WRITING on the Decay of Learning in the *Morning Post*, Mr. Andrew Lang recalls Thackeray's confessions as to his Greek studies. With the richest power of appreciating the charm of Greek poetry and religion Thackeray writes of "the vulgar bullies who drive tender children on with clenched fists and low abuse." "I was made so miserable in youth by a classical education, that all connected with it is disagreeable in my eyes, and I have the same recollection of Greek in youth that I have of castor oil." "I read Greek poets, but it was in fear and trembling, and a cold sweat is but a poor accompaniment to poetry."

THE proposal made by the Emperor of Germany for the temporary interchange of professors with America for a course of lectures is leading to a number of important results. Harvard University has invited Prof. Ostwald, of Leipzig, to give a half year's course, Columbia University has secured lectures from Prof. V. F. Bjerknes, of Stockholm, on "Fields of Force," and from Prof. H. A. Lorentz, of Leyden, on "Extensions of Maxwell's Electro-magnetic Theory."

The Educational Review.

An important Report on Female Education in the United Provinces has been issued by the Government for public discussion.

It is the work of an influential committee composed entirely of representatives of the Hindu and Muhammadan communities of the province. Its President was Rai Bahadur G. N. Chakravarti who, according to the *Hindustan Review* was mainly responsible for the draft, and whom our contemporary congratulates on "the catholicity, rare and masterly tact in reconciling conflicting opinions, and a practical spirit characteristic of strong common sense, which he has brought to bear on the suggestions made in the Report." The current number of the *Indian Ladies' Magazine* contains an excellent summary of the Report to which we refer our readers.

A few facts and figures will show the need that there was of this somewhat unusual, if not actually unique, method of determining the lines on which female education in the United Provinces should be conducted. In 1901-02 the number of girls of school-age of whom one was actually at school was in Burma 19, in Bombay 23, in Madras 25, in Assam 51, in Bengal 58, in the Central Provinces 80, in the Punjab 93, and in the United Provinces 203. Let us next take the test of literacy. The number of females out of every 1,000 that could in the same year read and write was in Burma 45, in Madras 9, in Bombay 9, in Bengal 5, in Assam 4, in the Punjab 3, in the Central Provinces 2, and in the United Provinces 2. By either test therefore the United Provinces stand at the bottom of the list, being in fact much behind the rest of India.

The Report shows that the rate of progress is, and in fact has been during some years past, greater in the United Provinces than elsewhere. Last year 75 p. c. of girls of school-age or 1 in 133 was at school, which is a great advance indeed on the figure for 1901. As in Madras, Muhammadan females have a better record than Hindu females. But this superiority is enjoyed in the United Provinces by Muhammadan males as well, who possess in fact a greater proportion of wealth and influence than their Hindu brethren.

The difficulties in the way of woman's enlightenment are in the United Provinces nearly the same as here, but they appear to be far more formidable. Active opposition on the part of the ignorant, indifference on the part of the educated, a low estimate of woman's position in life, the *pardah* system, early removal of girls from schools, want of mistresses of good social position and character,—all these and others with which we are familiar have to be combated and conquered before any improvement can be hoped for. Mr. Chakravarti's Committee enter on a discussion of the merits of the school system and the system of peripatetic teachers. They make out a strong case for the continuance and extension of home teaching, and so far from considering that it will hinder the growth of girls' schools, they see in it one of the means for the formation of that public opinion in favour of female education on which in the last resort a system of girls' schools must depend for its success. At the same time the Report advocates the opening of new model girls' schools in all district head-quarters with suitable buildings and staff. The co-education of the sexes naturally occupies a share of the Committee's attention. They favour the teaching of boys and girls together till the age of 8. In any case this will have to be

done in localities which cannot support two separate establishments, one for males and the other for females. Other provinces have from the beginning adopted co-education, and the success is so great in the primary classes that in the year 1901-02 in Burma and Madras more than half the girls under instruction were in mixed schools. In the United Provinces only 14 p. c. are in mixed schools, and decided progress in female education can be said to have begun only in 1896 when District Boards were permitted to throw open primary village schools to girls as well as boys. When the Director of Public Instruction first proposed the measure, he says: "The District Boards were consulted, but generally professed themselves terribly shocked at the grave impropriety of allowing girls, even between the ages of six and eight, to go to the same schools as their brothers. It was also pronounced to be subversive of morality notwithstanding the practice in other parts of India." The Government, however, overruled the objections, and the experiment has been quite successful. A great part of the objections to mixed schools would be removed if the teaching could all be done by women-teachers. The difficulty of finding these is great everywhere, and must be particularly so in the United Provinces. The Committee devote a large space in the Report to this question, and their suggestions are practicable, though expensive. They recommend the establishment of Normal Schools like the one at Lucknow, the opening of training classes in connection with all large schools, the grant of scholarships to girls preparing at home for teacherships, the encouragement of the female relations of schoolmasters to learn the work of teaching, and the larger employment of widows. The popularity of the Normal School is to be secured

by (1) the employment of a lady superintendent trained in modern methods presumably in Europe; (2) strict observance of *purda*; (3) grant of liberal scholarships; (4) grants of liberal scholarships to wives of male pupil teachers of the boys' Normal School; (5) grants of allowances to guardians of widows engaging themselves to take up teaching as a profession; (6) grant of special scholarships to young mistresses who are already doing teaching work. One of the recommendations in regard to these Normal Schools is the foundation of boarding establishments, but it is dissented from by a Muhammadan member. Another recommendation which is not unanimous is that separate primary schools should be established for Hindu and for Muhammadan girls. The dissident this time also is a Muhammadan gentleman, Mr. Karamat Husain. He inveighs against the sectarianism "which has wrought deadly havoc for thousands of years." Common needs, he contends, must be supplied by common schools. Nor can every village afford to have two separate schools for the separate communities, unless taxation be increased, which is manifestly impossible. Mr. Husain further points out that in point of fact Hindus and Muhammadans do attend these common schools without serious objection. We find the papers generally echoing Mr. Husain's dissent and declaiming against the spirit of isolation and racial exclusiveness to which the majority of the Committee appear to lend countenance. We cordially endorse the doctrine of cosmopolitanism and have in these columns deplored the movement for a Muhammadan University as inimical to true social and political harmony. We would not, however, imperil the cause of female education by uncompromising adherence to a theory. If the opening of distinct schools for the two communities will material-

ly increase the numbers that attend them, the truer policy is to yield for the present to the popular sentiment, and trust in the power of a widespread system of education to weaken all separatist tendencies. After all, are there not already colleges and schools exclusively Hindu or exclusively Muhammadan? We fancy that the necessity for distinct institutions decreases as we reach the higher grades of education. Mr. Husain would appear to be straining at a gnat, having already swallowed a camel. Perhaps, however, he is not an enthusiast for the Aligarh movement. In that case he is far in advance of the generality of his community.

A suggestion of some importance made in the Report is that local committees should be appointed for girls' schools. It is no doubt desirable that the actual conduct and administration of the schools should reflect the enlightened opinion of the communities that they serve. But one's experience does not justify any sanguine expectation of their actual usefulness in practice. They either meddle too much with, or take no thought of, the charge entrusted to them. If they be purely visitorial and advisory bodies, it is just possible that they will be of use.

In spite of the 'standardising' effect of the new University legislation on which so much emphasis has been laid, the Universities have already begun to diverge in practice. In Madras the provisional Syndicate, reduced in number as it is, has on its own account ordered a preliminary inspection of affiliated colleges, and the scope and procedure of the inspection are alike kept confidential. It has been objected that the Syndicate has exceeded its powers in doing so, and that the sanction of the Senate is necessary

to make the inspection commission a legally constituted body. This view seems to have prevailed at Calcutta where the inspecting bodies were appointed by the Senate and the main lines of inquiry laid down previously and published. It was there argued, rightly in our view, that the rules of the University should not be framed in an airy fashion for supposed or conjectured conditions, but should be based on a definite knowledge of the nature and working of the various institutions which they were to govern. In Bombay, on the other hand, no inspection has yet been undertaken, but the Senate is to meet on the 15th of September to consider the draft rules of the different committees that were appointed to frame rules under different sections of the Universities Act. We have received copies of the reports of these committees, but do not think it necessary to give their contents here, as the proceedings of the Senate meetings at which they will be considered will be fully published in due course. Each committee's report is dissented from by influential men, Messrs. Mehta and Setalvad figuring pretty often in the dissentient notes. The number of Syndics, the institution of a Science Faculty, the transference of students from one college to another, the number of examinations between the Entrance and the B. A. Examination, the minimum age of Entrance candidates, the University recognition of high schools, the retention or removal of History and Political Economy as a compulsory subject for the B. A., who ought to be appointed to inspect colleges, and whether Fellows should be assigned to one or more Faculties, are some of the questions on which warm debates may be expected. With regard to the last, the proposal to be put before the Senate is that when a Fellow has a professional degree, he

ought to be assigned to the Faculty in which he holds that degree. A similar proposal was, it will be remembered, carried in the Senate of our University, notwithstanding much opposition. In Bombay the opposition appears to be more determined, for we find the dissentients using such strong language as the following:

"We are unable, therefore, to understand the position of those who advocate the change, except that there appears a desire on the part of some Fellows, holding only Arts qualifications, to monopolise the seats of Arts Syndics. It seems to us that these gentlemen entirely misconceive the principle on which Faculties should be framed. They seem to imagine that faculties should be constituted for their sake and for preserving a balance of patronage in their favour. * * * Faculties are not constituted for individual Fellows, but individual Fellows ought to subserve the interests of the Faculties and the University. * * * We venture emphatically to say that it is not, so to say figuratively, a question of University loaves and fishes."

If the newspaper report be true, South India has within the last few days discovered a Tata. A great Educational Endowment. Ten lakhs is a magnificent sum, and if our Muhammadan friends will not hanker after a University of their own like their Aligarh brethren, it will go a long way towards equipping and maintaining a residential college in the most up-to-date style. We are, however, unable to understand the grounds on which Muttupet has been chosen for locating the proposed college. Let us hope, however, that the decision has not been finally made, and will not be made, until after bodies like the Central Muhammadan Association shall have been consulted as to

the spot which will best serve the interests of the community.

Vasishtha at last had to acclaim Yisvamisra a Brahmin Rishi. The National High School, N e g a - Negapatam National High School has after all been recognized. Mr. Pakkiriswami Pillai and his colleagues deserve to be congratulated on their having passed through the baptism of fire. But they can hardly rest on their oars. Their activity must enter on a new phase. Departmental recognition is not, we trust, their final goal. Nor should they become content as soon as their institution reaches the average level of efficiency. We would earnestly entreat them to place a high ideal before themselves and work steadily and patiently to realise it. We should be sorry to think that all the trial and anxiety of the past year only ended in the establishment of another school that measures its success by the number on the roll and its efficiency by the percentage of its passes. Sound education, in other words, the formation of a high type of character, should be the chief aim of the authorities. Smaller aims will be realised incidentally.

Mr. J. H. Stone has prepared two reports of great importance, one on Training Schools European and the other on Training Schools for the year 1904. They furnish much matter of interest both to the educationist and to the general reader. Training Schools, be it remembered, have in the immediate future a great part to play in the development of primary education. It is therefore very gratifying to find in the report of Mr. Stone abundant evidence that their destinies are committed to the hands of an officer who combines clear perception with zeal and tact with

driving power. During the year the whole life of these training schools has felt his quickening touch, some new blood has been infused into the personnel of the staffs, and a consciousness, dim perhaps, has been induced into the whole system that it has a high mission to fulfil and ought to qualify itself for it. This consciousness is apt to sink below the horizon in the daily fret and worry of routine, and it needs an officer of strong personality and power of detachment to keep it alive in the minds of his subordinates. Says Mr. Stone: "Neither the members of their staffs, nor those who judge their work must be content with their turning out each year a few hundred men stuffed with a loose accumulation of facts about teaching and drilled into the observance of a mechanical routine. It must be realised by all concerned in it that the aim of training is not only to add to a teacher's knowledge and technical skill, but to exert a decided and permanent influence on his attitude of mind towards his profession, so that he may exercise it with a clearer perception of its aims and how they may best be realised."

Leaving out of account the Teachers' College at Saidapet and the Training Section of the Rajahmundry College, there were 41 training schools of all grades with 955 teachers under training. Government maintains 28 of these schools, Coorg maintains 1, and Mission bodies maintain the remaining 12. Indigenous agencies have not one training school to their credit. Considering how inadequate the supply of trained teachers is, it is pity that these agencies, which employ a large number of teachers on their staffs, have not yet seen the necessity of training a few masters every year. We would draw the earnest attention of the authorities of our larger ins-

titutions to this crying defect and hope that they will ere long extend their usefulness in this most necessary direction. The Department of Education has in more than one annual report called upon indigenous agencies to provide for the training of their teachers. It is not to be wondered at that the call has so far fallen on deaf ears, for how few school-managers read the Director's report for the purpose of receiving suggestions! Direct appeals to individual school-authorities with specific proposals must be made, and we believe that with gentle and repeated pressure the Department will evoke a fair measure of response.

The question of suitable buildings received during the year considerable attention. Four schools had 'handsome and commodious buildings' erected for their use. A type design has been drawn up by the Consulting Architect in consultation with the Inspector of Training Schools, and buildings according to it have been begun in several places.

One great improvement that Mr. Stone has effected is to secure continuity of service in these schools. Frequent changes of staff are the bane of Government institutions, and we have more than once lamented the fact that no way has been yet discovered of giving teachers promotion without necessarily transferring them. It is a great thing therefore that Mr. Stone is able to write to the Director: "In nearly all the schools, the same Headmaster remained in uninterrupted charge throughout the working part of the year. This has not previously usually been the case, and is due to your refusal to supply short vacancies in the Sub-Assistants' ranges from the training school staffs. The gain to the schools must have been very great."

The Christmas vacation lectures to the

training, but since appearing for the practical test depends on passing the written examination, and the results of this are clearly stated in the inspection report and are what the school is chiefly judged by, the main work of the schools had come to be preparing students by dictating notes and frequent practice in answering questions on them for these examinations. That this kind of work has not much bearing on practical efficiency, and is especially unsuitable for men of such low attainments as Primary grade teachers is, I think, obvious. It is, however, still being done in the schools and will continue to be done till the reorganisation now under consideration is effected.

Pending this reorganisation, I have, with Government's approval, tried to mitigate the most striking defect of the training schools—their failure to extend the Primary teacher's range of knowledge and ideas—by the holding of a special Fifth Standard examination for which 25 of the Government Training schools and five of the aided schools sent up candidates.

The introduction of the course of studies tested by this examination has, so far as it goes, been of undoubted use, and in most schools, great interest has been evinced in it by both teachers and students, and a very satisfactory proportion of the latter succeeded in passing. It is proposed to continue the general educational course this year with some modifications suggested by experience.

This part of training school work is incidentally proving very useful in helping me to gauge the capacities and needs of the primary students. I find that most of them come to the schools not only appallingly ignorant but with the mental development, grown men as they are, of an average European boy of ten

years old. They are totally unaccustomed to look at anything with attention, so that to find out how many pieces of wood an ordinary bench is made of, is for them a real intellectual exercise. I should judge too that their powers of sense perception are largely undeveloped. They hear and see, as children do, in the mass, and need careful training in discrimination. As far as seeing goes, the teachers in the training schools are beginning to understand this and to use drawing and nature study to cultivate the habit of accurate observation. I have myself found their attempts at drawing most illuminating. Even after a fair amount of dexterity has been acquired, a strange inability even to copy often remains. Of inventiveness, hardly a trace shows itself—though one student did draw a crow with four legs. This being so, it is not surprising that abstract thinking is beyond them. I have constantly found that the distinction between the subject-matter of a lesson and the method of teaching it is too subtle. The year's experience has, I think, shown that the work laid down for the special Fifth Standard examination, especially, the nature study, blackboard drawing and common sense arithmetic and simple geometrical notions is well suited to the end in view—such mental development as the time allows—and when the reorganisation is effected and very much more time is given to general education, the extended curriculum may safely be drawn up on similar lines."

The report on European Schools is likewise instructive reading, and the Director records that he is "indebted to Mr. Stone for this interesting report which is the first of its kind." There are at present 37 institutions for the education of Europeans, all under private management. In

1904 the number of pupils in them was 3536. Of these only 48 were in the College department. The Upper Secondary department contained 459, the Lower Secondary department 943, and the Primary department 2086. These facts show that the inclination for higher studies is sadly lacking in the classes for which these European schools are intended. Mr. Stone would blame the schools for not stimulating scholastic interests and ambitions in their students. We believe, however, that the other explanation suggested fully covers the facts, viz., the ease with which European and Eurasian lads of imperfect education obtain well-paid situations in the telegraph and railway services. For the same reason too the education service is filled with women teachers. The preponderance of mistresses, however, is not confined to India, but is noticeable in England, while in America it has reached a magnitude which has alarmed the other sex. Mr. Stone's remarks on the subject are exactly like those made by the Mosely commissioners. "Salaries up to about fifty rupees a month attract women into the teaching profession, because a woman does not expect to keep a family on her earnings and if she marries and is unfortunate enough to lose her husband, she can revert to teaching. It is not, therefore, surprising that women have tended to oust men in the European schools, or to put it another way, that the ease with which managers could secure women teachers has prevented much inducement being held out to men to qualify for the lower grades of the teaching profession."

Fifty-four per cent. of women teachers as against nineteen per cent. of the men have been trained and they are conscientious and efficient teachers, and for children in the primary classes, I do not think that the schools could be better staffed. As children

develop into boys, however, I think they need a man's control and teaching and I should be glad to see the lower secondary forms taught to a greater extent by men."

With regard to efficiency, the high school and lower secondary departments do not appear to satisfy Mr. Stone. The defects that he points out are exactly those that are observed in Indian schools. For example we read on the subject of English teaching:

"Too little attention is often given to the selection of good subject matter for the English reading lessons and of good poetry for recitation. In the lessons, the subject matter is very largely neglected and the time is spent in incessant grammatical exercises, parsing, analysis and recasting of sentences."

In the Primary department, the teaching is thorough, and the children get a good grounding in the three R's. "The teachers have as a rule been trained and do their best to apply what they learnt in the training school." Nothing can be more unlike the state of Indian Primary instruction.

Our readers' attention must be drawn to another point in this report. Mr. Stone thinks, and the Director agrees, that among Protestant schools there is a waste of teaching power in Madras.

"Doveton College and Bishop Corrie's High school have high school classes aggregating 41, 24 and 47 pupils for the sixth, fifth and fourth forms respectively or 112 in all, i.e., between them they make a high school of reasonable size. I do not think it can be doubted that one high school department instead of two would be more economical and efficient. Similarly, there are scattered over Madras a number of schools with skeleton Lower Secondary departments. If it could be arranged that fewer schools should teach beyond the

primary standard, lower secondary education would be improved. There is, of course, the difficulty that young children cannot go far from their homes to school, but I do not think that, e.g., both the St. George's Cathedral school and the Christ Church school need be lower secondary. What seems to be wanted is some kind of representative board for the Madras European Protestant schools, and

I mention the matter here in the hope that managers will consider the possibility of the constitution of such a board in view of definite proposals for it being put forward later."

We have quoted this suggestion because there is need for its being followed in other places than Madras and by other managers than those of European schools.

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SCOTTISH UNIVERSITY EDUCATION—II.

IN the June number of the *Educational Review* I dealt in detail with the Faculty of Arts in the Scottish Universities and discussed the chances an Indian student has of competing successfully for the I.C.S. examination. In this article I propose giving a sketch of the medical education in the Scottish Universities, that of Edinburgh in particular, and giving an outline of the I.M.S. examination.

The student is expected to pass the Preliminary examination of the Scotch Board of Examinations, before he begins the study of medicine. The medical Preliminary examination is the same as that of the Arts except that the standard is slightly lower. I would refer the reader to my article in the June Number of the *Review* for detailed information about the Preliminary examination. In Edinburgh a matriculate of the Indian Universities is expected to pass an examination in Sanskrit or Arabic if he has not already taken one of these subjects for the Matriculation Examination or in the student's own language if he has already passed in the former classical languages. The examination mainly consists of translations which need not scare an Indian student off his wits. There is a professor in Sanskrit as well as in Arabic. The Indian student might take out one of

these two classes for a fee of three guineas and pass the Preliminary examination within six months. He might also obtain a special permission from the Senators to take out the qualifying classes for the degree in medicine. But he will not be allowed to sit at any of the degree examinations without completing the medical Preliminary. A graduate of the Indian, Colonial or British Universities is exempted from the Preliminary examination altogether.

Before beginning the medical study, a student is expected to register himself as a medical student. This formality consists in paying half a crown to the funds of the General Medical Council and getting a certificate and the registered number from the registration office. Then he will be considered "a medical" in every sense of the word. Then there are two great Boards of Examination for the qualification to entitle a man or woman to practise in Britain. I must not omit to say here that in Britain no man is allowed to practise medicine and surgery, without a qualification from one of the examining bodies. A quack is liable to prosecution. But a "bone-setter" (one who deals with fractures and dislocations by mere manipulation of the limbs, but not by operative methods) is tolerated, and many physicians sometimes envy his reputation. There are some examining boards which try to bring the examination within the reach of most students while

there are others again which make them the monopoly of the capable and the leisured few. There are two such examining boards for medicine in Scotland, the one being the Royal College of Physicians and Surgeons, which gives to the successful candidates the diploma of L. R. C. P. and S., &c. This is called the "triple qualifications" and the examinations are held conjointly in Edinburgh and Glasgow, once every three months. The other examining body is the University which confers the degree of M. B. Ch. B. The degree examinations are held usually twice in the year, namely, in March and July. The student has therefore first to decide whether he wishes to take the diploma or the degree. Most of the Indian students are content to take the "college examinations" as the diploma examinations are called. The college examining board recognises the examinations passed by students in the Indian Universities, all except the final, which the student is expected to take before he gets the diploma of the L. R. C. P. and S., &c. Those who have had most of their medical training in India find it economical to take the diploma instead of bothering about the degree. For the degree of M. B. Ch. B. the Universities necessitate a residence of a period not less than two years. Whatever his qualifications may be, and wherever he might have received his medical education, he should pass all the examinations for the degree in Scotland. Moreover, as I have already said, the examinations are held only twice a year. This makes the standard of the examinations very high and raises the value of the degree considerably. But it must be the ambition of all the medical students to possess the M.D. degree of a decent University, some day in their life. Though success in life depends more on the man

than on his qualifications, the M.D. degree of a good University is a desirable hall-mark which assures one of a decent social position. The college board of examinations does not belong to the Scotch Universities even very remotely, so it does not require to be dealt with in this article except incidentally.

The course of study for the M. B. Ch. B. degree extends over a period of five years, two of which at least must be spent at the University in which the student wishes to graduate. The other three years might be spent at any other recognised University in Britain, India or the Colonies. As the student is expected to pass all the examinations required for the degree, I should advise the student to spend at least four years at the University in which he wishes to graduate. The examinations mean a great deal of cramming and acquaintance with the peculiar methods and views of the particular University. The long winter term begins in October and ends in March: while the short summer session commences in May and terminates in July. These two terms together form the academic medical year. A student is expected to take out classes at least on two subjects during each academic year. A hundred lectures are usually delivered during the course of the winter session on all the important subjects and fifty lectures in summer. Most of the practical classes are held during the summer session. As it is very hard to understand and get a grasp of a new scientific subject in the course of a hundred lectures, most of the students take all the important classes once again within the period of their examination. The professional examinations which a student has to go through successfully before he is admitted to the degree of M. B. Ch. B. are four. The first of these

comes off at the end of the first year of the medical study and comprises the following subjects—Chemistry, Physics, Botany and Zoology—writtens, orals and practicals. A candidate may undergo an examination in any two of the above subjects at the end of the first winter session and the remaining two at the end of the following summer, thus completing the first professional at the end of the first year. In this examination each subject stands separate by itself and a candidate who has once passed in any one subject will not be asked to undergo a re-examination in that subject. One might therefore take the four subjects at four different examinations. The number of marks required to get a pass in each subject varies from 50% to 60% of the maximum number of marks allotted to it. After completing the first professional, the student is permitted to take the Second Professional, at the end of the third year of medical study. The subjects for examination are Anatomy, Physiology and Materia Medica and Therapeutics. The candidate must pass in at least two subjects at one examination, while the third might be taken at any subsequent examination. At the end of the fourth year the Third Professional comes off in Pathology, Medical Jurisprudence and Public Health. A candidate cannot expect to get through in any one of these subjects without showing a special merit in it. Finally there comes the Fourth Professional or the "Final" at the end of the fifth year. The examination begins in May and continues to the end of June lasting for about two months, which ordeal is very trying to the unfortunate examinees. The subjects for examination are Medicine, Surgery, Midwifery and Gynecology. The final examination is held only once a year; so those who get

'ploughed' once have to wait a full year for another chance. A candidate who gets successfully through two subjects in June generally gets a "special" examination in the third subject in the following October in Edinburgh and Glasgow. But in Aberdeen, and I think in Dundee also, two finals are given in a year, one in April and the other in July. The final is considered to be a matter of chance often, as a great stress is laid on the "clinical examinations" (questions at the bed side) which depend on the nature of the cases available in the hospitals. Still the examinations are not very difficult and a painstaking student of average abilities may get on all right to the end. Five years is the time usually allowed for the medical study, but a great many students take about six years to take the M.B. degree of Edinburgh. After passing the final examination the candidate is permitted to take the degree and then begin to practise his art on his fellow creatures in the wide world.

The fees are usually four guineas for each of the winter classes and three guineas for the summer ones. But a perpetual ticket for each class costs six guineas. The perpetual ticket for the hospital costs about twelve guineas. The fees are about six guineas for each of the professional examinations and half that amount for each reappearance. On the whole for the class and examination fees one should count upon not less than forty guineas a year or two hundred guineas for the five years: about fifty or sixty guineas for books and instruments for the whole course.

The life itself costs not less than sixty guineas a year, but often a great deal more. It is so difficult to say anything dogmatically about the cost of board and lodgings, when the students are of course given the liberty to reside

wherever they like in the city. It depends so much on the habits of the individual student. What is economical to one is often the reverse of it to another. One could hardly expect to get a decent room and something nice to eat for anything less than 25s. a week. One might put up with some inconvenience for a year or two, but five or six years is a very long time, and a student cannot keep good health in Scotland and do justice to his studies unless he has a decent accommodation and good nourishing food. A great many Indian students in Edinburgh spend from thirty to thirty-five shillings and even forty shillings per week for board and lodgings. The dress for the five years may cost from forty to fifty guineas or a little more if the student wishes to move in society and keep himself not behind the fashions which change at least once a year even in regard to man's apparel. Then comes the question of pocket-money which is an important item in the student's life. To entertain friends with hospitality and throw oneself into what is going on around means money, and the success of the social life within the University and outside of it depends on the amount of pocket-money one allows oneself. Again there are the Clubs and Debating Societies, &c., which one must keep in touch with to do justice to his culture. All these small items of expense mount up to a considerable sum. So I think it is impossible for an Indian student to manage the whole medical course of study with anything less than £650, though I hear some native students of Scotland could manage it with £500 or even less. I think it is a tight-fit to allow even £750 for the whole course. Anything between £800 and £900 is comfortable whereas a £1000 is a fair allowance. One ought not to forget to include in the allowance the very necessary expenses of travelling. The medical study

and the wear and tear of the hospital work necessitate frequent though short holidays, which are very expensive in Scotland. Moreover Edinburgh is one of the most expensive cities in Britain to live in. Therefore the total expenses might vary from £700 to £1200, depending entirely on the student.

The staff of the medical department in the University of Edinburgh is one of the best, if not the best in Britain. Most of the professors are very eminent men, who have done original work in their subjects and contributed something to the sum of human knowledge. One professor lectures on only one subject and he has been at it all his life. So one might learn a great deal from the lectures of the professor, which fact is taken advantage of by the students of Edinburgh who believe more in studying the notes of the professor's lectures than the prescribed text-books. Instances are on record of some prizemen having gone through the whole course of medical study without buying a single text-book. The laboratories in Chemistry, Physics, Physiology, Pharmacology, Bacteriology and Public Health are well equipped and magnificently laid out in Edinburgh, giving every facility to the student to do some research work. The Scotch Universities are eminently teaching bodies, making the class work the basis for the examinations. The professor is always one of the two examiners in each subject and has not a little to do with the management of the degree examinations. Attendance at each class is ascertained by the professor "calling cards" 26 times during the winter and 13 times during the summer terms: the student must put in at least 14 cards in the former and 7 in the latter instances. Three class examinations are held in winter and two in summer, while the student

is expected to be present at all these examinations and obtain not less than 20 % of the maximum number of marks allotted to each subject to get a certificate which allows him to sit at the degree examinations. There are also certificates of merit distributed to the students who score more than 50 % of the total number of marks in the class examinations. The first two or three men who secure the highest number of marks receive the University bronze medals and sometimes books and instruments as well, which are of course the gift of the professor. Scotch students are very industrious and painstaking as a rule, and a stranger finds it very hard to compete with them successfully. But taken as a whole, leaving a margin for the circumstantial disadvantages of the new situation, the Indian students get on remarkably well though few have acquitted themselves very brilliantly. There are nearly 25 Indian students in the Edinburgh University and about 40 in the Royal Colleges of surgeons and physicians, studying medicine.

It may be asked whether it is worth while going to Britain at such cost and risk to get medical education when there are very good Universities in India. It is very difficult to answer this question, as what is worth while to one may not be so to another. Success in life depends, as I have already said, not so much on the *degree* as on the man himself, except in so far as the education which the degree signifies has contributed not a little to the making up of the man. This is essentially the case with the medical calling. The medical profession is eminently one of *personality*, the success depending entirely on what the physician is to the patient—his manners and behaviour, his education, tact, resourcefulness, self-sacrifice and his desire to serve the cause

of suffering humanity. This is not what a University would give, neither could it venture or claim to do so. This is the result of a healthy and bracing environment in youth and a thorough understanding of human nature in all its many shades and moods. Nothing contributes more to make the *man* than travelling abroad and residing in foreign countries, amid strange people and novel surroundings. It draws out the latent faculties and teaches in no small degree self-reliance, tact and resourcefulness. The longer one stays away from one's home the better it is for the individual and for the community. The medical study extending over five years gives one sufficient time to benefit by his new environment if that is possible. At present the destinies of India and Britain are one to a great extent. Under existing circumstances it is not possible to make a study of the true British character in India. We can form no real conception of British civilization from the broken, distorted and one-sided glimpses we get of it at this distance. It is the bounden duty of those that go to foreign lands, especially to Britain, to be the most trustworthy interpreters of the culture and the civilization of the West. I think it is given to the medical student to get nearest to the heart of a country if he avails himself of the opportunities open to him and hear its throb and feel its pulse as it struggles hard at every new fad of materialism. Others may see the society at its best and picture to themselves visions of the ideal state of humanity under existing conditions. But to the medical man the individual appears bereft of all external embellishment and the suffering humanity thrusts itself on his observation and sympathy in all its naked simplicity, utter need and despair. The queer

eccentricities of human nature, the ebb and flow of human emotion, the chequered good and evil of daily life, the virulence of human passion, the joy and pathos of daily hopes and despair, are known in their actuality to the genuine physician. Who else can rightly fathom the depth of human need, gauge the height of human ambition or estimate the worth of the many trivial things of life, but a physician, whose duty it is to sit by the bedside, soothe the pillow of pain and catch glimpses of the shadow of death? The opportunities given to a medical man are many and unique. Would that many Indian students make use of them to the good of their country!

There is also another consideration. Medical education in India seems to be very unsatisfactory from the scientific point of view. In some of the medical schools here the staff is not very efficient. A professor is often expected to lecture in one subject for a year or two and then he is asked to, lecture on quite a different subject. It has fallen to the lot of some to lecture on half a dozen subjects in a few years. No sane person could possibly swear that the professors of these schools are living encyclopedias of medical learning, and that they could lecture to students on any subject they are called upon to take. This might be a very desirable item of a variety entertainment, but it is a violation of the primary law of scientific education. In Britain, especially in Edinburgh, the professors realise that they are mere human beings and feel their limitations, so much so that they are content to specialise in one subject and lecture on it alone all their life. Concentration and specialisation are the watchwords of modern science and the medical education is mainly actuated by these ideas. Taking all these points into

consideration I think it is worth while to spend £1000 or more on medical education and go to Edinburgh if one could possibly afford it. If cheapness is a great consideration, Aberdeen or Glasgow might be recommended, as the expenses are usually 20% less than in Edinburgh. A great many students go there from Ceylon for medical education and they find it very satisfactory. Glasgow has large hospitals and gives facilities for surgical work. But Edinburgh has a world wide reputation as the centre for medical study. London and Dublin try very hard to compete with it, but they often fail hopelessly. No doubt Dublin has the magnificent Rotunda hospital for midwifery and London gives facilities for surgical practice. But the teaching and training given at Edinburgh is the best in the British Empire, as it aims at a good all-round education.

It may be worth the while of a student to spend a year or two in London or on the continent of Europe to specialise in any subject he chooses after he graduates in Edinburgh. The "specialist" is the rage at the present day in Britain. It is impossible to do away altogether with the general practitioner (family doctor). His duty is to attend to the ordinary ailments of life and give counsel and help according to the needs of the patient in the country as well as in the city. He is expected to know something of every disease and do his best for every case that comes to him. India very keenly appreciates this kind of practitioners, some of whom living in large cities make no trifling fortune in their lifetime. But as the modern craze of science is for speciality, so the specialist is the goal a medical student hopes to reach some day. He poses as an authority on certain kinds of diseases, and he believes that the patients subject to those particular

diseases are to approach him directly for treatment. Though the specialist has to wait his time to build up a lucrative practice, in the end he is sure of success. His lot is none the less enviable as he has his appointed hours of work and is free for the rest of the day. He could afford to have peace in the day and sleep at night. But India has not begun to appreciate the specialist sufficiently yet. I dare say she might be soon educated up to it, if a few leading physicians make up their mind to be specialists. The Indian student is by nature more akin to philosophy and other mental sciences than to the hard matter-of-fact physical sciences. So he must be willing to work hard for years, should he desire to do something worth leaving behind him in the medical science, the most practical of all sciences. There are several places in Britain and Europe that will afford opportunities for specialisation in any one or more branches of medical study. London gives a good scope for surgical practice while Edinburgh claims to teach medicine almost to perfection. Dublin has the famous hospital for obstetrics. Paris has a fame second to none in Dermatology while Vienna is pre-eminently noted for Ophthalmology and Berlin for Bacteriology. At all events speciality is a good accomplishment, and one might be able to combine it with the run of general practice in India. Those who have Indian qualifications in medicine cannot do better than work a speciality in one of the great cities of Britain or the continent of Europe. Some knowledge of French and Latin will be of great use to the student proposing to study on the continent, while most of the best medical books in the field are written originally in German.

The ambition of most of the students of medicine in this country is to get into the

Indian Medical Service (I.M.S.) whereas the attitude of the British student is quite the reverse. A good student who believes in his own capacity does not care to leave his home and slave in a hot country like India for a mere pittance of Rs. 350 per mensem. But to an Indian student it is a capital start to get into the I.M.S. as his sphere of work is in his own country. Realising the inefficiency of the material that avails itself of the I.M.S., the Government of India have of late raised its scale of salaries. This has the desired effect; already some very good men in England have begun to compete for the service, and the competition has become very keen. So an Indian student cannot be oversanguine of success unless he is very brilliant. Still there is so much of chance in these competitive examinations that it is a pity for any one to lose a chance of getting into the I.M.S. One ought not to forget that, for an Indian, as long as he is in the army, the associations with the other officers will not always be of the best and happiest. But there is always a chance of his being transferred to the civil department if he has a god-father to back him up. Of course it is open to question whether a capable man should even try to get into the I.M.S. as the life in the army unfits one so much for a lucrative and independent city practice. One cannot help noticing that not a single Indian from the Madras Presidency has ever got into the I.M.S. while there are many who have done so from the other Presidencies. Graduates of Edinburgh University stand a good chance of coming up high in the competitive examination though it is best to have a year's coaching in London before he sits at it. The medical board is very strict and will not let in a man who has the slightest trace of organic disease in his body. There

are some difficulties in the way, no doubt, but no venture, no gain.

We have a most magnificent form of pharmacopœia in India and our Ayurvedic system of medicine is of great repute among the mass of our people. Some of our remedies are almost miraculous in their effects. But we have no surgery worth speaking of. Our diagnosis (of disease) is without the aid of instruments. If our physicians would only use instruments in diagnosing a disease and try to combine the European system of surgery with the Indian system of medicine, one could foresee a great future for India and a great gain to suffering humanity. A triumph of medical science is a triumph of human life over its worst physical enemies and as such it deserves the consideration of the best and the most gifted men and women all the world over.

D. S. RAMACHANDRA RAO.

THE IDEALS OF A STUDENT.

A student's life is one of strict discipline and training. Intellectually, it is not, as some dull fools suppose, intended for mere mechanical cram or parrot-like study of stray, isolated facts and names. Morally, it is not a period of slackness or freedom. The career of a student, at school and college, from the first day to the last, is a period of earnest and strenuous preparation for the duties and responsibilities of after-life. It is a period of self-restraint and hardship when, scorning delights and living laborious days, one has to devote oneself heart and soul to the rooting out of evil and unhealthy tendencies, as far as possible, and to the acquisition of worthy qualities and habits calculated to stand one in good stead in this life and in the life to

come. It is a period—as it was the case in Ancient India—of strict "*Brahmacharya Asrama*"—a principle, honoured alas! in these days, more in its breach than in its observance,—when knowledge ought to be the motto, purity and simplicity of life the pole-stars, humility, obedience and devotion to study the beacon-lights of its enthusiastic votaries. Such being the case, it is obligatory on every student, instead of shuffling through this period as best he can, to address himself to it with all zeal and earnestness and derive from it the utmost benefit it is capable of yielding.

What, then, ought to be a student's ideals, his aims and aspirations? For the sake of convenience and clearness, I shall, in this article, mark out the ideals into three divisions—physical, intellectual, and moral,—and dwell on each separately.

What is the physical ideal? It is obligatory on every student that he should, in the course of his education, cultivate a taste for healthy and vigorous sports. The taste, by being given sufficient exercise, should grow into a regular habit of our lives, with its imperious calls for constant gratification. There is seldom any school or college in these days, without full and ample provision for gymnastics, and for such games as cricket, football and tennis. It is, therefore, the duty of every student to take full advantage of these opportunities and, besides taking active physical exercise in his school and college days, also to cultivate a habit in that direction, for the good of the days to come. It is a well-known fact that the natives of this country are notorious for not at all taking any exercise worth the name, once they bid a final adieu to their school or college. The only exercise that a present-day native official is expected to take

consists in his short walks or perhaps drives from his lodgings to his office and *vice versa*, and also perhaps in his occasional and aimless peregrinations from the blue bed to the brown, within the four walls of his house. He finds no necessity at all for stepping out of the narrow prison of his house into the golden sunlight and the fresh evening air—it may be—to take a brisk walk, or to play tennis or football, or to try his hand in a boating excursion. What a bright and sunny picture is presented by the Englishman, as against this gloomy one! A regular craving for exercise is ingrained in his nature. Never was there a day when Charles Dickens, the great novelist, did not take his accustomed walks of unusual length and speed. Never was there a day when Mr. Gladstone, the great statesman, did not, towards the shades of evening, unbend his mighty mind and venture out into his expansive park to fell down huge oaks with swift and sharp strokes of his faithful axe. That is, to a large extent, the picture of the Englishman. It must, in this connection, be remembered that the manly and vigorous games of our youth and manhood should, however, in old age, give place to quiet and peaceful occupations and diversions, calculated to give exercise to our bodies, to keep our spirits fresh and lively, and to deprive old age of many a painful sting. Gardening, agriculture or botanical research, quiet walks amidst picturesque scenery, quiet boating in a limpid stream, these and many similar exercises may well be indulged in. Be all this as it may, what is chiefly required is a *love and taste* for healthy pastimes, lasting to the last day of our lives. Hence it is highly necessary that every student should cultivate a love and form a habit in this direction as much for

the strength of his body as for the virility of his mind.

I shall now proceed to dwell on the intellectual ideals of a student. The first ideal that he has to keep strenuously in view is that he has, in his school and college days, to cultivate a *love of knowledge and a habit of study*. In these days, there is seldom a good school or college which is not equipped with a library well-stocked with a choice collection of books of every variety, adapted for the use of students of every grade. Attached to the library he is also likely to find a Reading Room displaying on its tables a good number of papers and magazines—literary and otherwise—intended for his benefit. With these golden opportunities at his disposal, it imperatively devolves upon him to cultivate an assiduous habit of study. Some of the students may be under the impression that general reading of every kind is a sheer waste of time and that they could not better spend it than by getting up their texts and grammars well so as to score good marks in the examination papers. Such students have only to remember that they are gravely mistaken in their view and that they are sure to come to grief in the long run. I should, in this connection, like to call the attention of the student to three important points with regard to study. In the first place, he has to pay particular attention to a right choice of books. He should not waste his precious hours and fritter away his stored-up energies in a perpetual perusal of trashy and trivial literature which perhaps appeals to his imagination and affords him some amusement for the passing hour. He must, on the other hand, cultivate a love for the study of *manly and life-giving books*, calculated to stir up and invigorate his mind and to infuse fresh blood

into his intellectual veins. The true object of study, as of education, is the harmonious training of the various capacities of the mind—of judgment and reasoning, of virtuous thoughts and noble feelings. He should beware, therefore, of confining his attention to a single class of books or a single branch of literature. On the other hand, he must apply himself to the study of various subjects such as literature, history, philosophy, science and mathematics, all of which are highly fitted to develop some capacity or other of the mind, to clarify and enlarge his intellectual vision, to elevate him to a higher spiritual plane and to afford valuable nurture to the mind in the shape of useful knowledge.

The second point he—and for the matter of that, every educated man—has to bear in mind in connection with study, is that he should always remain in living touch with those immeasurable giants of wisdom, the peerless Lords of Intellect, the Bards Sublime, the inspired Children of God, whose words flow out, like manna, to quiet every troubled soul, and whose echoes, like martial music, are perpetually ringing through the corridors of time. He must ever have on his shelf, for constant study and reflection, handy volumes of Homer and Virgil, of Dante and Kalidasa, of Shakespeare and Milton, of Goethe and Carlyle and of a few others of that class, whose words, "pregnant with celestial fire" and broad-based on the hearts of men, will survive all mutations of time and circumstance and ring with clarion voice unto the remotest ages. Thirdly, he has to bear in mind that he must make some particular subject—literature or history, philosophy or science—according to his special tastes and inclinations, his *special and favourite study*, his *forte* and devote to it as much attention as he can com-

mand. "Something of everything and everything of something" should be his motto. This would pave the way for his own improvement, for the solace of his listless hours, and perhaps for the enhancement of the sum total of human knowledge by his valuable contributions to it.

The second intellectual ideal that a student has to bear carefully in mind is that he has to develop, in the course of his education, a *habit of original research*. Opportunities are not wanting in the various stages of his education for a cultivation of this habit. In the Primary department there obtains in some schools, the kindergarten system of teaching which is *par excellence* the one best fitted to cultivate his observation, to develop in him a sense of bulk, colour, distance and proportion, and to stir up his curiosity and spirit of inquiry. In the Secondary department, he has his object lessons and science teaching which fulfil the same ends. In the Collegiate department, there is the study of physiology and of some special branch of science in the B.A. as his optional subject. It is obligatory on every student to take full advantage of these opportunities, since, if rightly employed, they are calculated to develop in him a spirit of observation, of curiosity, of judgment and of inquiry, which are all so essential to the original investigator. Mr. Glyn Barlow rightly remarks in his "Industrial India" that the Indians are characterised by a spirit of *inquisitiveness* but not of *inquiry*. Again, it is well-known that charges are occasionally levelled against the educated Indians to the effect that their minds are barren, not fertile, receptive, not productive. It devolves on every student, by the studies of his school and college days and by the labours of his after-life, to give the lie direct to these charges.

Many and almost illimitable are the regions in this country for the work of the original investigator. Only patient, dauntless, and painstaking men are wanted to venture forth into them, to explore their hidden corners and to clear up their lurking mysteries. He may devote himself to original research in any of the natural sciences, if his tastes lie in that direction. Or he may devote himself to original productions in literature, contributing, in this way, to the formation of an Indo-English literature serving as a true index and expression of our thoughts and feelings, views and idiosyncrasies, customs and manners, beliefs and usages. Or again he may turn his attention to original work in such subjects, as Ethnology, Ethnography, Folklore, Sociology, History, &c., all of which are far from technical and are of general interest and far-reaching importance, in the present condition of the country. India is a country of hundreds of castes and races and several sociological peculiarities of a complex and striking nature. There is therefore ample scope for original research in the region of Ethnology in India. Or again if we take the History of this country, what ample scope there is for the patient investigator to work in that field! A correct and authoritative History of India, based upon a thorough and scholarly study of old records, papers and reports, of coins and inscriptions, of ruins of temples, cities, monuments and palaces, and lit up throughout by the fervid patriotism of the writer, has yet to be written. Most of the present-day Histories of India are faulty and imperfect, disfigured by prejudiced views and opinions and perverted by gross and wilful misrepresentations of men and events. Having a due regard to these facts, it must appear highly necessary that every student should, at school and college, acquire this valuable habit of

original research, so that he may in after-life, so far as time and convenience allow, do some substantial work of research in any department which appears congenial to his tastes and temperament.

Another intellectual ideal that a student has to lay to heart is that he should fully avail himself of the manifold opportunities afforded by his academic life for qualifying himself for local self-government. It would be difficult to find a single school or college worth the name without its debating society and perhaps its hostel also. Most of our students are members of these and are expected to take an active part in the manifold transactions in connection with them. Not to speak of the humility, patience, tolerance, respect for others' opinions and such other qualities which the periodical meetings in connection with them are calculated to teach them, these societies are also likely to qualify them to some extent for the art of local self-government. They meet from time to time in a collective body for the election of their office-bearers. They meet again, now and then, for the passing of rules and regulations after a thorough discussion. They meet again occasionally for the transaction of important and sundry items of business. These various duties in which they would be engaged are sure to equip them with some of those sterling qualities of head and heart essential to an administrator. They acquire a capacity for constructive business, a spirit of calm deliberation and of sinking petty jealousies and differences, a sense of the importance of united and co-operative action and lastly a wise judgment and discretion. Some of them may perhaps, in after-life, rise to high places of trust and responsibility, as ministers and otherwise, in native states. Some may become members of

Municipalities or District Boards. A few, with a commanding genius, may even have the chance of obtaining seats in the local Legislative Council. It is beyond question that the experience gained in their school and college societies, will stand them in good stead at that time.

I shall conclude my remarks on the intellectual ideals of a student with a few words on education itself. It is important that a student should clearly realise the meaning, the scope, and the purpose of education and try, as far as possible, to become a truly educated man at the end of his academic career. Education is not the same thing as instruction and does not mean the packing of the mind with dry, stray, undigested bits of heterogeneous information. On the other hand, it means the harmonious and all-round development of the various capacities of the human mind. We call that man a truly educated man whose observation is sharp, judgment unerring, reasoning close and cogent, who is virtuous and magnanimous in his conduct, who is inspired with high thoughts and noble sentiments, who can appreciate the æsthetic side of things in nature and in art and who is possessed of a firm will and a striking individuality. Judged by this test, most of our so-called educated men are nowhere. The ambition of most of us seems to be to pass a few examinations, to become "decked in little brief authority" and thereafter to trudge intellectually in a narrow groove of official routine, without a moment's thought of the boundless oceans of knowledge and wisdom surging up on either side. It is therefore no wonder that the present-day educated men of this country should be taunted and decried by persons qualified to speak on the subject as living and moving automata rather than persons

of a sharp intelligence or impressive personality. By making a thoughtful study of his books, whatever they be, by cultivating an intelligent love for mathematics and science, by frequent exercises in calm thinking and concentration, and by taking an active part in field-sports and debates, a student may, to some extent, achieve this liberal culture of head and heart which is the true object of education.

I shall now proceed to the moral ideals of a student. The first is that he has to cultivate at school and college a profound respect for law and implicit obedience to constituted authority. In the course of his education, a student has fixed rules and laws to obey without questioning. He also pays respect for constituted authority in the persons of his teachers, lecturers and professors. Obedience ought, in fact, to be the vital breath of a student. It is the first habit which academic life is pre-eminently calculated to implant in his mind. This habit would be of considerable value to him in his capacity as a citizen. Constituted authority may be either temporal or spiritual. On the temporal side, it is represented by our Government, by its laws, influence and authority, to which we have to pay our full and unstinted allegiance. On this point I need not lay much stress, since the Indians are, by tradition and feeling, a strictly loyal and law-abiding people. On the spiritual side, it is represented by the authority of our scriptures, our Vedas, Sastras and Puranas. It is highly necessary that we should learn to pay our reverential homage and fealty to these also. A spirit of worldliness and levity which prompts a man to pooh-pooh these as unworthy of serious attention, is highly baneful. Every student has particularly to beware against the ingress into his mind of this

spirit which the materialistic character of Western culture and civilization may, perhaps, have a tendency to originate and develop. It is, however, absolutely necessary for every student to make a thoughtful, intelligent, rational and critical study of the various ideas and ideals of his religion so as to make them living and propelling forces of infinite energy within him.

Another moral ideal that he has to keep strenuously in view, is that he has to cultivate a spirit of *esprit de corps*, of love and veneration for his school and *Alma Mater*. Many are the ties that bind a student to his school—his cricket and football, his reading room and debating society, his never-to-be-forgotten school-chums, the hopes and fears, the penalties and rewards of his every-day school-life. Every English youth enters with passionate enthusiasm into the life of his school or college and holds it in great love, regard and veneration, so long as breath endures. Talk to any Englishman of the schools or colleges of his earlier days—of Eton or Harrow, Christ Church or Merton College—and you will see how his eyes sparkle and his lips quiver with ecstatic emotion as he calls to mind the sacred streams, the tall ancestral trees, the shaded walks, the cloistered aisles "casting a dim religious light," the spacious college halls, the snug studies, the football and cricket matches, the boating races, the 'Union' speeches. I would call upon every student to glorify and revere his schools and colleges of earlier days, in the same way. Allowance must, however, be made for the shortcomings that Indian students labour under in this connection. In the first place, most of them pass through a succession of schools—good, bad and indifferent—in the course of their education. Thus,

their memories and associations are broken, fleeting and fragmentary, and not continuous and enduring as they ought to be. Secondly, our schools and colleges are only of recent growth and do not possess that venerable halo of age and association which is characteristic of English institutions. Still, it devolves on our students to make the best of their circumstances and love their schools and colleges with filial gratitude and affection. They must bear in mind that, in this patriotism for their schools, they are only laying the foundation of a larger, deeper and fuller patriotism for their country. What India needs most at present—for her political, economic, social and moral regeneration—is patriotism at the hands of her sons—not lip-deep or luke-warm, but deep, fervid, burning and all-consuming. If only we look at modern Japan, we can easily understand what the little Jap by dint of patriotism has been able to accomplish in the course of about 60 years. Therefore, it well behoves every student to lay the foundation of this patriotism for his mother-land at school and college.

Going to another moral ideal, I have to remark that every student has to learn and develop a *sense of nationality* in the course of his education. He is likely to have as his classmates and school-mates members of various castes, creeds and religions in whose midst he to a large extent lives and moves and has his being. He comes in close contact with them and also learns to co-operate with them in various transactions. Thus mutual love and sympathy ought to be cultivated among them and they ought to learn to forget all racial hatred and animosity. At school and college they are all members of a common brotherhood, irrespective of caste, creed or colour; they live under the same rules and

regulations; they have a community of rights to safeguard and of duties to discharge; in a word, *they constitute a nation*. India is a country of jarring castes, conflicting races and clashing religions. But one and all of these races and creeds live under the ægis of the same Government and consequently ought to understand the value of corporate and united action in their common interests. It is therefore highly desirable that every student should lay the foundation of this sense of nationality at school and college.

I shall conclude this article with a few words of general advice to students. In the course of his education, every student has to lay the foundation of a *pure and unimpeachable character*. He has to repress and root out obnoxious tendencies and qualities and cultivate and foster the higher and nobler qualities of his nature, such as self-denial and self-sacrifice. A worthy character is the crown and glory of life and is the surest passport to success and distinction in life. Every student has to remember that he has to cultivate a strong sense of duty in the course of his education. If he has succeeded in doing this, it means that he has succeeded in trampling under foot all manner of sordid and selfish impulses and desires and is capable of soaring into a lofty region of spirituality. In the early stages of his education, it may well be that he is guided only by such motives as love of reward and fear of punishment. But as he advances further and further in his academic career, these motives should gradually disappear and give place to a sense of duty overruling all his actions. In conclusion, I would strongly advise every student to clearly comprehend and follow the beautiful ideals of life and conduct contained in the following poem:—

How happy is he born and taught
That serveth not another's will;

Whose armour is his honest thought
And simple truth, his utmost skill!
Whose passions not his masters are,
Whose soul is still prepared for death,
Not tied unto the world with care
Of public fame or private breath;
Who envies none that chance doth raise
Or vice; who never understood
How deepest wounds are given by praise,
Nor rules of state but rules of good:
Who hath his life from rumours freed
Whose conscience is his strong retreat;
Whose state can neither flatterers feed
Nor ruin make accusers great;
Who God doth love and early pray
More of his grace than gifts to lend
And entertains the harmless day
With a religious book or friend.
This man is freed from servile bands
Of hope to rise, or fear to fall;
Lord of himself, though not of lands,
And having nothing, yet hath all.

P. S. RAMAKRISHNA AIYAR.

III. SUMMATION OF PRASTARATIONS OF NUMBERS USING ONLY CERTAIN GIVEN DIGITS.

1. To *prastarate* any given number using only certain given digits:—

Take down the given number first, placing it in the units' place and deduce every other number from the one just above itself making the following changes only—In any number take the first digit possible, which is liable to be changed in the following manner, from the left side of any number, (taking down the digits after it as they are in that number without any change) and put down in its place the greatest possible digit next to itself and place such a digit or digits before it as would make the sum of all the digits of the deduced quantity equal to the given number, taking at each time the greatest possible digit. Proceed on in this manner as far as it is possible and if the given number be not one of the given digits we should strike off the first number from these.

Thus all those *prastarations* of 5, using only the digits 1, 2 and 4 are—

14
122
212
1112
41
221
1121
1211
2111
11111

2. To find the number of the *prastarations* of any given number, using only certain given digits.

Let the digits be, for example, 1, 2, 3, 6 and 9 only.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Here, the first horizontal line contains merely the natural numbers in their order, the first square being occupied by nothing. Every number in the second line is obtained by adding the numbers in the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 6th and 9th (which are respectively the given digits) of the preceding squares, the squares being reckoned from right to left and the first square being always occupied by unity. And from this line we can find the required number of *prastarations*, each number being the number of *prastarations* of the number above it in the first line. Thus 6923 is the number of *prastarations* of 15 using the given digits and it is obtained by adding 3700, 1978, 1058, 162 and 25 which are respectively the numbers in the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 6th and 9th of the preceding squares. The reason for this is very simple. Suppose we take all the *prastarations* of 15 and strike off the last digit of each. The numbers that remain will be the *prastarations* of

(15—1), (15—2), (15—3), (15—6) and (15—9).

Therefore, for finding the number of *prastarations* of 15, we should add those numbers which are under (15—1), (15—2), (15—3), (15—6) and (15—9) of the first line, i.e., the numbers which are in the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 6th and 9th of the preceding squares. Here the numbers in the 2nd line are respectively the co-efficients of the different powers of x in the expansion of the multinomial expression

$1 - x - x^2 - x^3 - x^6 - x^9$. Therefore the *prastarations* of n using only the digits 1, 2, 3, 6 and 9 will be the co-efficients of x^n in the expansion of the above expression. In the above expression the different powers of x in the denominator are respectively the given digits only.

3. To find the sum of the local values of any digit in all the *prastarations* of any given number using only certain given digits, say for example, 1, 2, 3, 6 and 9 only.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
122	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
134	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1477	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
16243	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1785675	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
19629106	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
215773546	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2371896882	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
26073143522	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
28609765715	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
315056932438	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
3463268485558	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Here, the first two horizontal lines are explained in the preceding Art. Every number in the third is obtained by adding those

numbers in the 4th horizontal line which are in the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 6th and 9th of the preceding vertical lines. Every number in the fourth horizontal line is 10 times the number above it in the 3rd line + the number above it in the second line. And from this 4th line we can find the sum of the local values of any digit in the following manner. Suppose we have to find the sum of the local values of 6 in all the *prastarations* of 14. The sum of the local values will be that number in the 4th line which is under $14 - 6$ or 8 of the 1st line, which is 215,773,546. The same number will be the sum of the local values of 9 in all the *prastarations* of 17 and so on. And as every number in the third line is obtained by adding the numbers in the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 6th and 9th of the preceding vertical lines of the 4th line, it must be the sum of all those quantities obtained by substituting 1 for each digit of the *prastarations* of the number above it in the 1st line.

Let us find, for example, the sum of all those quantities obtained by substituting 1 for each digit of the *prastarations* of 6, using the digits 1, 2, 3, 6 and 9 only.

The numbers are:—

6	1
33	11
123	111
213	111
1113	1111
132	111
222	111
1122	1111
312	111
1212	1111
2112	1111
11112	11111
231	111
1131	1111
321	111
1221	1111
2121	1111
11121	11111
1311	1111
2211	1111
11211	11111
3111	1111
12111	11111
21111	11111
111111	111111
178565	

And by the table also we get 178565.

The multinomial expression for the fourth line of the above table will be

$$\frac{1}{1 - 10x - 10x^2 - 10x^3 - 10x^6 - 10x^9}$$

And the expression for the 3rd line will be:—

$$\frac{1}{1 - 10x - 10x^2 - 10x^3 - 10x^6 - 10x^9} \times (x + x^2 + x^3 + x^6 + x^9)$$

4. To find the sum of the digits in the units' place of the *prastarations* of any given number, using only certain given digits, say, for example, 2, 3, 5, 7 and 9 only.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
0	2	3	5	7	9	21	18	39	52	66	125							

Here, the numbers in the first horizontal line are merely the natural numbers in their order. Every number in the 2nd line is obtained by adding the numbers in the 2nd, 3rd, 5th, 7th and 9th (which are respectively the given digits) of the preceding squares, the squares being reckoned from right to left; and if the number above it in the first line be one of the given digits then that number should be added to the result. And from this line we can find the sum of the digits in the units' place of the given quantities, each number being the sum of the digits in the units' place of the *prastarations* of the number above it in the first line. Thus, 39 is the sum of the digits in the units' place of the *prastarations* of 9 and it is obtained by adding 21, 5, 2, 2 which are respectively the numbers in the 2nd, 3rd, 5th and 7th of the preceding squares, and 9, which is the number above it in the first line and which is one of the given digits.

The multinomial expression corresponding to this table is

$$\frac{2x^2 + 3x^3 + 5x^5 + 7x^7 + 9x^9}{1 - x^2 - x^3 - x^5 - x^7 - x^9}$$

It is very clear how this expression can be obtained.

5. To find the sum of all the *prastarations* of any given number using only certain given digits, say, for example, 2, 3, 5, 7 and 9 only.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
0	2	3	5	10	5	21	18	39	52	66	125
0	0	0	2	5	25	84	318	1140	4122	14916	53635
0	2	3	22	60	255	861	3198	11439	41272	149226	536475

Here, the first two lines are explained in Art. 4 above. The second two lines are obtained exactly in the same manner as the 2nd two lines in Art. 3 are obtained. We can find the sum of the given quantities from the 4th line, each number being the sum of the *prastarations* of the number above it in the first line. The multinomial expression for the 4th line in the above table is—

$$\frac{2x^2 + 3x^3 + 5x^5 + 7x^7 + 9x^9}{1 - 10x^2 - 10x^3 - 10x^5 - 10x^7 - 10x^9}$$

and the expression for the 3rd line is the above expression multiplied by

$$x^2 + x^3 + x^5 + x^7 + x^9$$

Let us find for example, the sum of all the

prastarations of 12, using the digits 2, 3, 5, 7 and 9 only.

39
57
237
327
75
255
2235
525
2325
3225
493
273
2253
3333
22233
723
2523
22323
5223
23223
32223
372
552
2352
3252
732
2532
22332
5232
23232
32232
3522
5322
23322
32322
33222
22222
536475

And from the table also we see their sum to be 536475.

6. To find how many times any digit occurs in all the *prastarations* of any given number using only certain given digits, for example 2, 4, 6, 12, 18, &c.

In this case, all the given digits have a common factor 2; we may strike off the common factor and then proceed on as in the preceding examples. If we strike off the

common factor 2, the given digits will be, 1, 2, 3, 6 and 9, &c.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	1	2	4	7	13	25	46	86	162			
..	1	3	8	19	43	95	204	431	900			
1	2	5	12	26	56	120	250	517	1062			

Here, the first 3 horizontal lines are obtained exactly in the same manner as those in Art. 3. Every number in the fourth line is the sum of the numbers above it in the 2nd and 3rd lines. And from this 4th line we can find the number of times any digit occurs in the same manner as the local-value of any digit; and as each of the given digits is divided by the common factor the difference between the digit and the sum of the digits in each *prastaration* should be divided also by the common factor. Every number in the 3rd line is the number of all the digits in all the *prastarations* of the number above it in the first line. Every number in this line may be obtained independently of the fourth line in the following manner; it may be obtained by adding those numbers of the same line which are in the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 6th and 9th of the preceding vertical lines and the number above it in the second line.

The multinomial expression for the 4th line will be—

$$\frac{1}{1-x-x^2-x^3-x^6-x^9}$$

and for the third line will be the above expression multiplied by $x + x^2 + x^3 + x^6 + x^9$.

7. Of all the *prastarations* of any given number using only certain given digits, to find the number of those which contain a certain given number of digits in each.

Let the given digits be 1, 2, 3, 6 and 9 only.

x	x^2	x^3	x^6	x^9	x^{10}	x^{11}	x^{12}	x^{13}
1								
1	1							
1	2	1						
0	3	3	1					
0	2	6	4	1				
1	1	7	10	5	1			
0	2	6	16	15	6	1		
0	2	6	19	30	21	7	1	
1	2	7	20	45	50	28	8	1
0	2	9	22	56	90	77	36	9
0	2	9	28	65	132	161	112	45
0	3	9	33	80	171	273	266	156
	&c.		&c.		&c.		&c.	

Here, every number except those in the first vertical line is obtained by adding those numbers in the preceding vertical line which are in the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 6th and 9th of the preceding horizontal lines, the horizontal lines being counted upwards. The number in the first vertical line should be 1 when the number of the horizontal line is one of the given digits, and zero when it is not. From this we can find the number of the given quantities, the number of the horizontal line being the sum of the digits in each *prastaration* and the number of the vertical line representing the number of the digits in each.

Here, the different numbers in any vertical line from top downwards are respectively the co-efficients of the different powers of x in the expansion of $x + x^2 + x^3 + x^6 + x^9$ raised to the power of the number of that vertical line. Therefore, the number of the *prastarations*

of n each containing d digits will be the co-efficient of x^n in the expansion of $(x + x^2 + x^3 + x^6 + x^9)^d$.

8. To find the sum of all the *prastarations* of any given number using only certain given digits, and each containing a certain given number of digits.

Rule:—Multiply the number of the quantities by the sum of the digits in each quantity, divide the product by the number of the digits in each quantity and multiply the quotient by the combination of as many units as the given number of digits in each quantity.

Let us find, for example, the sum of all the *prastarations* of 8 each of which contains 5 digits, using 1, 2, 3, 6 and 9 only.

The number of the *prastarations* is 30.

Their sum by the above rule is

$$\frac{30 \times 8}{5} \times 11111 = 533328.$$

And by regular addition also:—

11123
11213
12113
21113
11132
11222
12122
21122
11312
12212
21212
13112
22112
31112
11231
12131
21131
11321
12221
21221
13121
22121
31121
12311
21311
13211
22211
31211
23111
32111

533328

Let us find the sum of all the *prastarations* of 12 containing the digits 1, 2, 3, 6 and 9 only, each having 7 digits, by the assistance of the Multinomial Theorem.

The number of the *prastarations* is the co-efficient of x^{12} in the expansion of $(x + x^2 + x^3 + x^6 + x^9)^7$, i.e., of x^{12} in the expansion of $(1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^6)^7$.

$$\text{Here, } \begin{aligned} q + 2r + 5s &= 5 \\ p + q + r + s &= 7 \end{aligned}$$

p	q	r	s
6	0	0	1
4	1	2	0
3	3	1	0
2	5	0	0

The required co-efficient is

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{(1<)^7}{(1<)^6} + \frac{(1<)^7}{(1<)^4 \cdot (1<)^2} \\ &+ \frac{(1<)^7}{(1<)^3 \cdot (1<)^3} + \frac{(1<)^7}{(1<)^5 \cdot (1<)^2} \\ &= 7 + 105 + 140 + 21 \\ &= 273. \end{aligned}$$

And consequently their sum is

$$\frac{273 \times 12}{7} \times 111111 = 51999948.$$

Or, the sum of all the *prastarations* of n , using only 1, 2, 3, 6 and 9 each having d digits will be the co-efficient of x^n in the expansion of

$$\frac{10^d - 1}{9} \times (x + 2x^2 + 3x^3 + 6x^6 + 9x^9)^d$$

(To be continued).

CARCHERLA SRINIVASA RAU.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

By ANNA J. McKEAG, WELLESLEY COLLEGE.

Two years ago, Dr. Sadler, then Director of Inquiries and Reports, said to an American audience, "Every nation is controlled in part by its own past and cannot change its methods of education as if they were merely mechanical devices of photogravure or electric traction. Any ideal of education which is alive has its roots deep in history and possesses profound psychological significance. It is not a thing to be lightly tampered with or recklessly destroyed."

Without a proper recognition of this traditional and historical element it is not possible to appreciate and interpret the attitude of the two parties in the present educational controversy in England. English education has had, to use Sadler's words, "a contorted, painful growth." Lord Rosebery once characterized it as "a chaos of almost haphazard arrangement." It is like a great house composed of irregular and inharmonious additions to a primitive hut. The succession of parliamentary enactments, including even the Act of 1902, are to be regarded as repair-work; for England is still unwilling to tear down the ancestral hut.

Of these historical and traditional elements three at least demand consideration in any exposition of the present situation: (1) the origin of the Voluntary Schools; (2) the traditional attitude of the Government in regard to the management and support of schools; (3) the provisions of the Act of 1870 which are annulled or modified by the Act of 1902.

The Voluntary Schools, which are the chief bone of contention in the present controversy, had their beginning nearly a century ago. It is a singular fact that neither of the two men to whom their inception is due had any marked originality or breadth of view in education, both of them being decidedly mediocre in natural gifts and intellectual attainments. "Both," says Sir Joshua Fitch, "saw one particular phase of education in false perspective." And yet the history of elementary education in England in the early part of the nineteenth century is practically the history of the two educational organizations founded by Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell.

Lancaster was a warm-hearted, impulsive, philanthropic, improvident young fellow who, thwarted in his project of running away from home to go as a missionary to the Jamaica

Negroes, turned his altruistic zeal in another direction and opened in his father's poor little house the Borough Road School, free to any children who could not afford to pay fees. It was impossible for one man to teach, by any of the methods then in vogue, the thousand children who flocked to the school, and Lancaster hit upon the expedient of selecting a number of older boys to teach the younger the lessons they themselves had already learned. Thus arose, from the necessity for economy, the Monitorial System, afterwards much lauded as a great educational discovery. Everything was reduced to system. The school itself was a regiment with a complicated scheme of badges, officers and tickets. Of scientific pedagogy Lancaster had none: there is something almost touching in the naive enthusiasm with which he declares, "If 100 boys spell each 100 words for 200 mornings, there will be a grand total of 2,000,000 words spelled in the year!"

Philanthropists and statesmen became interested in Lancaster's work. A royal audience was obtained and the king himself subscribed to the cause, pleased, it is said, by Lancaster's reply to his question as to how one master could keep a thousand boys in order: "By the same method by which My Majesty's army is kept in order." In 1808 the Royal Lancasterian Society was formed to aid Lancaster's work; this society became in 1814 the British and Foreign Schools Society which still exists and controls about one out of every fourteen of the Voluntary Schools. The "British and Foreign" schools are non-sectarian, but religious; no denominational teaching is allowed in school hours. These schools were favored by the Whig party, the Edinburgh Review being always a stout champion.

The work of Lancaster and his Society naturally was viewed with disfavor by the Anglican clergy. These opponents of non-sectarian education, looking about for a man capable of organizing a rival system of elementary schools in which the doctrines of the Established Church should be taught, found Andrew Bell. Bell was a clergyman, rather narrow, intensely practical, definite in his aims, wholly self-satisfied, "a Philistine," says Fitch, "smug," says another biographer, and yet another, "a man vain of his literary ability whose writings show about as much literary skill as the minutes of a banking corporation." While Superintendent of the Military Orphan Asylum in Madras he had lighted upon the expedient of setting the older boys to teach the younger; the very Monitorial System which Lancaster had independently discovered.

Upon his return to England the church found in him a leader for its educational schemes, and the result was the establishment, in 1811, of the "National Society for the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church." The schools founded by the National Society soon became very numerous. At present over four-fifths of the Voluntary Schools are National Society schools. In the early days the religious instruction in these schools was emphasized to an extent almost incredible. In one of the official text-books in arithmetic this is a sample problem: "The children of Israel were sadly given to idolatry, notwithstanding all they knew of God. Moses was obliged to have three thousand men put to death for this grievous sin. What digits would you use to express this number?"

To summarize: The Schools of the British Society and those of the National Society both used the Monitorial System, and the curriculum was much alike in the two, except in the matter of religious instruction. The British schools were non-sectarian and made use of the Bible by reading without comment; in the National schools the doctrines of the Established Church were taught. It should be kept in mind that the term "Voluntary Schools" as used in the present controversy includes the schools of the Wesleyan, the Roman Catholic and other societies as well as those of the two societies just mentioned.

Turning now to the second of the historical elements which are essential parts of the present situation, the traditional attitude of the government toward the control and support of schools, we find that until 1833 the British government had given not a penny to the cause of education. In vain Lord Brougham had tried to rouse the British conscience to a sense of its duty to the children of the poor. In 1833, however, in the wake of the Reform Bill agitation, came an event almost unnoticed at the time, but epoch-making in the light of subsequent history: the first governmental grant to elementary schools. The grant was pitifully small, only £20,000, and was not given by act of parliament, for parliament would never have voted it, but was slipped in as an item in the Government budget. This grant, it should be noted, was to be administered by the Voluntary Societies. From such a small beginning grew the principle of Government aid to voluntary (denominational) societies: a principle which, it has been said, "came to call, and stayed thirty years."

From this time until 1870, education continued to receive alms at the back door of the govern-

ment. Parliament steadily refused to legislate in regard to education. When the Queen, in 1839, published an order creating a "Special Committee of the Privy Council on Education," the House of Lords marched in procession to carry a protest to the royal palace, fortunately in vain. This Committee, however, controlled the schools only in the sense in which a Scotch fish-wife controls the men of her family—by holding the purse-strings; since its inspectors had, as their chief duty, to decide whether or not individual schools should receive the government grant.

Still darker days were in store for education. In 1861 the government, looking about for a chance to retrench expenses, instituted through Mr. Lowe (the man who has gone down to history as the Minister who denied the possibility of a science of education) the educational abomination known as Payment by Results. By this scheme the government grant was distributed according to average attendance and "passes" in reading, writing and arithmetic. This is the period of "codes and cram," criticised by Matthew Arnold as productive of mechanical teaching and mere rote-learning. The aim of economy, however, was subverted: the grants decreased; teaching became unpopular, and many teachers found other callings more desirable.

Thus, in 1870, education was little more than a form of pauper relief. The government grant was administered entirely through the Voluntary Societies, the only check upon these societies being the system of inspection by government. With one small exception, up to 1870 there was not a single act of parliamentary legislation in regard to education. Says Craik, "The Statute Book was absolutely ignorant of a system which had involved the expenditure, from public funds alone, of more than 10,000,000 pounds sterling, which was regulating the education of about one half the children in the country, and which had introduced a new and strange element hitherto unknown to English life. No obligation rested upon a single school manager throughout the country to continue the work he had begun. There was nothing to render it impossible that the voluntary managers should by common consent strike work and thus render the education department a piece of useless machinery, without the steam that was necessary to keep it in motion."

The Liberal party recognized these defects in the existing state of affairs, and saw that the time had now come for making education a subject for parliamentary legislation. In 1870 the Liberals secured the enactment of the Forster

Bill, in the framing of which Mr. Gladstone had a large share. This act was epoch-making; most of its provisions remained unaltered for thirty-two years; and a knowledge of its essential features is indispensable to an understanding of the present situation in England.

Turning, then, to the act of 1870, the third of the historical factors which enter into the present controversy, we find that there are two provisions in the act important for our considerations. These are, (1) the institution of School Boards; (2) the establishment of a local rate.

The School Boards thus established are to be the local education authority for boroughs or parishes and are to be elected by the burgesses (of a borough) or the rate payers (of a parish) whenever the Education Department finds that the existing educational accommodation is inadequate. School Boards are to provide school accommodations and maintain the efficiency of the schools. It must be kept in mind, however, that the School Boards have no control whatever of the Voluntary Schools, which may exist as before. The School Boards have to do only with the new "public elementary" schools created by this Act: schools in which the chief instruction is in elementary subjects, and in which no religious instruction is given to which parents object. No religious formula or catechism may be taught in these public elementary schools; this is the provision usually referred to as the Cowper Temple Clause. It should be added that a Voluntary School may become a public elementary school by omitting all teaching of religious formularies except on the one or two days when diocesan inspection is made. It should also be added that School Boards have nothing to do with secondary or higher instruction, as some of them have discovered to their sorrow in recent years.

In regard to the second of the chief provisions of the Act of 1870, the establishment of a local rate, it should be noted that no part of this rate may be given to Voluntary Schools. It belongs exclusively to the new Board Schools. Both Board Schools and Voluntary Schools, however, may receive the government grant, and both may charge tuition fees to eke out their support.

Thus, since 1870 two great classes of schools have existed side by side in England: the Board Schools, administered by the local School Boards, supported partly by a local rate, and prohibited from giving sectarian instruction; and the Voluntary Schools, conducted by the National and other religious and philanthropic societies, supported by the contributions to the societies,

by the government grant and by fees, and offering instruction in church doctrine. In 1902 the number of Board Schools was 5,878; the number of Voluntary Schools 14,275, over four-fifths of the Voluntary Schools being administered by the National Society and therefore under the control of the Church of England.

Such was the situation in 1902. Mr. Gladstone, shortly before his death, had predicted that the next great issue in English politics would be an educational one, and the prediction was fulfilled in the agitation over the Education Bill of 1902.

The bill was framed by the Conservative party: its chief provisions are attributed to Lord Salisbury and Mr. Balfour. The measure was deemed so important that, contrary to custom, it was taken charge of in the House of Commons by Mr. Balfour himself. It met with severe criticism and bitter hostility during the fifty-nine sessions in which it was discussed in the House, Mr. Bryce being the leader of the Opposition. It was felt, indeed, that the life of the Conservative Ministry was staked upon the passage of the Bill.

The first reading was on March 24, 1902. It was introduced into the House of Lords, December 3, 1902, and received the royal assent, December 18, 1902. The end was reached only by the "guillotine application of the right of closure."

The opposition to the Bill did not cease with its enactment. Soon after it became operative, Wales was in open revolt against it and there were in England 55,000 Passive Resisters, persons who for conscience's sake refused to pay the local rate, and who allowed their furniture to be levied upon by the local authority. I have before me a bright-colored poster, dated September 25, 1903, in which it is announced in large headlines that "the goods which have been forcibly taken from the houses of several persons who have refused, on conscientious grounds, to pay the education rate, will be sold at the Crown Hotel, on Friday next," and that "a public demonstration in favor of the repeal of the Education Act will be held immediately after the sale." This resistance has not yet ceased. Nonconformist ministers here and there still preach against what

The Act applies to Wales and England, except London. A special Act known as the Education (London) Act, 1903, was passed August 14, 1903, for London. The principles of the Act of 1902, are embodied in the (London) Act of 1903. The Local Education Authority for London is the London County Council. The Education Committee will consist of Members of the Council, with one woman member and a possible body of experts.

they term the Great Betrayal. Many mass meetings have been held to protest against what is called "an attempt to wrest from us our religious liberties and the right to educate our children." The Nonconformist, as he sees his tables and chairs beneath the auctioneer's hammer, feels himself a modern Hampden, upholding the liberties of his country.

What then, are the provisions of the Act of 1902 which have caused this state of affairs?

In his opening speech, Mr. Balfour, as reported in the *London Times* of March 28, 1902, stated the purposes of the Bill to be as follows:

- 1 To bring all forms of education (primary, secondary, and technical) under one form of control.
- 2 To remove the cause of denominational dissension.
- 3 To provide for the training of teachers.
- 4 To devise a scheme for the continuance of the voluntary schools.

In the light of subsequent events the second of these statements reads strangely. The third we may pass by for the present as it is not a main subject in the controversy. The real issue is in the method by which it is proposed to carry out the first and the fourth of Mr. Balfour's principles. The parts of the Act which embody these methods may be briefly summarized:

A. The Act of 1902 abolishes the School Boards (established by the Act of 1870) and the School Attendance Committees (established in 1876) and substitutes a Local Education Authority, namely, the County or Borough Council. In other words, education is handed over to municipal and county control; it is no longer managed by a School Board elected *ad hoc*. It should be noted that this Local Education Authority is to control both "Provided" Schools (the former Board Schools) and "Non-Provided" Schools (the former Voluntary Schools).

Each Local Education Authority (Council) shall establish an Education Committee constituted as follows: (1) a majority of the Committee must be appointed by the Council and (except in counties) must be members of the Council; (2) where it is desirable, persons of experience in education and nominated by other bodies may be appointed; (3) women must be included. Moreover, each public elementary school is to be governed by a body of managers:

- (1) In "provided" schools the managers are

not to exceed six and are appointed by the Council.

(2) In "non-provided" (voluntary) schools the managers are not to exceed six, not more than two of these being appointed by the Council, and not more than four being *foundation* managers. Thus it becomes almost certain that two-thirds of the managers will be of the religious denomination to which the school belongs.

The new Act, therefore, places each elementary school under a body of Managers and a Local Education Authority Council, the latter delegating most of its administrative details to its Education Committee. The duty of levying the education rate, providing new schools, and inspecting schools is vested in the Local Education Authority. The duty of appointing and dismissing teachers is vested in the Managers, subject to the approval of the Local Education Authority. Head teachers in non-provided schools are subjected to a religious test.

B. Under the new Act the expenses of maintaining public elementary schools are met, in part, out of the local rate. It will be remembered that under the Act of 1870 the local rate could be applied only to the support of Board Schools; under the Act of 1902 it is applied to both provided and non-provided schools.

C. The most important provision of the Act in regard to the religious instruction to be given in non-provided schools is the so-called Kenyon-Slaney Clause, which reads as follows:

"Religious instruction given in a public elementary school not provided by the local education authority shall be, as regards its character, in accordance with the provisions, if any, of the trust deeds relating thereto, and shall be under the control of the managers. Provided that nothing in this sub-section shall affect any trust-deed for reference to the bishop or superior ecclesiastical or other denominational authority, so far as such provision gives to the bishop or authority the power of deciding whether the character of the religious instruction is or is not in accordance with the provision of the trust deeds."

Such are the most important of the provisions of the Act of 1902 which affect elementary education. The controversial literature on the subject is too voluminous to admit of detailed discussion, but the chief objections which have been urged against the Act by Liberals and Nonconformists may be grouped in two classes:

1. *Objections to the administrative bodies created by the Act.* The opposition in this case takes several different forms.

Many of the Liberals find in the new Act not the single educational authority promised by Mr. Balfour but three new authorities in addition to the Board of Education: the Councils, the Education Committees, and the Managers. Mr. Bryce finds this a serious objection to the Act. Instead of simplicity the Act brings multiplicity of authorities.

Moreover, it is urged, the Education Committees are not directly responsible to the rate-payers, although these Committees will probably discharge the most important functions of the local education authority.

But a still more emphatic protest is made against the administrative system of the new Act, because it abolishes the School Boards established by the Act of 1870. The School Boards themselves were unwilling to be abolished, and many educators testify to the good work done by these Boards, especially in the large cities. Sir George Kekewich, a former Secretary of the Board of Education, goes so far as to say that the London School Board perished because it offended the Tory government by doing its work too well; indeed, he adds, the London School Board did a greater work in a shorter time than has ever been accomplished by any educational authority in the world. The School Boards elected *ad hoc*, devoted themselves to education, while to the Councils, education is but one among many functions, and will naturally receive less attention.

2. *Objections to the status given by the Act to the Voluntary Schools.*¹ Under the new Act, non-provided schools as well as provided schools are supported, in part, out of the local rate. Mr. James Bryce declared the Bill to be "not an

¹ I quote the peroration of a sermon on the Education Act as an illustration of the seriousness with which this phase of the question is viewed by Dissenters.

"I will not submit to this modern Nebuchadnezzar. I have broken down my bridges and burned my boats. In this battle right beside my fellow Free Churchman I will stand. For a measure so treasonable to the liberties of Englishmen . . . I will not subscribe, no, not a penny. The time has come as truly as it came to Peter and John, . . . as truly as it came to Martin Luther . . . as truly as it came to John Hampden . . . as truly as it came to John Bunyan . . . the time has come when every man must boldly stand by the decision of his conscience. To men of conscience it is not a balance between pictures and arm-chairs and right. These things are nothing. Truth! liberty! righteousness!"

Education Bill, but a Voluntary Schools Endowment Bill." Sir Joshua Fitch declared that the purpose of the Bill was to give the denominational system a renewed chance of permanence." Says Principal Fairbairn, "It uses civic money for purpose the citizen conscientiously detests; these purposes being not civic, but sectarian." Another speaker adds, "It quarters church schools on the public purse, and yet leaves the control to the church."

An analysis of the Nonconformist and Liberal position will show three important objections made to the maintenance of non-provided schools from the rates.

- (1) Under the new Act two-thirds of the Managers of these schools will be denominational.
- (2) The head teachers are subjected to a religious test.
- (3) The Kenyon-Slaney clause perpetuates denominational teaching.

The view of the Act held by the average Nonconformist is well expressed in a recent article in the *Contemporary Review*: The Voluntary Schools . . . are still 'her' (the church's) schools, while eleven pence out of every shilling comes out of the citizen's purse. The teachers are practically hers to appoint and to dismiss, and the teachers make the schools. Her monopoly in thousands of country districts is practically secured, her authority confirmed, her propaganda invigorated by immunity from bankruptcy."

Let us glance briefly at the arguments adduced in support of the Act by the Anglican clergy and the Conservative leaders.

1. The Church of England has, since 1814, contributed to the support of the Voluntary Schools. The buildings and endowments are hers by ancient right. What more reasonable than that she should dictate the form of religious instruction and should appoint the head teachers?
2. The English people are opposed to secular education.

They wish some kind of religious instruction to be given to their children. Many, it is true, advocate what they call "undenominational religious teaching." This seems plausible, but is open to objection. As Lathbury says in a recent article, "Their idea seems to be that all religions are alike up to a certain point. Undenominationalism is the stock which serves as the common foundation of all soups. Denominationalism is only the flavoring which differentiates one soup from another." But, to quote the same writer, "what is surprising is that Nonconformists should

equally desire to see this sort of teaching (undenominational religious instruction) made universal and provided at the cost of the rate-payers." "Established Undenominationalism" is as offensive to the Church as is Established Anglicanism to Dissenters.

3. The Act is to be regarded as a compromise. The church concedes much. She gives her school buildings into municipal control. Though she retains the right to appoint her own head teachers, she gives to the Managers the privilege of appointing assistant teachers. For thirty-four years the Nonconformists have had the benefit of the Cowper Temple clause in the Act of 1870. These and many other provisions are real concessions.

4. But the argument that is the basis of all others is the existence of an Establishment. Why should not the religious instruction in school supported in part by parliamentary grant be of the form established as the state religion? Granted an Establishment, public support of Voluntary Schools is a necessary inference.

These, briefly, are the main lines of argument for and against the Act. There is a very general feeling that the Act will not long go unamended. The difficulties in Wales are still far from being solved, despite the coercive measure passed a few months ago—the Welsh Defaulting Act. Many forms of amendment have been suggested to meet the situation in England. One of the most remarkable is the proposition of the Bishop of Bath and Wells to establish, in connection with the Board of Education, "a clearing house, solely to relieve the consciences of those who profess to be oppressed." Each rate-payer who is conscientiously opposed to paying any rate toward the support of voluntary schools is to earmark his rate "for the support of provided schools only." An adjustment of the rates in different localities can be easily made at the clearing-house. The idea of relieving one's conscience by means of a clearing-house is at first rather startling.

Of all the proposed forms of amendment, perhaps, that which seems to meet with most approval is the suggestion that the local education authority should assume entire control of secular instruction, taking over all Board Schools, and renting all buildings occupied by Voluntary Schools. Each denomination may then provide, at its own expense, instruction in religion and church doctrine for children whose families apply for it.

In Hertfordshire an amicable adjustment has been made of one of the religious difficulties.

A committee composed of Churchmen and Nonconformists has drawn up a syllabus of religious instruction for use in the schools. The following recommendations are made, as reported in the *Educational Times*, November 1, 1904;

(1) The Bible shall be read, and such explanation and instruction in Christianity and morality given therefrom as are suited to the capacity of children. (2) Any part of the Bible may be learnt by heart, in addition to the portions prescribed. (3) The lessons should be as practical as possible, and especial pains should be taken by the teacher when teaching the Old Testament to show where, by the teaching of Christianity, we have in any case outgrown primitive religious views, and pictures should be used. (4) Working lists of lessons based upon the syllabus should be drawn up at the beginning of the school year by the head teacher of each school and submitted to the Inspector of the County Council at the time of religious inspection.

Despite such sporadic cases of amicable adjustment of difficulties, the success of the Act is still problematic. Even that most conservative journal, the *Educational Times*, has to admit that "anticipations of the gradual disappearance of differences, and the rise of a common ideal of promoting education apart from political and religious views seem dependent upon a very large if"

Leaving now, this brief account of the great controversy after the Act of 1902, let us turn to a closer examination of the schools themselves. It may be helpful, in the imperfect conspectus of the system which can be given within the limits of this paper to group the main facts under the headings, Administration, Teachers, Attendance, Curriculum and Finance.

1. *Administration.* The Board of Education, which was established by the Board of Education Act, 1899, and is the successor of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education (1839), and the Education Department (1884), stands at the head of the administrative system. The Board consists of a President and the Lord President of the Privy Council (though these may be the same person), the five Principal Secretaries of State, the First Commissioner of the Treasury, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer. The President is appointed by the Crown; the others are members *ex-officio*. The Board is authorized to appoint such secretaries and officers as may be needed. A Consultative Committee is appointed by the Crown "consisting, as to not less than two thirds, of persons qualified to represent the

views of universities and other bodies interested in education; in other words, a committee, two-thirds of the members of which must be experts in education. As a matter of fact the Consultative Committee, now consisting of eighteen members, is a strong committee, with great opportunities for influence and usefulness.

The Board of Education has control of Elementary Education (Whitehall Office), of Science and Arts classes (South Kensington Office), of the inspection of secondary schools on the application of these schools, and of certain educational matters formerly under the control of the Charity Commissioners. Under the Act of 1902, it is also empowered to settle disputes between managers of non-provided schools and local education authorities, and disputes regarding provision for new schools, to enforce provision for elementary education and to make provisional orders for education committees.

Each public elementary school has (1) a body of Managers, responsible to (2) the Local Education Authority which appoints (3) an Education Committee, and is responsible, in part, to (4) the Board of Education. This Board of Education has been well described by Brereton as a 'mean between the Bureau of Education in the United States and the strong, centralized Ministry of Public Instruction in France.' The Board (1) administers the parliamentary grant, (2) arranges for the inspection of schools, (3) keeps (through its Consultative Committee) a Registry of Teachers, and serves (4) as a bureau of educational information. Since the Act of 1902, the administrative work of the Board has been carried on in three departments: Elementary Education (the Whitehall Office), Secondary Education, and Technical Education (South Kensington Office). Each department is under the charge of a Principal Assistant Secretary.

The Inspectorate of the Board (Whitehall Office) includes the following Inspectors of elementary schools: 1 Chief Inspector; 11 Divisional Inspectors, each having charge of the elementary schools and training colleges in his division; 87 Inspectors; 23 Junior Inspectors, six of these being women; 52 Sub-Inspectors; 11 Sub-Inspectors for special subjects, such as manual training; 20 Examiners. Since 1882, educational experience, as well as scholarly attainments, has been required for appointment to Inspectorships. No clergyman may be an inspector. Inspectors may visit schools without notes. They are expected to report to the Board upon the efficiency of the schools and this report determines the giving or withholding of the grant.

Not only the teaching but also the sanitary condition of the school and the book-keeping of the managers are fit subjects of investigation. Indirectly, of course, the Inspector can exert a decided influence upon the methods of teaching, though this is not the primary function of his office.

The Register of Teachers is kept in two columns, A and B. A includes the names of all certificated teachers; B, teachers holding one or more scheduled qualifications, such as a university degree or a diploma.

The Board exercises its function as a bureau of educational information by the publication of its own Reports and also the Special Reports, the latter until recently under the direction of Dr. Sadler. It publishes, also, from time to time, the Code, a digest of minutes and legislation.

2. *Teachers.* The Board of Education recognizes six grades of teachers: (a) Probationers, who must be approved by the Inspector and must be between 13 and 16 years of age, and who may teach only half-time; (b) Pupil-teachers, who must pass an examination before appointment, and must be between 15 and 18 years of age, and must not teach more than 20 hours in one week; (c) Provisional Assistant Teachers, who have completed their engagement as Pupil-teachers but are not yet ready for the next grade of work; (d) Assistant Teachers, who have passed the King's Scholarship Examination, the final examination for Pupil teachers, or who are graduates of universities; (e) Provisionally Certificated Teachers, who have obtained a place in First Class of the King's Scholarship Examination, and who have had the requisite teaching experience; (f) Certificated Teachers, appointed on the basis of examination and proficiency in teaching.

One of the distinctive characteristics of English education is the pupil-teacher system. English writers on the subject very generally approve of the system on the ground that it lessens expense, gives to the child some teachers nearer his own grade of intellectual development, and provides training of teachers at a time when their minds are most open to new ideas and their whole personality most plastic. It must be acknowledged, though, that such a system is open to some of the objections which were made to the old monitorial system. Some of these dangers are lessened, however, by the care that is exercised in providing suitable instruction for pupil-teachers, such instruction being given either by the head-teachers or in "Central Classes."

Of the teachers employed in the public elementary schools 76% are women. The average salary of a certificated schoolmistress is £86; of a certificated schoolmaster, £129. By contributing a certain sum annually, a teacher may, at 65 years of age, receive a superannuation allowance.

Provision for the professional training of teachers is made by the 65 Training Colleges of which 46 are residential and 19 are day training Colleges.

3. *Attendance.* In the Board of Education Report for 1900-1901 the laws in regard to compulsory attendance are thus summarized:

(1). If the bye-laws contain a special provision to that effect, children may be employed in agriculture at the age of eleven, provided that they attend school 250 times a year up to the age of thirteen.

(2). With this exception, no child, subject to the bye-laws, can obtain either partial or total exemption under the age of twelve.

(3). A child between twelve and thirteen, or (if the bye-laws are extended) between twelve and fourteen, can only obtain total or partial exemption on the conditions prescribed by the bye-laws.

(4). In districts where the bye-laws are still restricted to children of thirteen years of age, a child between thirteen and fourteen can obtain total exemption either on passing the Fourth Standard, or on making 350 previous attendances after five years of age in not more than two schools during each year for five years.

(5). A child between twelve and fourteen may claim partial exemption on making 300 previous attendances annually for five years, but in the view of the Board this exemption can only be claimed where the bye-laws themselves contain a provision for partial exemption.

It should be noted that an "attendance" means, for infant scholars, one and a half hours; for older scholars, two hours; for "half-timers," one hour and twenty minutes.

4. *Curriculum.* Three classes of elementary schools are recognized by the Board of Education: Infant Schools, for children from three to seven years of age; Schools for Older Scholars, for children up to the age of sixteen; Higher Elementary Schools, for children from ten to fifteen years of age.

Elementary schools must limit themselves strictly to elementary subjects, if they would obtain the parliamentary grant which, for elementary education, is administered through the

Whitehall Office. This point was tested in the courts in 1898, in the famous Cockerton case. Mr. Cockerton, as auditor, disallowed the expenses charged by the London School Board for paying the salary of teachers of drawing for classes in Board Schools, the teaching having been of technical rather than elementary character. The court sustained this decision, thus emphasizing the distinction between the function of Whitehall and South Kensington.

The course of instruction in Infant Schools includes reading, writing, number, simple lessons on common things, needle-work, drawing, singing, and physical exercises.

In Schools for Older Scholars, the course of instruction includes three classes of subjects: (1) "Obligatory" subjects: English, arithmetic, drawing (boys), needlework (girls), lessons in geography, history and "common things," singing and physical training; (2) the class of subjects formerly called "specific," one or more of which is to be taught when the Inspector deems it advisable: algebra, Euclid, mensuration, mechanics, chemistry, physics, animal physiology, hygiene, botany, agriculture, horticulture, navigation, Latin, French, Welsh (in Wales), German, book-keeping, shorthand, domestic economy, drawing (girls), needlework (boys); (3) special subjects, earning a separate grant: cookery, laundry, dairy, household management, cottage gardening, manual instruction.

The Higher Elementary Schools are for children from 10 to 15 years of age who are certified by the Inspector as qualified to profit by such instruction. "The special object which they have in view is to qualify the children taught in them to enter any of those callings in which scientific methods have to be employed." In 1903 there were 29 schools of this kind.

In the Schools for Older Scholars, seven "standards" are recognized, standards of examinations in reading, writing and arithmetic.

The method employed most commonly in the elementary schools of England is that of recitation of lessons prepared from a textbook. Oral instruction is seldom found to the extent that it is in Germany. The teaching is characterized by thoroughness, though this virtue sometimes brings in its train the kindred vice of rote-learning and mechanical teaching.

5. *Financial Support of the Schools.* Elementary Schools are supported from three sources of income, the government grant, fees of pupils, and the local rate. The government grant consists of principal grants and special grants,

the former being paid on the basis of average attendance, the latter for the teaching of special subjects; a school in which cookery is taught, for instance, receives a special grant of 4 shillings per pupil in average attendance. The fees of pupils cannot exceed 9 pence per pupil per week. About 12% of the pupils in elementary schools now pay fees, though the Act of 1891 provides for a special grant to schools that remit fees.

The system of elementary education in England must be recognized as a wholly indigenous product. German, French, and American educational ideals have had little to do with the shaping of English educational policy, a policy that embodies the religious, social, and political ideals of the English people to an extent difficult for an outsider to realize. The present crisis has brought the subject of education before the masses of the people as never before, and the mere discussion of the theme must result in some good. It would not be astonishing, however, if the next great advance should be due to the emphasis given to the connection between industrial prosperity and popular education, the theory which called the Mosley Commission into existence and which has inspired several recent books in the domain of economics.

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THE VICEROY ON EDUCATION.

SIMLA, Sept. 20.

I was very much gratified when I learnt that it was the desire of the Directors of Public Instruction who are assembled in Conference at Simla that I should attend one of their meetings to say a few words of farewell. This desire was conveyed to me by Mr. Orange in language so flattering that I could not resist it, for he said that he spoke for all the Directors and that they spoke for the whole service of which they are members. Accordingly I accepted the invitation and that is why I am here to-day. I feel rather like a General addressing his Marshals for the last time before he unbuckles his sword and retires into private life; for the task which has engaged so much of our energies during the past seven years has been like nothing so much as a campaign marked by a long series of engagements which we have fought together, and though I am about to resign my commission you will remain to carry on, I hope, the same colours to victory on many another well-won field. To you therefore I need make no apology for offering a few final remarks on your own subject. It would almost be an impertinence if I were to address you on any other point. In a well-known work of fiction one of the characters is made to groan over that bore of all bores, whose subject had no beginning, middle, or end, namely Education. Here, however, where we all belong to the same category I must accept the risk of inflicting that form of perance on others in the hopeful assurance that I shall not be found guilty by you. Gentlemen, when I came to India, Educational Reform loomed before me as one of those objects which, from such knowledge of India as I possessed, appeared to deserve a prominent place in any programme of administrative reconstruction. I thought so for several reasons. In the first place, vital as is education everywhere as the instrument by which men and nations rise, yet in a country like India in its present state of development it is perhaps the most clamant necessity of all, for here Education is required not primarily as the instrument of culture or the source of learning but as the key to employment, the condition of all national advance and prosperity, and the sole stepping stone for every class of the community to higher things. It is a social and political even more than an intellectual demand, and to it alone can we look to provide a livelihood for our citizens, to train up our public servants, to develop the economic and industrial resources of the country, to fit the people for the share in the self-government

which is given to them, and which will increase with their deserts, and to fashion the national character on sound and healthy lines. The man in India who has grasped the Education problem has got nearer to the heart of things than any of his comrades, and he who can offer to us the right educational prescription is the true physician of the State. There is another reason for which education in India is a peculiarly British responsibility, for it was our advent in the country that brought about that social and moral upheaval of which Western education is both the symbol and the outcome. As regards religion we sit as a government in India "holding no form of creed but contemplating all," we have deliberately severed religion from politics, and though we have our own church or churches, we refrain, as an act of public policy, from incorporating the Church with the State, but we do not therefore lay down that ethics are or should be divorced from the life of the nation, or that society, because it does not rest upon dogmatic theology, should lose the moral basis without which in all ages it must sooner or later fall to pieces. For Education is nothing unless it is a moral force. There is morality in secular text books as well as in sacred texts, in the histories and sayings of great men, in the example of teachers, in the contact between teachers and pupils, in the discipline of the classroom, in the emulation of school life. These are the substitutes in our Indian Educational system for the oracles of prophets, or the teaching of divines. To them we look to make India and its people better and purer. If we thought that our education were not raising the moral level we should none of us bestir ourselves so greatly about it. It is because it is the first and most powerful instrument of moral elevation in India that it must for ever remain a primary care of the State. The State may delegate a portion of the burden to private efforts or to Missionary enterprise, but it cannot throw it altogether aside. So long as our Government is in India what it is, we must continue to control and to correlate educational work, to supply a large portion of the outlay, to create the requisite models, and to set the tone. As soon as I looked about me, but little investigation was required to show in the words of a familiar quotation that there was "something rotten in the state of Denmark." For years education in India had been muddling along with no one to look after it at head-quarters, or to observe its symptoms till the men who had given up their lives to it were sick at heart, and well nigh in despair. It was not that splendid and self-sacrificing exertions were not being devoted to the task, it was not that any class of European

or Indian was indifferent to its claims, for I believe that in India there is a genuine passion for education among all classes. It was not that there had been deliberate or conscious neglect, but there was a deplorable lack of co-ordination; there was a vagueness as to fundamental principles. Slackness had crept in. Standards had depreciated and what was wanting was the impulse and the movement of a new life. It was for these reasons that I threw myself with burning zeal into the subject of Educational Reform. I knew the risks that had to be run. There was not one among them that could be apprehended that has not been incurred. I was aware of all the taunts that would be levelled,—that we should be accused, when we were merely raising a debased standard, of wanting to shut the doors of Education in the face of the people; and when we felt it our duty to assert the proper control of Government, of desiring to aggrandise the power of the State, and many other equally unfounded charges. But the object seemed to me to be worth the risk. The allies and fellow-workers were there, who were only too ready and anxious to join in the struggle and it merely remained to formulate the plan of action and to go ahead.

For the first two years we surveyed the ground and reconnoitred the position of the opposing forces and then we began. I look to the meetings of the Simla Conference in the month of September 1901 just four years ago as the first act in the real campaign. That Conference has often been denounced by those who knew not the real nature of its labours as a sort of Star Chamber conclave that was engaged in some dark and sinister conspiracy. Some of you were present at its meetings, and you know how much of truth there was in that particular charge. I do not hesitate to say that a Conference more independent in its character, more sincere in its aims, or more practical and far reaching in its results, never met at the head-quarters of the Indian Government. The meeting was a body of experts, non-official as well as official, convened in order to save Government from making mistakes and to assure me that we were advancing upon right lines. Our programme was laid down in the published speech which opened the proceedings. We covered the whole field of Educational activity in our researches, and we laid down the clear and definite principles which so far from being concealed were published at full length later on in the Education Resolution of March 1904, and which for years to come will guide the policy of the State. Then followed the appointment of a Director-General of Education most

fully justified by the devoted labours, the informed enthusiasm, and the unfailing tact of Mr. Orange. Next in order came the Universities Commission presided over by my former colleague, Sir Thomas Raleigh in 1902. Then followed the Universities Legislation of 1903-04 of which, looking back calmly upon it, I say that I do not regret the battle or the storm since I am firmly convinced that out of them has been born a new life for Higher Education in India. Finally came the comprehensive resolution of which I have spoken. Since then the policy of reform laid down by the Simla Conference has been carried into execution in every branch of educational effort until at last the Directors of public instruction from every province have been sitting here for a week in Conference to compare notes as to what has already been accomplished and to discuss fresh plans for the future. These are the main landmarks of the great enterprise upon which we have all been employed for so long, and a moment has arrived when it is not impossible to some extent to reckon up the results. What was the state of affairs that we had to redress? I will try to summarise it. As regards Primary or Elementary Education of the children of the masses in the vernaculars, the figures which appeared in the resolution were sufficiently significant. Four out of every five Indian villages were found to be without a school; three out of every four Indian boys grow up without any education. Only one Indian girl in every forty attends any kind of school. These figures are of course less appalling in a continent of the size, the vast population, the national characteristics, and the present state of advancement of India, than they would be in any Western country, but they are important as illustrating, if not the inadequacy of past efforts, at any rate the immensity of the field that remains to be conquered. We found Primary Education suffering from divergence of views as to its elementary functions and courses, and languishing nearly everywhere for want of funds. In Secondary Education we found schools receiving the privilege of recognition with most inadequate and untrained and incompetent teachers, imparting a course of instruction devoid of life to pupils subjected to a pressure of examinations that encroached upon their out of school hours, and was already beginning to sap the brain power as well as the physical strength of the rising generation. Inferior teaching in Secondary Schools further has this deleterious effect that it reacts upon College work and affects the whole course of University

instruction of which it is the basis and starting point. We found these schools in many cases accommodated in wretched buildings, and possessing no provision for the boarding of the pupils. As regards vernaculars which must for long be the sole instruments for the diffusion of knowledge among all except a small minority of the Indian people, we found them in danger of being neglected, and degraded in the pursuit of English, and in many cases very bad English, for the sake of its mercantile value. By all means let English be taught to those who are qualified to learn it, but let it rest upon a solid foundation of the indigenous languages. For no people will ever use another tongue with advantage that cannot first use its own with ease. But in Higher Education the position was still worse, for here it was not a question so much of a blank sheet in the education of the community as of a page scribbled over with all sorts of writing, some of it well formed and good, but much of it distorted and wrong. We found in some of the affiliated colleges a low standard of teaching and a lower of learning, ill-paid and insufficient teachers, pupils crowded together in insanitary buildings, the cutting down of fees in the interest of an evil commercial competition, and management on unsound principles. Finally, coming to the Universities, we found courses of study and a system of tests which were lowering the quality while steadily increasing the volume of the human output, students driven like sheep from lecture room to lecture room and examination to examination, text books badly chosen, degrees pursued for their commercial value, the Senates with over-swollen numbers selected on almost every principle but that of educational fitness, the syndicates devoid of statutory powers, a huge system of active but often misdirected effort over which, like some evil, phantom, seemed to hover the monstrous and maleficent spirit of "Cram." Of course there were better and reassuring features in the picture, and there were parts of the country where the merits greatly exceeded the defects, but we had to correct the worst even more than to stimulate the best, and like a doctor it was our duty to diagnose the unsound parts of the body rather than to busy ourselves with the sound. Moreover there were some faults that were equally patent everywhere. It is recorded of the Emperor Aurangzeb, after he had seized the throne of the Moghal Empire, that he publicly abused his old tutor for not having prepared him properly for these great responsibilities. "Thus," he said, "did you waste the precious hours of my youth in the dry unprofitable and never ending task of learning words." That is

exactly the fault that we found with every phase of Indian Education as we examined it. Everywhere it was words that were being studied not ideas. The grain was being spilled and squandered while the husks were being devoured. I remember a passage in the writings of Herbert Spencer in which he says that to prepare us for complete living is the true function of Education. That is a conception which is perhaps as yet beyond the reach of the majority of those whom we are trying to educate in this country, but in the rat into which it had sunk I doubt if European Education in India as we were conducting it could be described as a preparation for living at all, except in the purely materialistic sense where unhappily it was too true; but of real living, the life of the intellect, the character, the soul, I fear that the glimpses that were obtainable were rare and dim. Of course all these tendencies could not be corrected straight away. It would be a futile and arrogant boast to say that we have reformed Indian Education. There is equal scope for educational reformers now, to-morrow, next day, and always. Education is never reformed; it may advance or remain stationary or recede; it may also advance on right lines or on wrong lines. Our claim is merely to have rescued it from the wrong track and given it a fresh start on the right one. If we have set up a few milestones on the path of true progress we shall have done something for it and perhaps made further advance easier for our successors. What I think we may claim to have effected has been the following. In Primary Education we have realised that improvement means money. We have laid down that Primary Education must be a leading charge on Provincial Revenues and in order to supply the requisite impetus, we gave in our last budget a very large permanent annual grant of 35 lakhs to be devoted to that purpose alone. This will be the real starting point of an advance that ought never to be allowed henceforward to slacken. Most of the money will go in buildings to begin with, and a good deal in maintenance afterwards. Thousands of new Primary Schools are already opening their doors under these auspices, and in a few years' time the results should be very noteworthy. In building, we lay stress upon the provision of suitable and airy school houses in place of the dark rooms or squalid sheds in which the children had previously been taught. Training Schools for Teachers are similarly springing up or being multiplied in every direction. We have defined the nature of the object-lessons that ought to be taught to the children in Primary Schools, and the courses of study and

the books that are required for the instruction of the cultivating classes. We have everywhere raised the pay of Primary Teachers where this was inadequate, and are teaching them that their duty is to train the faculties of their pupils, and not to compel them to the listless repetition of phrases in which the poor children find no meaning. I look as the result of this policy to see a great development in Elementary Education in the near future. It is apt to be neglected in India in favour of the louder calls and the more showy results of Higher Education. Both are equally necessary, but in the structure of Indian society one is the foundation and the other the coping stone, and we who are responsible must be careful not to forget the needs of the voiceless masses, while we provide for the interests of the more highly favoured minority, who are better able to protect themselves. In Secondary Education the faults were largely the same and the remedies must be the same also. More teachers are the first desideratum, more competent teachers the second, more inspectors the third. The increase that we have everywhere effected in the inspecting staff is remarkable.

Next comes reform in courses of study and buildings. All these necessities are summed up in the duty which we have undertaken of laying down sound tests for official recognition.

From this we pass on to the development of the commercial and industrial sides of these schools as against the purely literary, since there are thousands of boys in them who must look to their education to provide them with a practical livelihood rather than to lead them to a Degree, and above all to the reduction of examinations. That is the keynote everywhere; have your tests, sift out the good from the bad, furnish the incentive of healthy competition, but remember that the Indian boy is a human being, with a mind to be nurtured and a soul to be kept alive, and do not treat him as a mechanical drudge or as a performing animal which has to go at stated intervals through the unnatural task to which its trainer has laboriously taught it to conform. I hope that the Government of India will not be indifferent to the claims of Secondary Education in the future. When the Universities and the Colleges have been put straight, we must look to the feeders, and these feeders are the High Schools; indeed we cannot expect to have good Colleges without good Schools. I am not sure if a vote were taken among the intelligent middle classes of this country that they would not sooner see money devoted to Secondary Education than to any other educational object.

The reason is that it is the basis of all industrial or professional occupation in India. There is just a danger that between the resonant calls of Higher Education and the pathetic small voice of Elementary Education, the claims of Secondary Education may be overlooked, and I therefore venture to give it this parting testimonial. When we come to Higher Education, our policy, though based on identical principles, assumes a wider scope and has, I hope, already effected an even more drastic change. It is very difficult to carry out substantial reforms in Higher Education in India because of the suspicion that we encounter among the educated classes, that we really desire to restrict their opportunities and in some way or other to keep them down. There is, of course, no ground whatever for suspicion. Not only does it run counter to the entire trend of British character and to all the teachings of British history, but it would be a short-sighted and stupid policy, even if it were adopted. For education, to whatever extent it may be directed or controlled, is essentially an organism and not an artificial process, and no people, particularly a highly intelligent and ambitious people like the educated classes in India, could possibly be confined, so to speak, in a particular Educational Department or Chamber because the Government was foolish enough to try and turn the key upon them. What has been in our minds, though it has not always been easy to explain it to others, has been, first, the conviction that those who were getting a Higher Education were getting the wrong sort of it, because they were merely training the memory at the expense of all the other faculties of the mind, and that it could not be good for a nation that its intellect should be driven into these lifeless grooves, and, secondly, the belief that reform was to be sought by making Educationalists more responsible for education in every department, giving them power on Senates and Syndicates, improving the quality of the teaching staff, and providing for the expert inspection of Colleges and Schools. Let me put it in a sentence. Higher Education ought not to be run either by politicians or by amateurs. It is a science, the science of human life and conduct, in which we must give a fair hearing and a reasonable chance to the professor. If our reforms are looked at in this light, it will be seen that they are based upon a uniform and logical principle. We swept away the old over-grown Senates or bodies of Fellows, and reconstituted them on lines which should make educational interests predominate in the government of the

Universities. Similarly we placed experts in the majority on the Executive Committees or Syndicates. It is these bodies who will draw up the new courses, prescribe the text books, and frame the future standards of education. Of course they may go wrong, and Government retains the indispensable power of putting them right if they do so. But the initial and principal responsibility is theirs, and if they cannot make a better thing of Higher Education in India, then no one can. Similarly we carry the expert into the mofussil. If we are to improve the affiliated institutions we must first prescribe, as we have done, sound and definite conditions of affiliation, and then we must send round sympathetic inspecting officers to detect local shortcomings, to offer advice, and to see that the new conditions are observed simultaneously. If sustained efforts are made, as we are making them, to improve the quality of the teachers and to give them opportunities when on furlough of studying other systems, and if at the other end of the scale, we provide for the proper entertainment of the boys in well-managed hostels of boarding houses, then it seems to me that we have created both the constitutional and the academic machinery by which reform can be pursued, and that if it be not accomplished it must be for some reason which we have failed to discern. Anyhow I can see nothing in the objects and processes that I have described to which the most sensitive or critical of Indian intelligences need object, and the most hopeful guarantee of success is to be found in my view in the fact that the best and most experienced Indian authorities are entirely on our side. Personally, therefore, I regard our University legislation, and the reform that will spring from it as a decree of emancipation. It is the setting free for the service of education, by placing them in authoritative control over education, of the best intellects and agencies that can be enlisted in the task, and it is the casting off and throwing away of the miserable gyves and manacles that had been fastened upon the limbs of the youth of India, stunting their growth, crippling their faculties, and tying them down. In my view we are entitled to the hearty co-operation of all patriotic Indians in the task, for it is their people that we are working for, and their future that we are trying to safeguard and enlarge. Already I think that this is very widely recognised. The old cries have to a large extent died away, and among the valedictory messages and tributes which I have received in such numbers from native sources during the past few weeks have been many which placed

in the forefront the service which I am generously credited with having rendered to the cause of Indian Education. One of the most gratifying features in this Renaissance in the history of Indian Education, as I hope it may in time deserve to be called, has been the stimulus that has been given to private liberality showing that Indian Princes and noblemen are keenly alive to the needs of the people and are in cordial sympathy with the movement that we have striven to inaugurate. The Rajah of Nabha called upon the Sikh community to rouse themselves and put the Khalsa College at Amritsar on a proper footing for the education of their sons, and they responded with contributions of 20 lakhs. In Bengal there have been handsome gifts for the proposed new college at Ranchi. The Aligarh Trustees continue to improve their magnificent College and last year I believe achieved a record subscription list in their Conference at Lucknow. In the United Provinces the enthusiasm of Sir James La Touche has kindled a corresponding zeal in others. The College at Bareilly is to be shifted from a corner of the High School buildings to a new building on a fine site given by the Nawab of Rampur. When I was at Lucknow in the spring I saw the site of the new residential college in the Badshah Bagh to which the Maharaja of Balrampur has given a donation of 3 lakhs. Government has not been behind hand in similar liberality, and apart from the 25 lakhs which we promised and are giving to assist the Universities in the work of reconstruction, we have assisted the purchase of sites for University buildings in many places, and are prepared to help in other ways. It is a truism in Higher Education as elsewhere that the first condition of progress is money and this is being provided both by Government and by private effort in no stinted measure.

I might detain you, gentlemen, much longer by discussing the various measures that we have taken with regard to other branches of education in India, for it is to be confessed that the aspirations which I set before myself and before the Simla Conference were not confined to the sphere of Primary, Secondary, and Higher Education alone but embraced the whole field of educational reform. There is no corner of it where we have not laboured, and are not labouring.

We have not in our zeal for Indian Education forgotten the cause of European and Eurasian education in this country. We have revised the code, we have made a most careful examination of the so-called Hill Schools, and are re-establishing the best among them on an assured basis. We are

giving handsome grants in aid and scholarships. We are appointing separate Inspectors for these institutions and are starting a special Training College for Teachers. Then there is a class of education which deserves and has attracted our particular attention, viz., that which is intended to qualify its recipients for the professional occupations of Indian life here. Our Agricultural College at Pusa which is intended to be the parent of similar institutions in every other Province, each equipped with a skilled staff and adequate funds, has been specially devised to provide at the same time a thorough training in all branches of Agricultural Science and practical instruction in estate management, and farm work. These institutions will, I hope, turn out a body of young men who will spread themselves throughout India carrying into the management of states and estates, into private enterprise, and into Government employ, the trained faculties with which their College courses will have supplied them. Agriculture in India is the first and capital interest of this huge continent and agriculture like every other money-earning interest must rest upon education. Neither have we forgotten female education, being conscious that man is to a large extent what woman makes him and that an educated mother means educated children. Since the Simla Conference, Bengal has already doubled the number of girls under instruction. The female inspecting staff has been over-hauled in most provinces and some ladies possessing high qualifications have been sent out from England. Good model Girls' Schools and good Training Schools for the female teachers are a desideratum everywhere. It will take a long time to make substantial progress but the forward movement has begun. There remains the subject of Technical Education which has occupied an immense amount of our attention, both at the Simla Conference and ever since. We have had commissions and reports, and enquiries. We have addressed Local Governments and studied their replies, but we are only slowly evolving the principles under which technical instruction can be advantageously pursued in a country where the social and industrial conditions are what they are in India. Whether we look at the upper or at the lower end of the scale this difficulty is equally apparent. People wonder why Mr. Tata's Institute of Science comes so slowly into being, and in a country where it is the custom to attribute anything that goes wrong to the Government all sorts of charges have been brought against us of apathy or indifference or obstruction. No one would more readily acknowledge than Mr. Tata himself that so far from discouragement or opposition, he has

met with nothing at the hands of Government but sympathy and support. But Mr. Tata wisely wants not merely to start the magnificent conception of his father, but to make it practical and to ensure its success, and I can assure you that the rival views that prevail as to the best method of accommodating this great idea to the necessities of India are extraordinary. We have experienced similar difficulties in our smaller undertakings as is generally known. We have instituted a number of Technical Scholarships of £150 each for Indian students in Europe and America, but strange as it may seem, it has not invariably been easy at first to find the candidates qualified to fill them. However we now have a number of Indian Scholars from Bengal who are studying mining at Birmingham, and our latest step was to grant three scholarships for textile industries in Bombay. Other attempts will follow, and in a short time there will in my view be no lack either of candidates or subjects. Similarly with Industrial Schools, which we have been anxious to start on a large scale for the practical encouragement of local industries, there is the widest diversity of opinion as to the principles and the type; for it must be remembered that although India is a country with strong traditions of industrial skill and excellence, with clever artisans, and with an extant machinery of trade guilds and apprentices, these are constituted upon a caste basis which does not readily admit of expansion, while the industries themselves are as a rule localised and small, rendering co-ordination difficult. We are however about to make an experiment on a large scale in Bombay and Bengal, and I have every hope that upon the labours and researches of the past few years, posterity will be able to build. Upon these and many other subjects I might discourse to you at length, but you are better acquainted with them than I am, and I have addressed myself to-day not so much to details as to the principles that have underlain the great movement of Educational activity upon which we have together been engaged. To you and to your successors I must now commit the task. It is a work which may well engage your best faculties, and be the proud ambition of your lifetime on the stage where you are employed. There is infinite scope for administrative energy, and what is better for personal influence. While in the background of all your labours stands the eternal mystery of the East with its calm and immutable traditions, but its eager and passionate eyes, what the future of Indian Education may be neither you nor I can tell. It is the future of the Indian race in itself, the most hazardous though absorbing of

speculations. As I dream of what Education in India is to be or become, I recall the poet's lines. "Where lies the land to which the ship would go?" "Far far away" is all her seamen know. "And where the land she travels from?" "Away Far, far, behind," is all that they can say.

In the little space of navigable water for which we are responsible between the mysterious past and the still more mysterious future, our duty has been to revise a chart that was obsolete and dangerous, to lay a new course for the vessel, and to set her helm upon the right tack.

OUR ENGLISH LETTER.

CAMBRIDGE, August 1906.

Though Professor Augustus Wilkins had ceased during the last two years to teach, yet his death ought not to be passed over in any review of the month. Born in 1843, he was educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, where his extraordinary classical abilities soon brought him into prominence. Owing to a deficiency in his early training he never attained to that technical mastery in the art of verse-making which so many boys of very ordinary powers acquire at the great public schools, and accordingly—as verse-making was then compulsory—he was not senior classic, though known to be in all essential respects the best classic of his year. A fellowship would undoubtedly have crowned his career had he not been a congregationalist—but the Act of 1871, reforming the University, had not yet been passed and he had to leave without the due reward of his diligence and talents. It was indeed his case, along with those of the three Aldises (the famous trio of brothers, respectively first, second, and fourth wrangler, all of whom were unable to take Fellowships) that formed a strong argument in favour of doing away with tests.

It was not long, however, before he found a congenial sphere. He was elected Professor of Latin at Owen's College, Manchester; and there, for nearly forty years, he remained; teaching, writing, and engaging in all kinds of labours for the benefit of town, University, and Church. During his period of residence Owen's advanced from a small provincial college to the position of the third University in the kingdom; and through all the changes he was prominent in all the necessary work. As a Latin scholar he ranked with the very best of his time. His edition of the 'De Oratore' is perhaps his truest title to fame; but he is best known for his admirable edition of the Epistles of Horace in Macmillan's series, which

is likely to remain the standard English Edition for many years to come. As for his teaching ability and his influence over his pupils, it is safe to say that in neither respect was he surpassed in England. He was by no means content to be the professor only—he was emphatically the guide, philosopher, and friend of all with whom he came into contact.

There has been a very pretty quarrel between the Warden of Bradfield College and the Secretary of the Schools Examination Board of Oxford and Cambridge; and, as it has found its way into 'Truth' and other papers, some notice may perhaps be taken of it here. Few of the public schools have welcomed inspection by the Board, though most of them are examined (by paper) under its direction. Bradfield, however, has been an exception. Accordingly, an Inspector was sent down in June (the letter informing Dr. Gray that he was coming arrived a month after he came!) and reported adversely on the chemistry work of the Army side. Mr. E. J. Gross, the Secretary of the Board, then wrote to the Warden, Dr. Gray, telling him that the Board could not recommend the school to the Army Council in this subject, and that it was therefore useless for the boys to offer chemistry for army purposes. To this Dr. Gray retorted that in a year and a half (1903 and 1904) twenty-one Bradfield candidates out of thirty-three gained over half marks in chemistry; and that the inspection of a single man, lasting five or six hours, ought not to ignore such facts as these. As a result, the Board temporarily withdrew their interdict; but the incident has not tended to make Dr. Gray more in love with inspection. 'No one', he says in a letter to the general body of Headmasters, 'has recognised more cordially than myself the importance and desirability of state inspection of secondary schools'; but he hints pretty plainly that the present system of inspection must be improved before he will support its extension to the whole country. The London 'Journal of Education', while thinking that Dr. Gray has been hardly treated, believes that under the Board of Education such mistakes will be almost impossible. The Board has a full staff of secondary inspectors whose reports are checked, not by a casual body of University dons, but by a department of permanent officials. 'To judge by such reports as we have seen (and we have perused a score or more) the fear of red-tape tyranny and a cast-iron code is an idle bugbear'. We wish we could agree. The Joint Board, it is true, consists largely of amateurs; the Board of Education is hide-bound in tradition and prejudice. An example occurs on the very next page of the 'Journal'. The Inspector sent down to Bedford Modern School had

been, on the resignation of Dr. Porke, an unsuccessful candidate for the Headship—yet he was sent to report on the work of his successful rival! With a Board so careless as this, anything, surely, may happen.

Meanwhile, the Education Act of 1902 is still exposed to the fires of criticism. Early in July the first steps were taken to remove children from the schools of Merioneth and to send them to the chapels, in order that the grants might be lost to the Voluntary schools. This of course is only tentative as yet; the plan remains to be tried on a larger scale—as it certainly will unless amendment speedily comes. Sir William Anson's report of the year's working, the other day, was not an inspiring document for advocates of the Act. He complained that local interest was decaying—the very result prophesied at the beginning by opponents of the principle of the Act. He was furiously attacked by Mr. Lloyd-George, who complained that he had made 'false statements'—not deliberately false, it is true—about the working of the Act in many parts of Wales. Mr. Ernest Gray, the Tory educationist, also made a vigorous onslaught on the Government; but he did not follow it up in the logical manner by voting with the opposition. He was chiefly concerned with their treatment of East Ham. It will be remembered that the East Ham County Council, finding the district utterly unable to meet the increase of rates, determined to strike, gave notice to their teachers, and called on the Government to do its worst. In this strike the Tory member for the borough was at least as prominent and active as any of his Liberal friends. Mr. Balfour was forced to make concessions; and he chose Mr. Ernest Gray as the mouthpiece by means of which he made them. Mr. Gray accordingly went down and, by a distinct promise that reform would come, induced the recalcitrant council to withdraw its protest and promise to administer the Act for the present. There should be a serious attempt to equalise rates; the rich West End and the poor East should be put upon some sort of equality. The County Council yielded; and now the Government's plan is *not* to equalise rates—a scheme indeed obviously too vast for a moribund Government—but simply to exclude children under five from the rate-aided schools. By this means, it is hoped, eight hundred and fifty thousand pounds per annum will be saved to the nation. As to the merits of this plan in itself opinion may well be divided. Children over three and under five are not sent to school but to a *crèche*; and, glad as parents are to be rid of them, it may or may not be the duty of the State to take

the charge; and, if it does so, it is again a question whether such a charge should come under the head of education. But to remove them from the schools is not in the least a fulfilment of the Government's promise, by the mouth of Mr. Gray, to the East Ham County Council.

To succeed Mr. Pollard in the Headship of the City of London Schools, the Governors have elected the Rev. Arthur Chilton, Headmaster of Emanuel School, Wandsworth. The Governors have made a wise decision in ignoring mere distinction in scholarship for proved organising ability. Mr. Chilton has done well during his ten or eleven years' headship of Emanuel.

Reviews and Notices.

ENGLISH LITERATURE FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS.
GENERAL EDITOR: J. H. FOWLER. MACMILLAN & CO.

1 & 2. Ballads Old and New, Parts I and II. Selected and Edited by H. B. Cotterill. 1s. each.

3. The Tale of Troy. Retold in English by Aubrey Stewart, Edited by T. S. Peppin. 1s. 6d.

4. Tales from Spenser, by Sophia H. MacLachlan. 1s. 3d.

5. Longfellow's Shorter Poems, Selected and Edited by H. B. Cotterill. 1s.

6. Essays from Addison, Edited by J. H. Fowler. 1s.

7. Macaulay's Essay on Sir W. Temple, Edited by G. A. Twentymann. 1s.

The above are some of the important books issued by Macmillan & Co. under the heading 'English Literature for Secondary Schools'. The selections themselves are from standard authors and are edited by well-known annotators. Each volume contains besides the indispensable Introduction and Notes, a Glossary, a set of questions, suggested subjects for Short Essays and suggested books for further study. The notes, we are glad to say, are short and confined only to difficult portions of the Text. There are no disquisitions on grammatical points—a feature which we would very much like adopted by other annotators. Each volume is intended to be the work for a term, but we doubt if in the particular instance of the Ballads it would be advisable to do the ballads alone for the poetry portion. The selections are all carefully done and should certainly give a clear conception of the author to the student. Of these seven books we should think that the two books

of Ballads and Longfellow's poems should be found very useful to the teacher. The Tales from Spenser and the Essays from Addison may very well form holiday courses for our IV and V Form students and the Tale of Troy for the VI. F.A. students, while Macaulay's Temple very useful and interesting reading.

PICTURE ARITHMETIC, BOOK III. MACMILLAN & CO. 3d.

The second volume of this book we reviewed in our June number, and this third book is as interesting and instructive as its predecessor. The pictures really help the little fellows to understand what it is they are asked to solve. But these books are primarily intended for English children, and they have got to be translated if they are to be useful to the primary school students here.

A HANDBOOK OF THE ORDINARY DIALECT OF THE TAMIL LANGUAGE, BY THE REV. G. U. POPE, M.A., D.D., PART III. A COMPENDIOUS TAMIL-ENGLISH DICTIONARY. (CLARENDON PRESS). 5s. net.

A very useful Dictionary containing Tamil words of every day use. The English equivalents are very correct, and should help those Englishmen who come to Southern India.

THE LANCET POETRY BOOKS, VOLS. XVI—XXXIV. EDWARD ARNOLD. PAPER 2d. EACH.

These are neatly bound small volumes of 48 pages each. They contain selections from authors like Burns, Spenser, Campbell, Cowper, Thompson, Byron, &c. Some of the volumes contain whole pieces like Goldsmith's Traveller and Deserted Village, Longfellow's Evangeline, Gray's Elegy and Bard, Coleridge's Ancient Mariner, M. Arnold's Sohrab and Rustum and Pope's Essay on Man. They are all printed in big type and some contain a short glossary and all short biographical notes. Such handy booklets will surely facilitate reading.

THE SWAN EDITION OF SHAKESPEARE'S PLAYS: LANSBANK, GREEN & CO.

1. TWELFTH NIGHT. EDITED BY A. L. CANN. 1s.

2. MUCH ADO ABOUT NOTHING. EDITED BY R. G. WILLIAMS. 1s.

Elegantly bound and profusely illustrated, these annotated editions will be much welcomed

by students. A short introduction prefaces each book; the notes are brief but sufficient and there are only some *short* references here and there to grammar and derivation. The illustrations are very good.

THE ARNOLD PROSE BOOKS. BOOKS I—XXIV.

EDWARD ARNOLD. 2d. EACH.

These are the very books we would like to see much read by the students in our B. A. classes. At the present day, the B. A. students have got to know all manner of things about English Literature—the style, the subject matter, the date and every other blessed thing—all in fact, except knowledge obtained at first hand of what the various authors have written about. For examination purposes the students cram up the so-called English Literature books and obtain in the majority of cases, a decent pass. But how in the world all that ill-digested matter is going to be of use to them, no body can divine. Instead of this, will it not be good for them if they read up some selected portions of a few standard authors? Then only can they get to know how rich and varied is the mine of English Literature. They will also be impelled to read more of good literature. To supply this want, the series of books in the Arnold Prose books may be very useful. Famous authors like Goldsmith, Lamb, Bacon, Johnson, Carlyle, Macaulay, Burke, Southey, Addison and others are represented. The most famous portions are culled from the different authors, a reading of which cannot fail to give a fair idea of the author's writings. On turning over book VII, we missed Johnson's famous letter to Lord Chesterfield, but found it appearing in No. XII. Its natural place, we should think is in No. VII which represents Johnson and not No. XII which represents Boswell. We should like this series to be in the hands of every B. A. student especially as the books are so moderately priced.

THE ACADEMY SHAKESPEARE. GENERAL EDITOR, DAVID PATRICK, M.A., LL.D. KING HENRY V., WITH INTRODUCTION AND NOTES BY DUNCAN MACGILLIVRAY. W. AND R. CHAMBERS. 1s. 6d.

This is a very scholarly edition intended, we should judge, only for advanced students. The criticisms on the dramatic characteristics and incidents are full, and the notes on grammar are exhaustive and as such will be found useful to

advanced students of Shakespeare. The Shakespeare papers set for the F.A. and B.A. Examinations of our University contain mostly questions on the so-called 'criticism' and also questions on Shakespeare's grammar, the two aspects of the question paper for which we have the least respect. A paper on one of Shakespeare's plays is primarily intended to test whether the student has understood the spirit of the play and whether he has caught the full meaning of Shakespeare's noble passages. As it is, the students commit to memory some criticisms and turn them into a mess. We are of opinion that it is the examiners that have brought about this result—not to speak of those philanthropic annotators who keep everything ready for the student. It is this feature that is displeasing to us in most of the editions, but we are glad to find that only a few lines are devoted in this particular book to describe each character.

LONGMANS' CLASS-BOOKS OF ENGLISH LITERATURE.

WILLIAM MORRIS.

1. The Story of the Glittering Plain. 1s. 6d.
2. The Man born to be King. 1s. 4d.

SIR WALTER SCOTT.

3. The Lay of the Last Minstrel, Edited by F. Tickner. 1s.
4. The Lady of the Lake, Edited by W. H. Spragge. 1s. 6d.
5. Marmion, Edited by Guy Kendall. 1s. 6d.
6. Ivanhoe (Abridged). 1s. 4d.
7. A Legend of Montrose (Abridged), Edited by R. Lishman. 1s. 4d.
8. The Talisman (Abridged), Edited by J. Thornton. 1s. 4d.

LORD MACAULAY.

9. History of England, Chapter I, Edited by David Salmon. 1s. 6d.
10. The Lays of Ancient Rome, Edited by David Salmon and J. W. Bartram. 1s.
11. Milton's Paradise Lost, Books I, II and III, Edited by David Salmon and W. Elliott. 6d. each.
12. Tales of King Arthur and the Round Table, Edited by J. C. Allen and H. J. Ford. 1s. 4d.

A handsomely-bound series of reprints. The notes are very meagre except to Scott's Poems and Milton's Paradise Lost where they are just enough. The volumes representing Scott have each of them a

short biography by Andrew Lang. These volumes can be widely used in High Schools. Milton's Paradise lost is very well annotated and also contains a short biography, thus making it useful to F.A. or B.A. Students for whom it may be prescribed.

CHAKRAVARTINI: A TAMIL MONTHLY, EDITED BY C. SUBRAMANIA BHARATI. RS. 2 YEARLY OR 8 AS. PER ISSUE.

To judge by the first number which has been kindly sent to us, we should think that the editor has placed a good ideal before him and we are sure that if he keeps up to the high level, the journal will be greatly appreciated.

We have also received the following books:—

CHRISTIAN LITERATURE SOCIETY.

Geography of Europe, Africa, &c.

Geography of Asia.

New English Readers, Primers I and II.

Indian Readers, Primers I and II.

16 Outline Memory Maps.

MACMILLAN & Co.

The Water Babies by Charles Kingsley, 1s.

W. & R. CHAMBERS.

12 Books of Business Hand Copy Books.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

MR. P. Venkatesvara Seshu Aiyar B.A., L.T., First Assistant, Training College, Rajahmundry, and Acting Second Assistant Lecturer, Kumbakonam College, to act as Professor of Mathematics, College of Engineering, Madras, in the ninth class of the Provincial Education Service, during the absence of Mr. B. Hanumantha Rau, on leave or until further orders.

LIEUT.-COLONEL Browning has been nominated an ordinary fellow of the Madras University consequent on the resignation of Lieut.-Colonel J. Maitland.

THE Pennathur Subramaniam High School at Mylapore, which was started at the beginning of the year has been provisionally recognised.

DR. S. Sathianadhan, M.A., LL.D., Professor of Philosophy in the Presidency College, left Madras

on the 12th September for Bombay *en route* to England and America. His visit to America is in response to invitations from the Universities of Yale and Princeton and the Theological Seminaries of Hartford, Rochester and a few other institutions to deliver a course of lectures on "Indign Philosophical Systems and the Points of community and Difference between them and Christianity." He will deliver two courses of lectures, the first of which will be under the auspices of Yale University in connection with the Taylor Lectureship which has been offered to him. This course will consist of four lectures in which Dr. Sathianadhan will discourse on the fundamental doctrines of Hinduism and Christianity; and these will be more theological than philosophical in their character. The other course on the Indian Philosophical Systems and their Relation to Christian Philosophy and Ethics will comprise five lectures which will be delivered before the Theological Section of Princeton University and will deal with the philosophical aspects of these questions.

THE annual distribution of prizes to the students of the Board High School, Namakkal took place on the 26th August with Mr. T. T. Logan in the chair.

At the request of the College students, Mr. Hem Sircar spoke to the members of the Literary Society on Thursday, the 7th September in the Kumbakonam College Hall about "National Aspirations". Mr. S. Krishnasawmy Iyer Avl., B. A., whose name is as old as High School Education in Southern India, presided.

THE annual meeting of the Senate of the University of Madras was held on Friday, 8th September, at the Senate House with the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Benson, Vice-Chancellor, in the Chair.

THE OPENING.

In opening the meeting, the Chairman observed that he wished to explain why it was that they held the meeting that day instead of in August. From enquiries made he had learnt that the Hon'ble Dr. A. G. Bourne, Director of Public Instruction would not then be present in Madras and as one of the most important subjects to be dealt with related to the election of the Syndicate, the matter was deferred till then and, though the suggestion had been made to call two meetings, he (Chairman) ultimately decided upon holding only one meeting to suit the convenience of all the members, and he hoped that his procedure met with their approval.

Letters of apology for their inability to attend the meeting were then read from Mr. F. J. Wilson and Mr. Mahomed Razakhan Bahadur.

THE REPORT.

The Syndicate then presented the report for the period extending from 1st August 1904 to the 31st

July, 1905. The following are extracts from the report:—

The most notable event which occurred during the period under review was the coming into force of the Indian Universities Act, 1904, and the consequent reconstitution of the Senate of the University in accordance with the provisions of the Act. The Act came into force on the 9th September, 1904, in conformity with a notification published by H. E. the Governor in Council. The territorial jurisdiction of the University, as defined by the Governor-General in Council, now extends to Ceylon. An invitation was received from the President of the 15th International Congress of Medicine to be held at Lisbon, between the 19th and 26th April, 1906, to appoint a delegate to represent the University of Madras at the Congress; and Lt.-Col. J. Maitland, M.D., I.M.S., who is now in England on furlough, was requested to represent the University; but he having written to say that it was impossible for him to do so, owing to the uncertainty of his future movements, the Registrar was instructed to write to the President of the Congress, to whom the appointment of Lieut.-Col. J. Maitland had already been intimated, regretting the inability of the University under the circumstances to send another representative in his place. An invitation was received from the Trustees and Faculties of the University of Illinois, U. S., America, requesting this University to appoint one or more delegates to attend the installation of Dr. Edmund James as President of the University on the 17th, 18th and 19th October 1905; and Dr. S. Sathianathan who expects to be in America at the time, was requested to represent the University.

The Syndicate elected at the annual meeting of the Senate in August, 1904, held office till the declaration by H. E. the Chancellor of the constitution of the Senate under the Indian Universities Act, 1904. A Provincial Syndicate was appointed in January, 1905, to conduct the executive business of the University until the Syndicate shall have been constituted under Section 15 of the Act. In accordance with instructions issued by the Chancellor under Section 12 (p) of the Act, the Senate elected the following eight Ordinary Fellows, who, with the Vice-Chancellor and the Director of Public Instruction, constituted the Provincial Syndicate:—Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck, Lieut.-Col. J. Maitland, Mr. F. J. E. Sprigg, the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Sankaran Nayar, the Hon'ble Sir S. Subrahmanya Aiyar, the Rev. Canon-Sell, the Rev. W. Skinner and Mr. J. H. Stone.

The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Sankaran Nayar and Messrs. Bilderbeck and Stone have since resigned, and Lieut.-Col. Maitland has left the country on furlough. During the year under review there were seven meetings of the Syndicate which held office till the declaration of the constitution of the Senate under the Act, and six meetings of the Provisional Syndicate. The members of the respective Boards of Studies were appointed by the Syndicate in accordance with the authority vested in it by the Senate. A number of gentlemen who are

not Fellows of the University under the new Act were invited under the new Act to serve on some of the Boards.

The scheme formulated by the Syndicate to utilize the Griffith Legacy for the establishment and maintenance of a University Library in connection with the Connemara Library was, in its outline, approved by the Government in December, 1903. Certain definite proposals in regard to the management and working of the Library, showing in detail what further sum the University will engage to spend annually on books, establishment and contingencies, and the conditions on which the money will be spent, were subsequently drawn up and submitted to Government in consultation with the Superintendent, Connemara Library. The final orders of Government have now been received, and the whole correspondence on the subject will be placed before the Senate at the meeting to be held on the 8th September 1905. In G. O. No. 190, Educational, dated the 28th March 1905, the Government intimated that they considered it desirable that Fellows residing in the Mofussil should be encouraged to attend meetings of the Senate, etc., by offer to reimburse them their travelling expenses, and requested the Syndicate to frame a set of rules prescribing the conditions and scale on which travelling allowance would be granted to Fellows for travelling to head-quarters to attend the meetings. In the meantime, a sum of Rs. 5,000 was placed at the disposal of the Syndicate for the purpose of being made available for claims that might be admitted since the new Senate was constituted. The following rules were accordingly framed by the Syndicate:—The travelling expenses of Fellows, and of Members of Faculties or of Boards of Studies, or of the Syndicate, visiting Madras to attend meetings of Senate, Faculties, Boards of Studies, and Syndicate respectively, shall be paid at following rates:—For all journeys performed by rail—one first-class fare each way for a Fellow or a Member of a Faculty or Board of Studies or by the Syndicate and one third class fare each way for one servant. For all journeys performed by road, canal or steamer—the actual cost of transit for a Fellow or a Member of a Faculty or Board of Studies or the Syndicate, and for one servant. For each day spent in Madras on which a meeting is attended and for each day on which detention in Madras appears to the Syndicate to be necessary—Rs. 6. These rules have been approved by Government. In the same Order the Government of India provision should be made as early as possible for the inspection of Colleges. A grant of Rs. 15,000 for meeting the necessary initial expenditure was also promised. The following resolution, which was thereupon passed by the Syndicate, has been approved by Government:—

With reference to the inspection of Colleges the Syndicate resolves to take early action under section 23 (2) of the Indian Universities Act, 1904, and to cause every College now affiliated to the University to be inspected during the ensuing July, August and September. The Syndicate considers that such a

preliminary inspection must be made before the regulations contemplated in section 25 (2) (i) of the Act can be drafted and laid before the Senate for approval.

The Syndicate considers that it will be necessary to have before it a report with regard to each affiliated College together with proposals for the future made in consultation with the management; and that a representative Commission should be appointed to conduct the inspection. The following gentlemen were requested to inspect the various Colleges and to draw up such a report:—The Hon'ble Dr. A. G. Bourne (President) Mr. H. J. Bhabha, Dr. A. C. Mitchell, The Rev. E. M. Macphail, Dr. S. Sathianadhan, Mr. K. B. Ramathan.

Surgeon-General Browne having resigned his seat on the Council of the Governors of the Victoria Hostel, the Syndicate appointed in his place Lt.-Col. W. B. Browning to represent the Madras Medical College.

With reference to the present jurisdiction of this University in Ceylon, the Syndicate has resolved to afford facilities to Ceylon by the recognition of the Cambridge Senior Local Examination and the Calcutta Entrance Examination certificates as the equivalent of the Matriculation Certificates of this University. Jaffna, the chief town in the Northern Province of Ceylon, has also been selected as a centre for holding the Matriculation Examination in December, 1905.

The system inaugurated last year in the Presidency town, at the instance of the Accountant-General, in the matter of payment into the treasury of University Examination fees by school and college candidates having worked well, inasmuch as it relieved the Bank of Madras and the office of a good deal of labour, the Syndicate has arranged, with the approval of the Accountant-General, to extend the system this year to the treasuries in the mofussil. The accounts of the University for the year 1903-04 were audited by the Accountant-General. The receipts during the year ended 31st March, 1905, amounted to Rs. 2,68,973-2-5, and the payments to Rs. 2,27,724-13-1, thus leaving a balance of Rs. 41,248-5-6, to the credit of the University on the transactions of the year. As, however, the balance by which the assets exceeded the liabilities on 31st March, 1904, was Rs. 4,75,917-7-1, and the similar balance on 31st March, 1905, was Rs. 5,22,256-4-5, the actual net addition to the funds of the University was Rs. 46,338-13-4. Government promissory notes to the nominal value of Rs. 40,000 were purchased during the year at a cost of Rs. 39,750. The cash balance to the credit of the University on 31st March, 1905, was Rs. 1,03,495-8-10.

ENDOWMENTS.

The amount of funded capital and the cash balance on the 31st March, 1905, to the credit of endowment accounts are Rs. 2,12,300 funded Capital and Rs. 5099-2-0 cash balance.

XI

The next proposition related to the elections to

THE SYNDICATE.

The Hon'ble Dr. A. G. Bourne moved

That the following draft new bye-laws to replace the present bye-laws 90-93 in regard to the elections to the Syndicate be adopted:—

The Syndicate shall consist of the Vice-Chancellor as Chairman, the Director of Public Instruction and 10 elected members; the elected members shall be *ex-officio* or ordinary Fellows; at least 5 of the elected members shall be Heads of or Professors in colleges affiliated to the University; any elected member who has held office continuously for 2 years shall vacate his seat but shall be eligible for re-election in the manner hereinafter provided; any elected member who will necessarily be absent from the meetings of the Syndicate for more than 3 consecutive months shall vacate his seat; any elected member who has been absent from 3 consecutive meetings may be declared by the Syndicate to have vacated his seat, but he shall be eligible for re-election; whenever a vacancy among the elected members occurs, the Registrar shall give notice thereof to each Fellow, and the Syndicate as a body and each *ex-officio* or ordinary Fellow shall be at liberty to nominate a Fellow to fill that vacancy; the Registrar shall cause a list of the nominations to be sent to each Fellow together with a voting paper. The voting papers when filled up shall be returned to the Registrar in such a way as to secure the secrecy of the ballot. A day and hour shall be appointed by the Vice-Chancellor for the scrutiny of the voting papers and each Fellow shall be informed thereof in order that he may be present should he so desire; in the event of more than one vacancy occurring in the Syndicate at the same time a similar procedure shall be observed in regard to each vacancy. Should it be necessary in accordance with bye-law 3 that any vacancy should be filled by a Head of, or a Professor in a college affiliated to the University, the Registrar shall draw attention to the fact in the notice of the vacancy, and should any six Fellows within 10 days of the announcement of the result of such election raise the question as to whether the person elected is eligible as aforesaid, the Registrar shall give each Fellow resident at the time in the Presidency an opportunity of voting thereon in writing. The result of such voting shall be scrutinised and declared by a committee of two Fellows appointed for the purpose by the Vice-Chancellor. In the event of the question being determined in the negative by a majority of the votes received by the Registrar within 14 days of the posting of the voting papers to the Fellows, a fresh election from among the nominees shall take place in a manner similar to that of the original election.

In moving the proposition Dr. A. G. Bourne observed that the Syndicate had been trying to do something for some time past to start these regulations and appointed a small Committee, including Mr. Bilderbeck, Mr. Stone and himself to consider the subject. The Committee met on several occasions

for several hours on each occasion, but the difficulty in settling any special line of action was great. Ultimately they came to the conclusion that it was necessary to appoint a Provisional Syndicate; and hoped that the rules they had framed would not need any further additions. There had been three important and great principles at issue in the framing of these rules. In the first place the system of Faculty representations had been given up in the new rules. One great difficulty that they had experienced in Faculty election was the inequality of the Faculties. On general principles he saw very little grounds why there should be any Faculty representation in the Syndicate. The second important change in the rules was the introduction of a system of nomination in the case of a vacancy among the elected members, and the third change related to the rule that the election shall not be annual.

These were the three most important points he referred to, and as regards details the provisions of the Act were repeated in the regulations.

The Hon'ble Sir. S. Subramania Aiyar seconded the proposition.

A discussion ensued on the subject in regard to amendments, notice of which had not been previously given to the Senate.

Mr. Rangachariar proposed that the Senate should go into Committee at once to discuss the rules, and Mr. V. C. Seshachari seconded the proposition.

Dr. Bourne and Sir. S. Subramania Aiyar objected and the proposition was lost.

Mr. Rangachariar asked for the permission of the Senate to propose an addition to Rule 7 after the words "and the Syndicate as a body"—"whenever the special interest of any Faculty or representation requires it."

The permission was not granted.

Dr. Wolf asked for permission to add to rule 1:—"Not less than three from the Faculty of Arts and one at least from each of the other Faculties."

Permission to propose the amendment having been granted, Dr. Wolf observed that they were not quite ready as yet to depart from the representation according to the Faculty principle, and that it was quite necessary that the weaker Faculties must be represented on the Syndicate.

Sir S. Subramania Aiyar and the Hon'ble Mr. V. C. Desika Chariar spoke against the subject. The latter observed that according to the new rules the members to the Syndicate were to be returned by the Senate, and there ought not to be, therefore, any fear lurking in the minds of anybody as to representation on the Syndicate. Altogether the new rules were more wholesome than the old ones, and under the circumstances they must assume that the best men would be returned.

Dr. Bourne strongly objected to the amendment proposed by Dr. Wolf, and the Rev. Mr. Pittendrigh spoke to the contrary.

The amendment was lost.

The Rev. Mr. E. M. Macphail requested permission to add at the end of the first para. in rule 7 "all nominations shall be in writing and shall be held to be duly made if they reach the Registrar not more than 8 days after the declaration of the vacancy."

The permission was granted, and Sir S. Subramania Aiyar seconded the proposition, which was carried.

M. B. AND C. M. EXAMINATION.

The Rev. W. Skinner moved the recommendation of the Syndicate:—

"That with reference to bye-law 218, Sirur Annaji Rau, candidate No. 64, for the 1st M. B. and C. M. examination held in April last, who had not taken the degree, although he passed in all the three branches for the B. A. degree examination, be, as a special case, declared to have passed the 1st M. B. and C. M. examination."

Mr. Joseph Satya Nadar seconded the proposition, which was eventually carried.

CERTIFICATES OF ATTENDANCE.

Proposed by Sir S. Subramania Aiyar and seconded by Mr. T. V. Seshagiri and carried:—

"That in view of the exceptional circumstances of the case C. N. Muthulakshmi Ammal, a student of the Maharajah's College, Pudukkottai, be granted exemption from the production of a certificate of attendance for the 1st term of the Junior F. A. class."

Proposed by the Rev. W. Skinner and seconded by Mr. Rangiah Chetty and carried:—"That Miss Eileen Schofield, a student of the Presidency College, Madras, be granted exemption from the production of the certificate of attendance in French, and that S. Mahante and B. Batnaik, students of the Christian College, be granted exemption from the production of the certificates of attendance in Oorya for the ensuing B. A. degree examination."

THE GRIFFITH LEGACY.

The Hon'ble Dr. A. G. Bourne moved the next proposition:—

"That the scheme approved by the Madras Government to utilise the Griffith Legacy for the establishment and maintenance of a University Library in connection with the Connemara Public Library be adopted."

Sir S. Subramania Aiyar seconded the proposition. Carried.

A GOLD MEDAL.

The Hon'ble Sir S. Subramania Aiyar moved that the Senate accept an endowment of Rs. 1,500 from M.R.Ry. A. R. Raja Raja Varma, Avergal, M.A., M.R.A.S., Superintendent of Vernacular Studies, H. H. the Maharajah's College, Trivandrum, for the purpose of awarding a gold medal annually under the following conditions:—

The medal shall be called "The Kerala Varma

Jubilee Gold Medal;" the medal shall be awarded annually to the candidate who obtains the highest number of marks in passing the M. A. Degree Examination in Branch VI—Sanskrit. If in any year there be no such candidate the medal shall be awarded to the candidate who obtains the highest number of marks in Sanskrit in the Second Language Division of B.A. Degree Examination, provided that he passes in the First Class and qualifies for his degree; if in any year the medal be not awarded the unexpended interest shall be added to the Corpus of the Fund; the Senate shall have power with the consent of the founder during his lifetime, and after his death, at its own discretion, to make such changes in the conditions of award as new circumstances may render desirable, with due regard to the object of the endowment.

Mr. C. Krishnan seconded the proposition, which was carried.

NEW REGULATIONS.

Mr. J. Cook moved that a Committee to draft the new body of regulations required by Section 26 of the Indian Universities Act of 1904 be appointed. Dr Wolf seconded the proposition.

The Hon'ble Dr. Bourne, however, came out with the suggestion that the consideration of the subject be adjourned *sine die* till a special meeting to be held on the 9th October when the Senate could go into Committee in full body to discuss the various regulations.

The amendment was carried.

The following were the persons to form the Committee proposed by Mr. Cook:—

The Hon'ble Dr. A. G. Bourne (convener); Mr. E. W. Middlemast, Mr. R. L. Jones, Mr. R. Littlehales, Rev. W. Skinner, Rev. E. M. Macphail, Rev. G. Pittendrigh, Dr. S. Satyanadhan, Mr. A. A. Hall, Mr. C. Sankaran Nayar, Mr. J. G. Tait, Mr. C. Krishnan, B.A., Lieut.-Col. J. L. Van Geysel, Dr. H. Rangappa, Mr. W. E. Hoare, Mr. B. Hanumanta Rao, Mr. H. J. Bhabha, Mr. J. A. Yates, Mr. K. Ramanuja Charriar, Rev. J. D. W. Sewell, the Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Aiyar, Lieut.-Col. W. B. Browning, I.M.S., and Rev. Canon Sell.

The meeting then terminated at 7 P.M.

BOMBAY.

We have received the Report of the Teachers' Association, Bombay for two years ending the 30th June, 1903. Mr. James MacDonald was the president of the Association during the period. A Fund was started and Rs. 600 collected to help the mistresses in the Municipal and other primary schools. Out of this sum Rs. 360 were spent in adding a monthly sum of Rs. 3 each for one year to the Scholarships of 12 teachers who are receiving Scholarships of Rs. 8 a month from the joint School Committee and are being trained in the Poona and Ahmedabad Female Training Colleges. During the period under review 15 meetings were held where different edu-

cational subjects were taken up for lecturing discussion. At present there are 72 members of whom 23 are Principals or Managers of educational institutions.

BENGAL.

Dr. Satis Chandra Banerji has been appointed Tagore Law Professor for the year 1906, and the subject of his lectures is "The Law of Specific Relief in British India."

The heads of sixteen Colleges in Calcutta have addressed the Government of Bengal deprecating the appointment of a member of the Indian Civil Service as Director of Public Instruction, in succession to Mr. Pedler. Among other objections, they urge that the state of public feeling in Bengal renders it necessary that the educational plans of the Government should stand out as purely educational if they are to receive the support of all or nearly all classes of educated men in the Province. The appointment of a member of the Indian Civil Service as head of the Education Department will inevitably go far to prevent this condition from being realised.

The Lieutenant-Governor met the members of the Executive Committee of the Ranchi Model College Scheme at Belvedere last Monday. After the business of the meeting was over, His Honour thanked the Committee for their cordial co-operation, and congratulated them on the large measure of success that had attended their efforts, as evidenced by the circumstance that the Honorary Secretary's subscription list shows that over three lakhs of rupees have already been promised. These subscriptions would be entirely devoted to hostels (unless otherwise ear-marked) as proposed from the first. Sir Andrew Fraser noticed with satisfaction that much had been done to dispel the altogether erroneous idea that the college would be within the reach of the rich only. The fees are to be reasonable and besides this some of the personal subscriptions are to be devoted to the foundation of scholarships to enable the sons of the less well-to-do to take advantage of the high class of education which the College is intended to provide. His Honour believed that it might be regarded as settled that there would shortly be a light railway connecting Ranchi with the Bengal-Nagpur Railway at Purulia and so rendering the former station easily accessible; and he was proceeding on this assumption in regard to such other schemes as the removal of the Sibpur Engineering College and Central Lunatic Asylum to the neighbourhood of Ranchi, and the substitution of Police for the troops there. In conclusion, the Lieutenant-Governor reminded the Committee that *pari passu* with the promotion of the Ranchi College Scheme, steps were being taken to improve the existing Colleges at the Presidency and at Patna and Dacca; and His Honour trusted that no question of rivalry between

these institutions would be allowed to disturb the public mind. They all had their work to do. They would all be well equipped to do that work, and they should cordially co-operate to advance the cause of higher education.

THE students of the different Calcutta Colleges met on the 15th September at the City College Hall under the presidency of Babu Surendranath Banerjee to form a Union of their own for promoting social intercourse and fellow-feeling amongst themselves.

The following rules were then adopted:—

The objects of the Union are to promote social intercourse, fellow-feeling, intellectual, physical, and moral culture amongst the students; and also to foster a patriotic and philanthropic spirit amongst them and to furnish such ideals to them as will enable them to better discharge the duties that they owe to themselves, their people and their country.

Members of the Union, when they can make time, will be expected to work amongst fellow-students and the people at large and take steps for their intellectual, moral and material well-being, to communicate such ideas and ideals to them as would make them better men and worthier citizens, to exert their utmost for the growth, development and protection of their home industries.

RULES.

I. Graduates and Under-graduates of the Calcutta University shall ordinarily be eligible for membership. Non-collegiate students may also be admitted as members by the Representative Council of the Union.

II. Members of the Union will be required to pay in advance a subscription of Re. 1 per annum.

III. The Representative Council of the Union will be composed of representatives from each of the Colleges from which students may join the Union. The Council shall elect from amongst them a Secretary and an Assistant Secretary and a Treasurer who shall ordinarily be a member of the Advisory Board.

IV. Colleges which may be represented in the Union shall have each a College Sub-Committee and such Committees may each have a Secretary and such Secretaries will ordinarily form members of the Representative Council. The non-collegiate students may also have a Sub-Committee and the Secretary thereof shall represent them in the Council.

In the absence of the Secretary and the Assistant Secretary the most senior member will act as Secretary and Assistant Secretary, respectively.

V. Besides the Representative Council there shall be an Advisory Board not exceeding seven in number who must either be M. A.'s of five years' standing or B. A.'s of ten years' standing or graduates of similar standing in the other Faculties. The Advisory Board shall be nominated by the Representa-

tative Council who may in special cases make exceptional appointments.

VI. The members of the Union in their annual meeting shall elect the President of the Union who will thereby be an ex-officio member and President of the Representative Council.

VII. All offices will expire at the annual general meeting of the Union when the Representative Council and office-holders will have to be elected. The Branch Unions outside Calcutta with identical objects will have similar organisations so far as local conditions permit.

VIII. Any Branch Union, desiring to be affiliated to the Union at Calcutta, must send an application to the Secretary with a copy of the draft rules and the names of the members of the Representative Council and advisory Board and the Council of the Calcutta Union may thereupon affiliate such Branch.

IX. All recognised Branch Unions must co-operate with the Calcutta Union in promoting the objects of the Union.

X. The Union or its branches shall have fixed offices. For the present the office of the Calcutta Union will be located at 62, Bowbazar Street.

PUNJAB.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN THE PUNJAB.

In their Report the Committee on Commercial Education say they found clerical and commercial classes teaching English drafting, commercial arithmetic, commercial geography, book-keeping, shorthand and typewriting, native system of accounts, and Urdu in existence in Lahore and Amritsar. It is proposed to increase the number of such classes by opening them at a number of high schools in the province, and the Education Department is engaged on a scheme for the improvement of the Amritsar School. The Committee, however, are of opinion that the existing scheme of instruction is marred by want of properly qualified teachers of commercial subjects. The Committee recommend the omission of book-keeping and shorthand from the ordinary school final course as too technical. The subjects would better be taught in the higher classes and the time saved be profitably employed in securing a more thorough grounding in English. With the latter aim in view, a special additional course in English is recommended and a change in the scheme of marks in force is advised in order to lay greater stress on the value of certain subjects. The Committee urgently recommend the establishment of a Commercial Institute at Lahore (the educational centre of the province and the town from which employment will most likely be obtained) for the education of youths destined for a commercial career or for teacherships in Commercial classes. The head institution should be thoroughly up-to-date, with a commercial expert on an initial salary of Rs. 500 to Rs. 700. The Committee feel that such a man is not available in India at present, and recommend that he be procured

from the United Kingdom or the United States. The Committee suggest a course of instruction and qualifying examinations, adding that it is felt that provision should be made for the supply of qualified teachers. The majority of the Committee consider it desirable that this should be in the hands of the Principal of the Commercial Institute. The general opinion of the Committee is that all English teaching should be in the hands of Englishmen to secure really idiomatic English, and they recommend at least that two such teachers should be engaged. As regards commercial examinations, the Committee suggest the conditions, and recommend that the higher examination be equivalent to the intermediate examination in the Punjab University. To ensure practical examination of the services of commercial men as examiners should be enlisted as far as possible. The Committee are of opinion that the best way to secure employment for successful students would be to establish an Employment Bureau in connection with the proposed Commercial Institute, and that lists of successful candidates, showing the subjects in which they have passed, should be forwarded to commercial firms and offices throughout the Punjab, as well as to Deputy Commissioners. The Principal should also keep in touch with commercial men to ascertain their needs, and thus be in a position to provide suitable employees when required. There must be a large number of men who would like to study commercial subjects out of office hours, and some provision should be made for opening continuation classes. The establishment of such classes would be successful in Lahore. Steps should be taken to promote commercial education of Europeans and Eurasians, and the principal European schools should be encouraged to develop a commercial side curriculum. The large demand for trained munshis and writers in connection with the indigenous trade of the country is a want that would probably be met by the translation of English books of commercial instruction into the vernacular. The Committee recommend the formation by the Government of an Advisory Committee and suggest that steps should be taken to ensure this province being kept fully informed of the progress of commercial education in other parts of India. Reports should be exchanged and those received circulated among the members of the Advisory Committee.

Foreign Notes.

EMPIRE-DAY MOVEMENT.

THE Earl of Meath in reply to enquiries has been informed by the Deputy Minister of the Education Department in Ontario, Canada, that there are 5,734 Elementary Schools and 135 Secondary Schools in the Colony and that Empire-Day was kept "in most of the Elementary and in many of the High Schools.

The Chief Superintendent of Education in New Brunswick, Canada, states "there are about 1,600 schools in the province. In all of the cities, towns, and villages "Empire-Day" has been observed by appropriate exercises."

The Superintendent of Education for British Columbia, Canada, says "Empire-Day was duly celebrated throughout the public schools of this Province, but I regret that it is impossible for me to give you a statement of the number of children that took part in these celebrations."

The Superintendent of Education for Nova Scotia says "In reply to your question as to the number of schools in the Province of Nova Scotia keeping the 24th May as Victoria Day I have pleasure in saying that it was observed as a public holiday in every public and private school, Academy, college, and University in the province. In addition, the day preceding, the 23rd May, was observed generally in all the public schools as "Empire-Day."

The Deputy Commissioner, Department of Education, North West Provinces, Canada writes: "The interest in Empire-Day in the North-West Territories of Canada is steadily increasing. All schools are encouraged to observe the day by participating in National choruses and other patriotic exercises. The details of the celebration are arranged by the officials of individual schools."

TOO MUCH "PRACTICAL WORK"?

AN opinion expressed by Sir William Ramsay in the August number of the *University Review* on the teaching of science, should be of interest to teachers. "In my opinion," he says, "far too much stress is laid nowadays on what is called 'practical work.' To take my own subject, it is possible to have quite an intelligent idea of chemistry without ever having handled a test-tube or touched a balance. Lectures on chemistry may be well illustrated experimentally, and the necessary theories demonstrated by the lecturer. Of course, that will never make a chemist; but we are not talking of making chemists, we are discussing the best way of giving education; and I maintain that to spend several hours a day in practical work is, if not a waste of time, at least a work of supererogation."

To many educationists, say the *Times*, such an opinion will appear to be high treason; but it is a fact that educational benefits derived from practical work are frequently small in comparison to the time which is devoted to it, because of the large amount of time consumed in the mechanical task of preparing the apparatus. This applies less to practical work in physics than in chemistry. The whole question of selecting a course of practical science work of real educational value might well engage the attention of the Association of Public School Science Masters. *University Correspondent.*

The Educational Review.

Not the least useful of the purposes served by the Native States is the chance they offer of experiments being tried in matters of educational or social reform. The conditions of success for such experiments are less complex, and under a sympathetic ruler difficulties that appear insuperable in British territories may be overcome with surprising ease. We would, in illustration, refer to what has been done for social betterment and educational reform in Maisur and Baroda.

One of the subjects that must more and more come within the domain of practical politics is the question of 'compulsory education.' It will be remembered that the subject was brought forward recently by one of the members of the Bombay Corporation—as fitted to engage the attention of that enlightened body. The most hopeful field for such an experiment in British India was Bombay. The general feeling seemed to be that it was rather premature.

But a dozen years earlier His Highness the Gaekwar had been interesting himself in the subject and he wanted to see how far 'Compulsory Education' might be feasible in his own dominions. Mr. Harigovind Kantavala describes in the August number of "East and West" the success of the experiment as conducted by him.

Before 'Compulsory Education' can be tried with any chance of success, there must be schools in each village, and education must be free. And both these reforms would mean money. The question of funds—a matter of insuperable difficulty in British India—did not loom in such formidable proportions in a small state like Baroda. His Highness was resolved

that money should be no consideration if the object was good, and he was prepared to utilize his private purse if there should be need.

The initial difficulty overcome, the Director of Vernacular Instruction brought forward a scheme—the salient features of which were: (1) Before applying the compulsory law to a place, the Government should provide it with the means of education; (2) Girls must be compelled to attend as well as boys; (3) The ages of compulsion for boys must be from 7 to 12; for girls from 7 to 10; (4) The course of study should be elementary—confined to the three R.'s; (5) compulsory attendance should be for 100 days at least in a year; (6) if the education should be completed earlier the pupils may be allowed to go away.

Punishments of parents who might not send the children should be lenient, and the special circumstances of the parents should be taken into consideration in the working of the scheme.

As the result of the experiment Mr. Kantavala is able to report that in the first year over 99 per cent. of the children within the age of compulsion entered school and this in the most backward part of the Baroda state which was selected as likely to give the best idea of the practical difficulties of carrying out the scheme. Compulsory education in the Amreli Taluka has stood the test of more than a dozen years and nearly cent. per cent. of the children of school-going age attend school, and recently the law of compulsory education has been made applicable to all cases where the parents of the children have a certain annual income.

From the Viceroy downwards we have been complaining of the small progress we have made in the matter of primary education.

Four villages out of five are without schools, three boys out of four go without education of any kind and only one girl out of 40 goes to school. Cannot something be done to remedy this state of affairs? Have those who have benefited by English education done all they could in the direction of giving educational facilities to the children of their less fortunate brethren? Endowment of colleges, of professorships and prizes may be possible for those lavishly endowed with the world's goods. But the humbler ones may surely do something in spreading enlightenment among the masses. What to a Lord or Lady Bountiful may seem a beggarly sum as an endowment for high school or college would be respectable for establishing primary schools, and it must be the endeavour of each enlightened villager that can afford it to see that the children of the village have within easy reach a good primary school where the elements of education are efficiently taught and in the case of apt pupils foundations laid of future culture. The Government may be expected to co-operate heartily in all such attempts.

We are rather particular in drawing the attention of educated Indians to this field of practical philanthropy open before them as it is too early to expect the Government to take up the question of compulsory education seriously. Wherever there are village schools, steps should be taken to see that all the children of school-going age are made to attend and in case of poverty standing in the way—enabled to attend. Where there are no schools, they must be established, with the help of Government when possible, without such help if need be. Primary education is, so far as the Indian community is concerned, practically an unworked field of philanthropy, if unostentatious.

Mr. Kantavala says that "compulsory education is practicable in India, if the requisite funds are available and if the measure is carried out with consideration, caution and tact." The *ifs* make us pause and fall back on private initiative and philanthropy.

The meeting of the Vice-Chancellor before the Senate, began with an apology. The Madras University annual meeting must be held according to the existing Regulations in the month of August. The inconvenience referred to at the meeting must not have influenced the Vice-Chancellor so far as to bring about what looks like an express breaking of the Regulations. The proper thing to have done was to have postponed that part of the business in which a particular member of the Syndicate was interested and to have got through the rest of the business. Nobody objected and this departure from the rule was perhaps not worth objecting to. But we should always prefer the Syndicate giving as little room to cavil as possible. Minorca lying within the middle sea may be according to law within the Ward of Cheap to wit; but the 8th of September may not be, by any interpretation, considered to be in August.

The most important business transacted at the meeting was the acceptance by the Senate of the new bye-laws proposed by Dr. Bourne. The old bye-laws (90, 92, and 93) provided for Faculty representation. The new provisions give up the principle of Faculty representation and it is possible to have a Syndicate composed exclusively of the Faculty of Arts and the minor faculties may be unrepresented. This inconvenience was pointed out, and the amendment proposed by Dr. Wolf was to remedy the possible evil. The mover of the proposition showed that the evil was not as

great as represented and that it was always possible for the Syndicate to resort to expert advice. On behalf of the minor Faculties it might be said that the Syndicate might prove to be a self-sufficient body and not care for expert opinion and the unrepresented Faculties would prefer not to depend on the good will of the Syndics for ventilating or carrying out their views.

What influenced the Senate itself in adopting these bye-laws was that they removed the evil of restricting each Fellow to a particular faculty in Syndicate elections. It may be remembered that this arrangement was the most objected to and that the throwing out of the amendments to mitigate the hardships of the tight compartment system caused a great deal of heartburning. It was feared that the system of one-Fellow-one-Faculty along with that of Faculty representation would make it impossible for Indian fellows to get into the Syndicate. Naturally the removal of the Faculty representation by the new bye-laws removing this fear was welcomed by the majority of the Senate. The good outweighs the possible evil that may be caused to minor Faculties. Hence we welcome the new provisions.

The choice of the Syndicate is to be by the Senate as a whole and not by the Faculties. Of the alternatives given by the Indian Universities Act 15 (c), the Madras Senate has chosen the first—of choice by the Senate; and given up the second—choice by the Faculties.

A doubt arises if 'the Senate' and 'the Faculties' are two distinct bodies and if the Senate may not mean the Faculties. 25 (2) (b), refers to 'the proportion in which the members, other than the *ex-officio* members of the Syndicate shall be elected to represent the various Faculties.' Does it refer only to cases where the Senate has elected to abide by Faculty representation?

The question of assigning Fellows to distinct faculties has been decided in favour of one and the same Fellow belonging to two or more faculties if qualified. We are glad that it was an European Professor who brought forward the amendment and carried it. His action must convince everybody that the criticism of the system of one-Fellow-one-Faculty is consistent with zeal for culture and University progress.

The dissent from the original proposal was weighty and, the Senate did wisely in coming to the conclusion it did. This will simplify the question of Faculty representation in the Syndicate. There need be no attempt made in Bombay to elude the difficulties of the sort we had here.

The Report submitted by the Inspector-General of Education on the 17th November 1904 was reviewed by the Government on the 20th July last. The Inspector-General took about four months for submitting the annual report and the Government that notices the delay in the sending in of the report has taken about twice the time for reviewing it.

The falling off in strength and the number of institutions (3798 schools and 106,468 scholars against 3931 schools and 112,064 of the previous year) is explained as due to the wider prevalence of the plague and very little to the increased levy of fees in Taluq Vernacular Schools and the Middle and High Anglo-Vernacular Schools and the introduction of fees in Upper Primary and Middle departments of Village Schools.

Among the noticeable features of the year is the activity in the direction of technical and industrial education. The reorganization of

the Industrial School of Mysore, the establishment of Industrial and Weaving Schools at Chennapatna, Chitaldrug, Dodballapur, Chik-nayaganhalli, the grant of technical scholarships to young Mysorians all testify to the interest of the Mysore Government in the matter of reviving the arts and industries of the province.

The report gives full information about educational progress in all departments.

What is noteworthy in University and College education is the provision of excellent hostels in connection with the Colleges. The conduct of resident students is reported to be satisfactory. The only matter that needs attention is that the supervision exercised is real and of the proper sort.

We notice that the Maharani's College has been thrown open to all communities. We hope this step will not stand in the way of Hindu girls availing themselves of the facilities for higher education the College offers. Confidence in educational institutions, especially in those meant for women, is a matter of slow growth in prejudiced minds, and we should deprecate any step which would shake such confidence.

Among Special Schools, the School for the Blind and that for the Deaf do good work.

The blind boys have made progress in vocal and instrumental music, and what is more, they are able to make reed mats, coir carpets and rugs. The deaf mutes progressed fairly on the lip system. Names and characteristics of common objects are understood and expressed in writing or word of mouth.

Here is a sample of the difficulties experienced in spreading education among backward communities. After stating that the Hindustani boys' schools are unsatisfactory the report says that the girls' schools are

worse and proceeds: "The results of the inspection of girls' schools by male inspecting agency are often inconclusive, as girls of more than ten years answer from behind the purdah and will not appear before the inspecting officer even with a veil. If all grown up girls can be induced to appear outside the purdah with a *boorkha* much of the difficulty of inspection will be solved." Cannot inspectresses be employed to examine girls' schools?

The Government review compliments the Inspector-General on the interesting nature of the Report and on the progress of the department under his able management. The compliment seems fully deserved.

We confess to a feeling of uneasiness as we read in the papers of the Swadesi Movement and Student doings of students in furtherance of the Swadesi movement. The example of the young men of Bengal showed that students had a place of their own in the movement, and it is well-known with what facility the consciousness of power leads to its exercise in impulsive natures. The large open-air meeting of Madras students has been followed by similar demonstrations at Rajahmundry, Kumbakonam, Tinnevely and other places. Obviously the world of students has been stirred, and whether the effect be permanent or, as is likely, only evanescent, they have made it clear that they can and will act in serious affairs on their own account. Is this an altogether desirable tendency? We have grave doubts.

In the first place the adhesion of students does not add strength or dignity to a public cause. Exuberance of enthusiasm is a poor substitute for knowledge. Excepting a dozen or so of young men, mostly students of law, the vast majority of the hundreds who throng-

ed beneath the smiling stars on the Madras beach could have had but a dim perception of the bearings of the problem which they had bravely set themselves to solve. Neither traders, manufacturers, nor our rulers would have obtained any material guidance in their business by the resolutions of the immature Swadesis. The cynic might say that, if these did not raise the dignity of the movement as a national agitation, they inevitably pulled it down to the level of a puerile show. This criticism, if pushed to its logical conclusion, would cast ridicule on all popular movements. The theory that any man who has attained his majority and possesses a stake is entitled to a vote may be a political shibboleth, but it is an accepted fiction of this democratic age, and the opinions of a body of adult citizens, however ignorant the majority of them may be, has a definite value in the political world. Ability to judge of political matters is presumed to exist in a person who is past the age of learning. To extend this presumption to all school-boys would render popular suffrage a mockery and convert democratic ideals at one stroke into the dreams of madness.

To the students themselves this premature participation in politics must be detrimental. Politics is an exciting game, it stirs up passion, and its noisy methods cannot but have a disturbing effect on juvenile minds by no means conducive to the serene pursuit of learning. Besides, public life itself would deteriorate lamentably by the influx of men whose minds had been early cast into narrow political grooves and whose whole outlook had been coloured by imperfectly-understood political creeds.

There is another danger also. Once students are allowed to combine for such pur-

poses and discover their power, they will combine for other purposes as well and make their power felt in various ways. It is said that the so-called leader of a mob never leads, but is led by the most violent faction in the mob. If this is true at all, it follows that once students are up in a mass, they will not listen to the voice of moderation. We have it on good authority that certain items of a dramatic character in the proceedings of the Madras meeting were objected to by the chief speaker of the day, but that the eager boys would not consent to drop them. Whether this be so or not, it will not be doubted that a crowd of students is easily excited, but cannot be so easily calmed or controlled. It is quite conceivable that, after a continued process of humouring of this kind, the students, conscious of their power, might presume to regulate examinations, curricula, and the internal arrangements of colleges and schools. It may be said that with such notoriously docile students as those of India these fears are baseless. Probably so; but that is no reason why a dangerous weapon should be placed in their hands. In the present agitation in Bengal, the young Baboos are apparently guided by their elders; but even so they now and then commit excesses and have to be coaxed to practise some self-restraint.

Let us not, however, be misunderstood. It is right that students should learn and watch with intelligent interest such politics as they can understand. The more advanced among them will naturally do so; and it is as unwise to ignore, as it will be impossible to repress, this tendency. They will discuss political questions in their debating societies. They will throng to public meetings. They will volunteer their services at political gatherings. All this is necessary as probation for

their future career of public spirit and patriotism. But the line must be drawn here. They may not, for example, address a memorial to Government. They may not pass a resolution on the plague policy. They may not elect representatives to political bodies like the Indian National Congress. They may not, we wish to add, take a definite step in the Swadesi movement on their own account. Political action of an independent nature is outside their sphere. Otherwise we should be prepared occasionally to see the seniors and juniors of the community taking distinct lines on some questions, possibly even opposite sides.

That this last fear is not altogether idle is indicated by the rebuke administered in several places to the elders of the community for not vigorously supporting the agitation in Bengal. Several speakers at the Madras meeting lamented the lack of leaders which threw the students on their own resources and necessitated their organising a movement of their own. Elsewhere too the defence set up by the juvenile patriots is that their natural leaders, the seniors, have deserted their posts, having become hopeless lotus-eaters. Whether this charge is justified in the present instance it is not for us to determine. But the situation opens our eyes to the danger there really exists that the elders of society may lose touch with, and forfeit the respect of, the youngsters. In other countries where public education is national, care is taken by the elders to train the young to a sense of civic responsibility and to inculcate the duties of patriotism and self-sacrifice for the country. It is too much to expect that anything in this direction can be done in India while the control and conduct of education are largely in the hands of those who are unable from the nature of the case to

share these sentiments. Indian leaders should realise this and at least in their own persons set the example of watchful patriotism. If, on the contrary, when the time calls loudly to them for action, they make no response, as unfortunately is the case in many places and on many occasions, is it a wonder that the cause they have betrayed and the function they have abdicated are taken up by others? Serious indeed is the situation when the fathers have lost the confidence of the sons and cast their burden on untried shoulders.

In a long speech the Viceroy defended his Educational policy and measures before the Directors of Public Instruction assembled in conference at Simla. It is in the usual self-laudatory style. Lord Curzon perhaps considers himself fallen upon a time and a society that cannot fully understand and appreciate his statesmanship, for at every step he is careful to extol the merits of his own doings and claim their full measure of credit. In this particular speech he has made no new announcement or suggestion, but simply summarised the educational activity of the Government of India during the seven years of his rule. This he has done with great thoroughness and ability. He claims with perfect justice that there is no corner of the field of education where he has not laboured. It is indeed amazing how during his vigorous rule all branches of education, even the minutest, have received a powerful stimulus. We have acknowledged the beneficence of his policy in regard to technical and industrial education and the liberality of his final help towards the Tata Research Institute. The scheme of rural primary education which he has practically inaugurated and for which he has set apart large sums has

received a heartfelt welcome everywhere. An unkind critic, irritated by the excessive self-praise of the speech, points out that the actual figures of education for the last two or three years do not show any substantial improvement to justify the large claims made. But this is going too far. Lord Curzon has but sown the seed, and it is too early to look for the fruit. Of his unfortunate University legislation it is not necessary to speak now. His parting blessing to secondary education sounds like a mockery when one thinks of the restrictive recognition rules of Madras and the all-but-openly-declared policy of withdrawing State aid from high schools. There is even in this latest utterance of the departing Viceroy the same pervading tone of unreality, of exaggerated perception of evil, which he began with at the original Simla Conference. For example, look at this: "For years education in India had been muddling along with no one to look after it at headquarters, or to observe its symptoms till the men who had given up their lives to it were sick at heart and well-nigh in despair." This very pathetic cry we heard before, but what is the reality corresponding to it? Here is another flight of Lord Curzon's generous imagination. "Coming to the Universities, we found courses of study and a system of tests which were lowering the quality while steadily increasing the volume of the human output, students driven like sheep from lecture-room to lecture-room and examination to examination, text-books badly chosen, degrees pursued for their commercial value, the Senates with over-swollen numbers selected on almost every principle but that of educational fitness, the Syndicates devoid of statutory powers, a huge system of active but often misdirected effort over which, like some evil

phantom, seemed to hover the monstrous and maleficent spirit of cram." There is no doubt some element of truth in each of these accusations, but the cumulative effect of the whole indictment is a gross perversion of the truth. The worst of the matter, however, is that it leaves on the reader the impression that for these evils some remedial measures have been devised. Now what principles have been enunciated for the proper choice of text-books? Are degrees hereafter to be deprived of their commercial value? Or has a genuine love of learning been fostered? Has the monstrous and maleficent spirit of cram been exorcised? Is there a reasonable chance of its being exorcised in the course of the next generation or two? If it ever is, it shall not be the result of any Act of the Legislature.

For the clear enunciation of one excellent principle, unfortunately not fully understood, all educationists must feel thankful to Lord Curzon. Now that it has been stated on high authority, we hope that it will not be lost sight of again by the public, but accepted as one of the fundamental postulates of educational organisation. It has been stated with reference to the constitution of Universities, but *mutatis mutandis* it may with equal truth be affirmed of all bodies that are concerned with education. "Higher Education ought not to be run either by politicians or amateurs. It is a Science, the Science of Human Life and Conduct, in which we must give a fair hearing and a reasonable chance to the Professor."

We reproduce in this issue an excellent account of Elementary Education in England from the *Pedagogical Seminary*. It gives a fair idea of the acute controversy and bitter contention that are now going on in

An Important Extract.

England as a result of the Education Act of 1902. It will also afford much help to those in India who are interested in the all-important question of Primary Education. No apology is therefore needed for quoting in full even the bibliography.

In our June number we reprinted an article entitled "Organised Games in connection with the Large Day School." By an oversight the magazine from which it was taken was not mentioned. We hasten to state now that it was reproduced from that excellent educational monthly of Messrs. Macmillan & Co.—*The School World*.

THE MADRAS TEACHERS' GUILD REGISTRY.

The Madras Teachers' Guild conducts a registry for teachers seeking employment. The following are the rules approved by the Guild.

1. Every candidate who wishes to secure employment as a teacher shall send in his application in the prescribed form to the Secretaries.

2. The application shall be accompanied with a registration fee of Re. 1 in the case of the members of the Guild, and Rs. 3 in the case of non-members.

3. Every application shall further be accompanied with three testimonials:—one of character, one of general educational qualification, and one of professional qualification. The first testimonial must be from some responsible person and must be countersigned by two members of the Guild.

It is proposed by the Guild, in order to facilitate the working of the Registry to send out periodically to schools circulars of names on the list and to ask for information of vacancies, so that both teachers

and Headmaster or Managers may be in communication. The secretaries would be extremely glad if teachers who want posts will join the Registry, and if Managers of Schools and others will inform them of vacancies.

All communications should be addressed to the Honorary Secretaries, Teachers' Guild, Mylapore, Madras.

List of teachers now on the register:—

- (1) A physical Science M.A., L.T. Service:— Headmaster of a High School for over five years. Desires the Headmastership of a High School or a lectureship in a College in some town with a salary of Rs. 120 or more.
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- (3) A certificated trained Telugu F.A. Now Teacher of Form 3, in a second grade College, on Rs. 40. Wants Headmaster's place in Lower Secondary School or an assistant's place in a High School on Rs. 45, per mensem.
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- (5) A Tamil Mathematics B.A., L.T. Has been Professor of Mathematics in a First Grade College for over 10 years. Wants a Lecturer's place in a College or Headmastership of a High School in Madras or districts south of Madras, on Rs. 100, or more.
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THE TEACHER AS A CHARACTER-BUILDER.

IT has been recognized all over the world, in all climes and ages, that education means the harmonious training of the manifold phases of the mind and that it is consequently the worthy function of the teacher as much to build-up the character as to develop the intellects of his pupils. It goes without saying that intellectual superiority alone, unaided by moral excellence, is but a weak foundation for any individual greatness worth the name, and that an irreproachable character plays as great a part—if not, a greater—as a shining intellect in contributing to a man's success in the world. It is therefore highly necessary that the moral education of a boy should receive as much consideration as his intellectual education from all the individuals concerned. It has, however, to be remembered that the part that the teacher can legitimately be expected to play in this work of moral education is small indeed, since many others in addition to himself are responsible for it. It is evident that a boy passes most of his time outside his school, in the company of his parents, his relatives, or his friends, so that the influence they are capable of exercising upon him, intellectually and morally, for good or for evil, is indeed of a serious character. Without their active sympathy and co-operation, the teacher can

succeed but little in his endeavour, however earnest and strenuous it may be. For, from the nature of the case, they have greater facilities and opportunities than the teacher can possibly command to watch the silent growth of the boy's mind, to study his natural proclivities and to observe the free play of his impulses and feelings. It is therefore in the hands of his parents and of others with whom he intimately associates, that rests, to a considerable extent, the shaping of the boy's character. Nevertheless, opportunities are not wanting for the teacher himself to do some notable work in this direction.

Before, however, entering upon this subject, it would not be quite out of place to mention, by way of introduction, some of the difficulties and disadvantages that specially handicap the Indian teacher in this connection.

In the first place, it has to be noted that in most of our schools the classes are so big—not to say, unwieldy—that any successful attempt on the part of the teacher at individual attention or character-building is out of the question. In a class of fifty or sixty boys the influence that the teacher can reasonably be expected to exercise upon them individually is, in all probability, next to nothing. In order that a teacher may be able to influence

and elevate the character of any student, it is highly necessary that he should be in close and living touch with him, note carefully his aptitudes and antecedents, gauge the ebb and flow of his moral forces and check and guide him by precept and example whenever and wherever needful. All this a teacher of requisite zeal and earnestness can be expected to do only if his class be small, consisting, say, of about fifteen or twenty boys at the most. The Sages and Rishis of Ancient India were gloriously successful in building up the character of their disciples and filling them, through and through, with moral glory, chiefly because the latter were few in number. Again, we have heard of the vast amount of moral influence, that Powell, Porter, and a few other educationists were able to exert on their students a few generations ago. To a large extent, this is accounted for by the circumstance that their classes were very small and so it was quite possible for them to bestow individual attention upon their students and to attend as much to the culture of their hearts as to that of their heads. In these days, however, with swollen and unwieldy classes before him, the teacher must well-nigh be baffled in any attempt at individual attention or character-building.

Another disadvantage that the Indian teacher labours under is the absence of any home education or control worth speaking of, in the case of most of our boys. In regard to moral training, the work of the teacher, in order to prove successful, has greatly to be aided and supplemented by that of the parents. In India, the home education of children—either intellectual or moral—is conspicuous by its absence. Indian mothers are mostly ignorant and illiterate and hence entirely

unqualified for this high function of attending to the moral culture of their children. Indian fathers also are either illiterate, or so engrossed in their struggle for the loaves and fishes of office, or so blind to the salutary effects of a strict moral training at home that they are not at all, at present, in a position to exercise any healthy influence on them. The result naturally is that in a large majority of cases, our students find themselves without any healthy control or management at home except, perhaps, for the occasional inquiries of the father and the misdirected solicitude of the mother. It need not be said that in England and other countries where education is universal and compulsory and women fairly enlightened, the state of affairs is very different. In consequence of this absence of home education or control in India, it often happens that the healthy principles and precepts infused into the minds of students at school are quite erased from them in their uncontrolled liberty and unhealthy environment of home.

A third difficulty that besets the Indian teacher in this connection may be understood by considering his status, position and prospects. It is well-known that the teaching profession is losing favour with many in this country and succeeds in attracting but few brilliant intellects, having regard to the facts that the market value of the teacher is already low enough and has a tendency to go lower down in the future and that his position is, not unfrequently, precarious and insecure. Most of the schools under native—and perhaps, missionary—management, are badly conducted with deplorably inadequate funds and resources so that the teachers whose lot is cast in them have often a sad tale to tell. They are paid inadequately and per-

haps in instalments. The manager tries to exact from them maximum work for minimum wages. They have often to pander to the whims of their managers and assume an attitude of sneaking obsequiousness in their presence, so as to be always in their good graces. They are often turned adrift in the wide world for very trifling offences or perhaps for no offences at all. Such being the case, it is but natural to find that the teaching profession is, in many cases, taken up only as a last resource and that often by third-rate mediocrities, and that those already in the profession are ever on the look-out for 'fresh fields and pastures new.' Under these circumstances, they cannot at all be expected to identify themselves with the interests of their schools or to throw themselves heart and soul into their work. Even to their legitimate work of preparing boys for their examinations—for which alone they are paid—they are often indifferent and inattentive. How then, can they be expected to take gratuitously upon their shoulders the extraneous work of attending to the moral training of their students in every possible way?

A fourth circumstance that handicaps the earnest teacher in his work of character-building, is to be found in the perverted educational ideal of this country. It may perhaps be a trite remark—but none-the-less true—that, in this examination-ridden land, the be-all and end-all of education is considered to be success in a series of examinations and consequently, the chief function of the teacher consists in preparing his boys for them. It is therefore only natural that the work and merit of the teacher should be tested and appreciated more in the light of the examination-results than in the light of the moral and intellectual training he has imparted to

his students. In these days of educational stir and reform, matters are, no doubt, improving, and the perverted and stereotyped ideas and ideals of educational theory and practice till now current are giving place to better, sounder, and more rational ones, which are gradually coming into vogue. Since education was held tantamount to instruction and preparation for examinations, it is but natural that a healthy moral training should have been considered as quite beyond the province of the teacher and as something that he should generally fight shy of.

It is beyond doubt that, in the absence of these difficulties and disadvantages, the work of the teacher in relation to the character-building of his pupils is fairly light and easy and must, in all probability, turn out to be a brilliant success. Even in the presence of all or some of the difficulties mentioned above, the Indian teacher is not without manifold opportunities for doing some work in this connection. I shall now proceed to consider these opportunities, and the nature, quality and quantity of the work to be turned out by him.

To begin with, I shall make a few remarks with regard to the Primary teacher and his work in this direction. It has to be noted that highly serious is the responsibility that devolves upon him in relation to this work. Committed to his charge, he has a group of sprightly little children, in the most precious period of their lives, when they are keenly susceptible to outward impressions and their fluid and flexible natures can easily be moulded into shape. The period of childhood is one of curiosity, of imitation, of imagination and of exuberance of energy. It is for the teacher to take sufficient notice of these and other juvenile instincts, and make timely and

judicious appeals to them in his work of moral culture. First, the text-books introduced—in English and in the Vernacular—must contain a lot of simple and lively moral stories illustrated with pictures and taken from within the range of their every-day experiences. The stories should be taught in such an effective way as to leave a lasting impress of their influence on the young minds. Secondly, it is highly necessary that the Primary teachers should themselves be indefatigable story-tellers and possess the rare gift of telling stories in a naïve and natural way, with abundant gusto and animation, so as to captivate the attention and imagination of their hearers. Once or even twice a week, they should have recourse to the excellent practice of telling their boys short moral stories, interspersed with romantic and lively incidents and situations, so as to appeal to their imagination and in that way, influence their character. Thirdly, it has to be noted that the period of childhood being one of imitation, the young lads have an irresistible tendency to imitate the words, looks, gestures and acts of their teachers in every possible way. The teacher has therefore to be specially on his guard that he is in every minute detail a source of healthy inspiration to his boys. His looks should always be bright and cheerful, his words chaste and sober, his dress neat and simple, his manner natural and attractive, his acts right and worthy. If he is sulky and sour-tempered, he, in addition to making his boys unhappy at school, is likely to make them sulky and sour-tempered also. If he betrays evil habits or sets evil examples in their presence, they are likely to imitate and follow them in obedience to their natural instinct. Fourthly, the Primary teacher has to remember that his lads are naturally restless and

fidgety and that it would be quite unwise on his part to interfere constantly with their free and spontaneous movements by angry words, sharp rebukes or perhaps blows, which, not to speak of the feeling of irritation caused, is sure to exert a baleful influence on their future character. On the other hand, he should provide healthy outlets in the shape of manual occupations for the discharge of their superfluous energy. Fifthly, it devolves on him always to watch with love and sympathy the words, acts and movements of his diminutive disciples and check, guide and advise them whenever necessary. He should always be in close touch with their parents so as to understand their behaviour, training and control at home.

I shall now proceed to dwell on the work of moral culture or character-building that the teachers of the Secondary Department can be expected to do.

Many are of opinion that, in the interests of moral culture, it is highly desirable to impart religious instruction in every school—at least, in the Upper Secondary Department. But there are two arguments against this view. In the first place, if religious instruction were to be given at all, it has to be imparted on divergent lines, as it is necessary equally to members of all the creeds in the school. This, not to speak of the practical difficulty and inconvenience it causes, may perhaps, in my opinion, have also a tendency, by constantly reminding boys of the religious barriers among them, to dull, to some extent, the sharp edge of love, sympathy, union and fellow-feeling that ought to exist among them. Secondly, it is doubtful if students are likely to be much benefited by our hammering into their heads abstruse theological dogmas which appear to have no

direct or immediate bearing on practical morality. In order that a principle may actively move the mind or perceptibly influence character, it is highly necessary that there should be a living moral ideal, founded securely on the vital and eternal forces and principles of human-life, conduct and destiny. Therefore, if at all religion were to be taught, attention has to be paid more to its ethical side than to its theological, more to its moral ideas and principles than to its dull, inert, cumbersome dogmas and doctrines.

But there can possibly be no difference of opinion on the importance of ethical teaching in schools. It is necessary that, once or even twice a week, teachers should talk to their boys in a serious and solemn manner, on moral subjects of every kind, not omitting to press into their service illustrations, stories, anecdotes and analogies that appear suitable to the occasion. The sins, offences and shortcomings specially characteristic of students should, as far as possible, form the themes of their moral discourses. It is well-known that Dr. Arnold of Rugby used to give regular sermons to his boys every week, dealing generally with subjects bearing on their conduct and behaviour within and without the school room. Now-a-days scores of regular text-books on moral teaching have been published and they may, if necessary, be introduced and taught in the school. Apart, however, from these ethical text-books, it has to be remembered that in all general literature also, there is moral teaching of a high and sublime nature. Emerson defines literature as a 'record of the best thoughts.' John Morley remarks that 'literature consists of all the books—and they are not so many—where moral truth and human passion are touched with a certain largeness, sanity and

attraction of form.' The grand works of literature, the productions of Homer and Virgil, Dante and Kalidasa, Shakespeare and Goethe, Carlyle and Emerson, Wordsworth and Tennyson, and of many others who are rightly recognized as classics, cannot but exercise a highly ennobling and elevating influence on their readers. There is again a branch of literature,—*viz.*, biography—that is specially calculated to influence and stimulate the character of young men. There are, again, hundreds of excellent books which, although not labelled ethical text-books, may be found more efficacious in their operation—works like Smiles's 'Self-Help' or 'Character,' Todd's 'Students' Manual,' Craik's 'Pursuit of Knowledge,' Cobbett's 'Advice to Young Men,' &c., which would all be found so bracing and stimulating in their effect. It is for the teacher to see that the library of every school and college is well-stocked with such and similar books and that they are well used by the students. He should offer constant help and advice to the latter in the choice of such good books from the library and also take steps to ascertain fully that they have made a careful and diligent use of them.

The success of a teacher in his work of moral culture is in proportion to the influence he is able to exercise over his students. It is necessary for every teacher to make himself a *force* in the school and impress his personality upon his students. He should avail himself of every possible opportunity to inspire confidence in the minds of his boys and elicit love and respect from them. The real secret of his success in this direction lies in his making them clearly understand that he is quite earnest about his work and takes active and genuine interest in the well-

being of every student inside and outside the school. He should always place himself at the service and disposal of his boys and grudge neither time nor trouble on their behalf. While in the class he maintains a dignified reserve and magisterial authority, outside he should move freely in the company of his boys and try to understand as much of them as possible. Every teacher should see that his own character is unsullied and unimpeachable and that, in every word he speaks and every act he does, he sets only a good and worthy example for his boys to follow. Only in that case are his words likely to come with double sway and make a more telling impression on the minds of his students. It need not be said that he should at all moments be actuated by deep-seated love and affection for his boys. Even his strictness as a disciplinarian and his resentment towards evil-doers should only be the natural outcome of these and other noble qualities welling up copiously in the rich fountain of his heart. It is in these ways that a teacher is to make himself a 'power' in the school and an object of love, esteem and admiration for his students.

A teacher should not be satisfied with watching the behaviour of his boys merely during his lesson, but should, ever and anon, observe and note their behaviour during other lessons also. A boy may behave admirably during his lesson, but may be guilty of misconduct during another. The character of such a boy can hardly be regarded as satisfactory. It is that boy who is invariably and uniformly well-behaved during all lessons and in the presence of all teachers, irrespective of rank or station, that can be said to possess a really good character. It is therefore highly necessary that every teacher should carefully

and minutely watch the behaviour of boys during all hours of school-work and take into cognizance the faults and mistakes they may commit during lessons other than his own.

One of the chief directions in which the influence of the teacher ought to make itself visible is in his creating a healthy public opinion among his students. As in the world, so in the school, the force of public opinion is calculated, more than anything else, to act as an effective deterrent against any manner of evil-doing on the part of the students. The best penalty that could be inflicted upon a boy for an offence is the public condemnation of his class-mates—or better still, his school-mates—in a body. Nothing can possibly be more humiliating for him than to become a by-word among other boys and to feel himself sensibly lowered in the estimation of his 'chums.' It may perhaps be a matter of no small difficulty to establish a healthy public opinion in a school or college. But once it is created, it is sure to become a force of great potency, in improving and elevating the tone of the school. There are certain sins and offences specially characteristic of schoolboys—such as bullying, copying, unpunctuality, disobedience, untidiness, untruthfulness, petty thefts, &c., &c., which in the public opinion of the school, ought to be made fairly damaging to a boy's character. It should be the noble ambition and the strenuous endeavour of every teacher to create and mould this public opinion, at least in his class, if not in the whole school. He can succeed to a large extent in this noble endeavour by the subtle force of his personality, the irresistible charm of his speech and manner, his earnestness of moral purpose, his constant moral exhortation, his skill in the detection and punishment of offence—in a word, accord-

ing to the strength and extent of the influence he wields over his students.

I shall now proceed to dwell on some other opportunities that those teachers have at their disposal who wish to attend to the character-building of their students. Manly games and sports are now-a-days coming into prominence in India and there is no school or college without ample provision for football and cricket. These games, if efficiently organized and supervised, are much calculated to develop many active moral qualities of an important nature. They call forth into play, and provide abundant exercise and training to, such qualities as ambition, courage, endurance, emulation, determination, strength of will, obedience to law and justice, &c. To young minds greater issues are at stake and greater glory to be won on the football or the cricket ground than on the battle-field, and it is indeed a genuine pleasure to watch; in dumb surprise and suspense, the rage and fury of a well-contested match where the players exhibit an amount of gusto and zeal, endurance and determination, that is truly remarkable. If, however, these sports are not efficiently watched and supervised, they not only may not do any good, but may even have a tendency to become sources of moral evil. The work of the teacher in connection with them is to see that they are well organized and well played. Almost every day, he should try and be present on the play-ground and watch carefully the conduct and behaviour of students during play. The play-ground is only the uncovered school-room and calls for as much discipline and decorum as the latter. Foul play should never be allowed. Obedience to law should be strictly enforced. No foul or undignified language should ever be allowed to find expression. All unhealthy ebulli-

tions, by way either of jubilation or jeer, should be checked. In short, the morality in connection with these games should receive the vigilant and persistent attention of the teacher.

Another opportunity at the disposal of the teacher, for developing the character of his pupils is provided by the meetings in connection with the Literary Union or the Debating Society of his school or college. The meetings may be either ordinary or for business purposes. The ordinary meetings in which papers are read or debates held, are, if efficiently conducted, highly calculated to develop such healthy moral qualities as patience, humility, emulation, respect for others' opinions, tolerance for others' prejudices, &c. Again, the business meetings for the conduct of multifarious items of business must, under normal conditions, have a tendency to cultivate such sterling qualities as a capacity for constructive business and co-operative action, a spirit of calm deliberation, a disposition for sinking petty jealousies and differences, a wise judgment and discretion, all of which are essential to a practical administrator concerned with the larger and the more complex affairs of life. It is for the teacher to watch and observe carefully the conduct of these meetings and the behaviour of the boys in them. He should see that they are conducted with the dignity, orderliness and decorum that ought to characterise them. Misbehaviour on the part of any boy in any meeting should be noted and properly dealt with. No unparliamentary language should be allowed to be used. Indulgence in captious criticism or vile abuse should, by all means, be prohibited. Implicit obedience to the fiat of the President and to the rules of the Association should strictly be enforced.

ed. Courteous language towards opponents, patient hearing of others' opinions, candid confessions of mistakes and misconceptions, should, by constant practice, become, so to speak, the second nature of the members. Vigilant supervision, effective correction, and constant advice on the part of the teacher is, therefore, a *sine qua non* in order that these Associations may succeed in effecting any real moral training.

It has to be borne in mind that a teacher's jurisdiction over his boys is not confined to within the four walls of his school, but extends very much beyond. A teacher should watch the conduct and behaviour of students as much outside the school as inside. A boy may be quiet and well-behaved at school, but naughty and troublesome at home. Again, while a boy turns out to be a model of virtue and good-conduct under the stern eye of the teacher, he may outside school betray a pronounced leaning in the direction of evil practices. Since it is the high vocation of the teacher to mould the character of his boys, he should certainly avail himself of every possible opportunity to observe, study and understand them. He should observe and note their behaviour at home, on the road, in the hotel, in the shop, in the tank. He should be in living touch with their parents, relatives and companions. He should send constant reports regarding the conduct and progress of his students to their parents, not to speak of informal talks to them now and again on the subject, so that there may be genuine sympathy and co-operation between the teachers and parents of a boy in effecting his moral culture. The ambition of every teacher ought in fact to be to make himself a walking cyclopædia of correct, authentic and up-to-date information regarding the history—past and present—of every student. Every school-

boy ought to be made to clearly understand that the keen eye of the teacher is spying him out everywhere and prying into his secrets—however unfathomable they may appear to him—and that, for no offence or misbehaviour, however slight or whenever committed, would he be let off scot-free.

I shall now proceed to speak a few words on the work of College Professors in relation to the moral training of their boys. It must, however, be remembered that most of the remarks already made in regard to the work of secondary teachers in this direction are quite applicable to the Professors also. The opportunities afforded by the Debating Society, the Football or the Cricket Ground, the Library, the creation of a healthy public opinion, ethical teaching, etc., in relation to this work of character-building, hold good as much—if not more—in the case of the college as in that of the school. There is, however, in my opinion, one circumstance specially applicable to colleges—that is, the influence of a well-organized Hostel system and the professor's relation to the same.

It is well-known that at present colleges with hostels attached to them are few and far between in this country. As a consequence, students of most colleges are at liberty to live anywhere they please in the locality and to lead a life of unbridled freedom outside college. Having come from distant places, most of them are quite beyond the reach of parental control or influence. In the absence of college hostels, they are also beyond the supervision of college authorities. Hence it is no wonder that not a few among them founder in life and stumble unwittingly into evil ways. The hotels in which they take their meals are filthy and crowded, a few perhaps having even fallen into disrepute.

Many of the students again neglect their studies, contract evil habits, indulge all sorts of evil appetites, mingle in undesirable society and play ducks and drakes with the money sent to them by their anxious parents. Having due regard to such circumstances, it is highly desirable that there should be a well-organized hostel attached to every college and that all the students that come from distant places and are without relatives or local guardians at the place, should be compelled to become members of the same. The importance from a moral standpoint of a well-conducted hostel, cannot possibly be over-estimated. It develops many social and moral qualities of an important nature. It promotes discipline and good manners, cultivates in the minds of students a sense of collective life and healthy *esprit de corps*, corrects their prejudices, liberalises their minds and enables them to form a right estimate of their parts by measuring themselves against others. It is, however, quite necessary that the hostel should be under the effective and vigilant supervision of the Professors. It should be divided into a number of small wards, each being placed under the management of a Professor. It is now quite possible for the latter to watch carefully the conduct and behaviour of those committed to his charge and to make sure that their lives are, down to minutiae of daily routine, healthy, orderly and well-regulated. It is well-known that, for various reasons, the influence of the Professor now-a-days is almost a negligible quantity in colleges. The only opportunity he can possibly be expected to have for exercising any influence worth speaking of over his students is in connection with his work concerning his college hostel. It is indeed a healthy sign of the times that our Government has awakened to the im-

portance of the hostel system* and, under the operation of the new Universities Act, is going to make it a *sine qua non* for every college possessing or seeking affiliation.

P. S. RAMAKRISHNA IYER.

INDIAN EDUCATIONAL POLICY.

THE Local Government is expected to issue shortly its educational rules on the lines laid out by the Government of India in their Resolution, dated the 11th March 1904. Dr. Bourne, our Director of Public Instruction, has recently issued a departmental circular in which he formulates a new scheme for Primary Education. He has asked the Headmasters of Training Schools to obtain what information they can from primary teachers now under training, and he wishes to have some idea as to how far they will be likely to co-operate in the reforms suggested. He is yet to issue a similar circular regarding Secondary Education.

It is hoped that Government will give opportunities to the public to form its views before they pass orders on the recommendations of the Director inasmuch as the changes contemplated in the Government of India Resolution are of a radical character.

The University Bill which has passed into law elicited criticisms of a searching nature both from friends and foes with the result that the public was able to gauge pretty accurately the future of higher education in this country. A similar opportunity has not been given in the matter of Primary and Secondary education as the Government of India have attempted to effect changes in the form of an executive Resolution without placing a bill on the Legislative anvil.

The figures quoted in the Resolution point out that Primary Education is making poor progress. It has increased by only 58% during the last 20 years while Secondary Education is said to have increased by more than cent per cent. during the same period.

This state of things is attributed to famine and plague in recent years accentuated by the "indifference of the more advanced and ambitious class." These are, however, considered as minor obstacles which the Government of India think could be swept away if the main difficulty of finding the requisite funds could be overcome. Under the existing financial arrangement it is difficult to provide more money for the spread of Primary education. What have Imperial and Provincial Governments contributed hitherto? The contribution from Provincial funds in 1886-87 was Rs. 16,00,239, which however was reduced to Rs. 13,43,343 in 1891-92. The figure for 1901-02 stands slightly above that of 1886-87, i.e., Rs. 16,92,514. The scant treatment shown in the matter of Primary education is alone responsible for its very poor progress although the Government of India consider that it (Primary education) possesses "a strong claim upon the sympathy of the Supreme Government and of the Local Governments and it should be made a leading charge upon the provincial revenues."

The rates of fees levied in Primary schools are so very low that it was not possible hitherto for the "more advanced and ambitious class" or any other body except in a few favoured localities such as big Municipal towns to conduct a Primary school even with the aid of grants which were neither liberal nor adequate.

It is however a very good sign of the times that the local Government has provided

6 lakhs in this year's Budget for Primary Education, and this amount is to be utilised for erecting buildings to locate Primary schools. A redeeming feature in the scheme formulated by the Director is that it knocks down the system of assessing grants upon the results shewn in the Examination although several other points touched in it require serious and careful consideration at the hands of those that are interested in the spread of Education.

SECONDARY EDUCATION.

The number of scholars receiving Secondary Education according to the Resolution has risen from 214,077 to 558,378 in the last 20 years. The resolution has grouped Lower Secondary and Upper Secondary courses together. The practice hitherto was to treat them separately. The education given in Lower Secondary courses is much inferior in quality to that given in Upper Secondary courses. The Lower Secondary course may fairly be called as in Japan Primary Higher. To group the Lower Secondary course with the Upper Secondary is as misleading as it is ingenious. Even including the Lower Secondary course Secondary Education cannot be said to have made any good progress.

It is calculated that the scholars that are receiving instruction in all grades of schools and colleges amount to 3,887,493 out of a population of 18 millions of school-going age. The percentages of boys receiving Primary, Secondary and Collegiate education are 81.51, 14.39, 4.10 respectively. In other words for every 100 boys receiving Primary Education, 16 are in the Secondary course and for every 100 boys in the Secondary course, 28 are in the Collegiate course. It is further clearly illustrated by the author of the 40 years' Progress. He says "Out of every 1000 boys

between the ages of 5 and 9 who ought to be under instruction 230 or between one-fourth and one-fifth are receiving instruction, the remaining three-fourths are allowed to grow illiterate." "Again out of 1000 boys between the ages 10 and 14 who might be expected in the Lower Secondary stage as regards instruction, only 12 receive such instruction. And out of 1000 boys between 15 and 19 who might, if circumstances permitted, be expected in the Upper Secondary grade, only 6 reach that standard. Lastly only 26 out of 10,000 young men between the ages of 20 and 24 enjoy the benefits of collegiate education." Though this refers to the Madras Presidency for the year 1891 to 1892 it can without material alteration be applied to the whole of India at present. In an article on "Baroda" the *Madras Mail*, dated the 29th April last, furnishes very interesting figures respecting education. These are:—

The proportion of children under instruction to the total population is 8.8 in Baroda while it is 4 in Bengal, 6.2 in Bombay and 3.09 in Madras. As regards expenditure, the Imperial Government spends 1% ; Bengal 1.17 ; Bombay 1.44 ; Madras 1.33, while the State of Baroda spends 36.3 per cent. of its revenues. The amount now spent on inspecting agencies is out of all proportion to the needs of education at present.

Can this be called an achievement when one takes into consideration that the country has been under the sway of Britain for more than a century and a half? Nor is the future of Secondary Education promising or hopeful. The conditions imposed for getting recognition are needlessly severe and annoying. The first condition to be satisfied is that in each case the Secondary school is needed.

* This is a review of Mr. R. C. Dutt's administration.

Are not the facts and figures quoted above sufficient to show that education, especially Secondary Education, is yet to make any real progress? The services of failed Matriculates are much sought after by native merchants and traders who find it indispensable to entertain English-knowing youths as clerks to correspond with their brethren in districts and provinces having different languages. The English language serves as an admirable medium for this purpose. Besides, railways and factories afford them good employment. The middle and higher classes consider High School, and if possible, collegiate education, as conferring distinction upon them. The knowledge picked up in the sixth form with a little experience enables one to speak and write the English language tolerably well. It is for these and various other reasons that "in all Provinces there is considerable eagerness among parents to afford their sons English education, and the provision and maintenance of High schools are common objects of liberality among all sections of the community." Are these tendencies to be deprecated? Why then is this clause? Are not the rules already existing more than sufficient to prevent unfair competition?

Clause 2 says that the financial stability of an institution should be assured. Most of the long-standing and well-managed native institutions are without funds. Are these to cease to exist if they do not provide themselves with funds? The Grant-in-Aid Code of the Madras Presidency does not permit an institution to have reserve or sinking funds out of the proceeds of income from fees. "The maximum grant (salary, result, and fixed) to a school," says the code, "shall be the sum required to meet that part of the expenditure which will not be covered by the receipts from fees, endowments, and misc

laneous sources." It further lays down that "when money from current receipts is funded during the year it shall not be treated as expenditure." The manager or the managing body of an institution is not in a position to borrow, for neither can hope to discharge it from the income of the school piecemeal in a series of years. If the Government can find its way to pay the grant for an institution less 10 per cent. of the total allotted grant and invest that 10 per cent. in Government securities on behalf of the institution, there will be no difficulty in meeting emergent or extraordinary charges. There is neither rhyme nor reason in asking a school to provide itself with funds if it does not apply for a grant. The other conditions as regards nature of instruction, recreation, character of the teachers, &c., can be said to have been fulfilled only if the officers of the department are satisfied. These kinds of interference are sure to tell seriously, especially upon an institution of indigenous growth.

Are the sweeping changes contemplated likely to remove defects, if any, in Secondary Education?

The figures disclosed above prove beyond doubt that the majority of the population are sunk in gross ignorance, and out of the infinitesimally small portion that receives Primary Education, a very large percentage, so large as 84, are not able to seek Secondary (Lower and Upper Secondary) education owing to their poverty and the prohibitive rates of school fees. While this state of things demands additional facility and encouragement for starting schools the Government of India are making strenuous efforts to throw obstacles in the way of spreading Secondary Education.

The economic and social sides of education, especially Secondary Education, are com-

pletely ignored. "Unless good education" observes Professor Marshall, "is brought within the reach of the masses, higher grades of industry will suffer." Without sound general education, it is not possible to make any progress in our arts and industries. Primary Education, of course, may enable one to understand "village maps" and the "intricacies of village accounts." But it will not befit him to undergo proper training in technical matters. Technical education is not, as it used to mean, "little more than imparting that manual dexterity and elementary knowledge of machinery" to a lad of 9 or 10. "This so-called education," observes again Professor Marshall, "does not develop faculties; it neither hinders them from being developed..... On the other hand good education stimulates one's mental activity, it fosters in him a habit of wise inquisitiveness, makes him more intelligent, more ready, more trustworthy in his ordinary work, it raises the tone of his life in working hours and out of working hours. It is thus an important means towards the production of material wealth..... No change could conduce so much to the rapid increase of national wealth as an improvement in our schools especially those of middle grades, combined with an extensive system of scholarships which should enable the clever son of a working man to rise gradually from school to school till he had the best theoretical and practical education which the age can give."

If the Government of India attempts to remodel our Secondary schools on the broad lines indicated by Prof. Marshall, they will be entitled to the gratitude of the 'dumb millions' whom Providence has entrusted to their care. It is sound, liberal, Western education alone that can remove many social and religious prejudices standing in the

way of effecting improvements in our well-being. The enforcement of stringent conditions for recognition which are uncalled for in the present state of our education—conditions difficult to fulfil—practically amounts to saying "Thou shalt not read." What is recognition after all? It is only a license to conduct a school. Just as the Arms Act which restricts the granting of license only under special circumstances has killed the martial spirit of the nation, so the restriction to grant license or recognition to schools is sure to obstruct our moral and material progress. Under modern conditions civilised existence is impossible without education permeating through every stratum of society. "The state of every part of the social whole at any time is intimately connected with the contemporaneous state of all the others. Religious belief, philosophy, science, the fine arts, commerce, navigation, government are in close dependence on one another insomuch that if any considerable change takes place in one we may know that a parallel change in all the others has preceded or will follow it."* Several measures of a reactionary character have already preceded this Educational Policy. Who can say what will follow? Are the Government of India serious? or are they speaking in contemptuous mockery when they say that the changes contemplated "make provisions in varying degrees for all forms of intellectual activities that appeal to a civilized community..... to develop the resources of the country and to stimulate indigenous arts and industries?" The excise duty on cotton goods manufactured in India is a standing monument of the Government of India showing their solicitude for the promotion of Indian Arts and Industries.

V. RANGASWAMI AIYANGAR.

* J. S. Mill.

A GRIEVANCE OF THE MATRICULATION STUDENT.

NOW that this season of the year is the time when Selection Tests for the ensuing Matriculation Examination are held in every school and college, it is worth our while to look to some of the standing grievances connected therewith and to remedy the evils to some extent at least, though it is clearly a task to be assigned to a Hercules to cleanse these Augean stables completely, at this eleventh hour.

Many of the troubles which the average student of the Matriculation class has to confront and from which his puny effort cannot extricate him rest for authority on long practice, and hence the student of course has not the audacity, in nine cases out of ten, to question the validity of the means which the powers-that-be adopt to serve their desired ends. The other reason why their grievances remain unredressed lies in the obvious fact that the Matric-student population is widely scattered throughout the length and breadth of this presidency, so that the body of students is too feeble to admit of a single spokesman who can ventilate their grievances to their satisfaction. In the face of this fatal defect, some kind-hearted gentlemen espouse their cause now and then and propose in the "Educational Review" some changes to better their unhappy lot. Some of the suggested changes are introduced; while some of the healthy proposals remain as yet cries in the wilderness. Though it is comparatively a very small number that emerges in the Elysian fields of the Matriculation Examination, yet the difficulties against which a student has to obtain permission to appear for the Matriculation Examination are still more serious.

The question-papers set for the Selection Examination are, according to the consensus of opinion that prevails, more difficult than those set in the University. The valuation too, is, in a majority of cases, too strict. The writer sometimes feels how agreeable his position is, when he thinks of the severity of the rules now in force and compares himself with one who has not yet matriculated. Far be it from me to blame each and every teacher. The occasional threatenings of the teachers render the students despondent. Space forbids me to lay before you vividly all the phases of the peculiarity of this selection test. Only a few come out successful. Those who can procure for themselves recommendations to the head of the institution from influential gentlemen are invariably selected and sent up, while the residuum always contains clever boys who can secure a pass in the University but who were not sent up for want of a few marks. To remedy the existing state of things, I make bold to advance the following proposal:—All the boys should be sent up except those whom the unprejudiced unanimity of opinion among the teachers condemns as unfit or whose character has been proved more than once to be unsatisfactory. There are many instances where a student miserably fails to obtain the requisite number of marks in the Selection Examination, but when sent up, for mercy's sake or in virtue of recommendation,—more occasionally the latter—comes out successful in the University. I make the above statement having for authority certain statistics. If we view the matter from the utilitarian standpoint, a student loses more if he is not sent up than when he is sent up and fails to secure a pass in the University. The writer has noticed many instances where students actually become despondent and reck-

less and pay only a deaf ear to what the teacher says throughout the remaining period of the year. They attend the school only to evade scolding from their parents or guardians. The student's indifference—Stoical indifference, indeed—can be very perceptibly noticed in the vernacular class; for the textbook changes year after year. In some cases, the student leaves the school for good or perhaps to resume his studies next year. We see that the interests of the student are sacrificed for bringing credit to the institution—at least, as the authorities of the institution erroneously calculate it. Even though the institution calculates the percentage of passes according to the number of students they send up, yet, it deplorably ignores the vital fact that the Director of Public Instruction, a better judge, rightly calculates the percentage of success according to the number of students on the rolls. So their object too is defeated. Thus, if an institution does not send up those students, both the institution and the poor boys are the losers. One thing more demands our attention in this connection. The teachers threaten the students that their conduct certificates will not be forwarded to the Registrar even after their names are registered by the University. When the teachers are unable to gauge the conduct of the student correctly in nine months and sometimes in a decade, can they find out the inner man in such a short space of three months, which is the intervening period between sending the applications and forwarding the conduct certificates? Will it not be more prudent and charitable on the part of the head of the institution not to send him up at all than having his result withheld by the University, which is a consequence of the want of conduct-certificate? So much for the first-year student.

When we take up the case of the second-year student or "more-than-one-year" student, as he may appropriately be designated, we are treading on a more serious and delicate ground. Though his prospects are blighted by occasional failures year after year, yet the teachers adopt drastic measures, having complete sway over the dumb students. The menaces by which they threaten him are really varied and cumulative. At one time, they, with a heart null and void of sympathy for the under-current of sorrow and despondency that flows in him, eating away his heart, terrify him with harsh rules like, "We won't send up a student—be he a first year one or a second year one—unless he passes fully in our selection." No doubt, much importance is to be attached even by the second-year student to the Selection Test. But the rule is too stringent. If the general trend of opinion among the unbiassed teachers is that his conduct cannot be relied upon, by all means detain him. Or else, pause and think over his misery for a while, dear teacher, and do your level best to alleviate his misery. Alas! he is undone if he is not sent up. The misery of a private candidate who has not the resources to attend a school beggars description, as your readers can frame a fair estimate of it from the imperfect delineation I have set forth in my account of the pupil candidate. In fine, I appeal to the heads of institutions to revive their dried fountains of sympathy. The purpose of this article is not fully served unless I supplement my former request with one more request. In conclusion, I pray to the Director of Public Instruction and to the Registrar of the Madras University to bestow their kind and serious attention on some of the reforms suggested and have some of them at least decided in favour of the student community, which is forlorn and

unrepresented, if the changes mooted appear feasible in the sight of the two equally able administrators.

"HAIHSES".

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION AND NATIONAL LIFE.*

EVERY country has educational problems of its own, intimately dependent on its social and economic conditions. The progressive study of education tends, indeed, towards a certain amount of general agreement on principles. But the crucial difficulties in framing and administering educational measures are very largely difficulties of detail; since an educational system, if it is to be workable, must be more or less accurately adjusted to all the complex circumstances of a given community. As one of those who are now visiting South Africa for the first time, I feel that what I bring with me from England is an interest in education, and some acquaintance with certain phases of it in the United Kingdom; but with regard to the inner nature of the educational questions which are now before this country, I am here to learn from those who can speak with knowledge. In this respect the British Association is doing for me very much what a famous bequest does for those young men whom it sends to Oxford; I am, in fact, a sort of Rhodes scholar from the other end—not subject, happily, to an age limit—who will find here a delightful and instructive opportunity of enlarging his outlook on the world, and more particularly on the field of education.

As usage prescribes that the work of this Section, as of others, should be opened by an address from the Chair, I have ventured to take a subject suggested by one of the most striking phenomena of our time—the growing importance of that part which universities seem destined to play in the life of nations.

Among the developments of British intellectual life which marked the Victorian age, none was more remarkable, and none is more important to-day, than the rapid extension of a demand for university education, and the great increase in the number of institutions which supply it. In the year 1832 Oxford and Cambridge were the

* Address delivered at Cape Town to the Educational Science Section of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, Sir Richard C. Jebb, Litt. D., D. C. L., M. P., President of the Section.

only universities south of the Tweed, and their position then was far from satisfactory. Their range of studies was too narrow; their social operation was too limited. Then, by successive reforms, the quality of their teaching was improved, and its scope great enlarged; their doors were opened to classes of the community against which they had formerly been closed. But meanwhile the growing desire for higher education—a result of the gradual improvement in elementary and secondary training—was creating new institutions of various kinds. The earliest of these arose while access to Oxford and Cambridge was still restricted. The University of Durham was established in 1833. In 1836 the University of London, as an examining and degree-giving body, received its first charter. A series of important colleges, giving education of a university type, arose in the greater towns of England and Wales. The next step was the formation of federal universities. The Victoria University, in which the colleges of Manchester, Liverpool and Leeds were associated, received its charter in 1880. The colleges of Aberystwith, Bangor and Cardiff were federated in the University of Wales, which dates from 1893. The latest development has been the institution of the great urban universities. The foundation of the University of Birmingham hastened an event which other causes had already prepared. The federal Victoria University has been replaced by three independent universities, those of Manchester, Liverpool and Leeds. Lastly, a charter has recently been granted to the University of Sheffield. Then the University of London has been reconstituted; it is no longer only an examining board; it is also a teaching university, comprising a number of recognised schools in and around London. Thus in England and Wales there are now no fewer than ten teaching universities. Among the newer institutions there are some varieties of type. But, so far as the new universities in great cities are concerned, it may be said that they are predominantly scientific, and also that they devote special attention to the needs of practical life, professional, industrial and commercial; while at the same time they desire to maintain a high standard of general education. It may be observed that in some points these universities have taken hints from the four ancient universities of Scotland which themselves have lately undergone a process of temperate reform. The Scottish universities are accessible to every class of the community; and the success with which they have helped to mould the intellectual life of a people traditionally zealous for education renders their example instructive

for the younger institutions. With reference to the provision made by the newer universities for studies bearing on practical life, it should be remarked that much has been done in the same direction by the two elder universities also. At Cambridge, for example, degrees can be taken in Economics and associated branches of Political Science; in Mechanism and Applied Mechanics; and in Agricultural Sciences. It certainly cannot now be said that the old universities neglect studies which are of direct utility, though they rightly insist that the basis and method of such studies shall be liberal.

In looking back on the general course of this whole movement in England, we find that it has been steady, smooth and fairly rapid. It has not been due to any spasmodic impulse or artificial propaganda, but has been the result of natural forces operating throughout the nation. Universities, and the training which they give, have come to count for more in our national life as a whole. It should be noted in passing that our missionary movement known as University Extension did not rise in the first instance from spontaneous academic action, but was a response to public appeals from without. It had its origin in memorials addressed to the University of Cambridge in 1872, by various public bodies; and it was in compliance with those memorials that, in the winter of 1873, the first courses of Extension lectures were organised in the Midlands. Another fact of vital significance in the movement is that it has included ample provision for the higher education of women.

With reference to the present position and prospects of the higher education in South Africa, I tried, before leaving England, to acquaint myself with at least the outlines of the general situation; but it is only with great diffidence that I shall offer a few observations bearing on some of the broader aspects of the question. I trust to be heard with indulgence by those from whom I shall hope to learn more. At any rate, I can truly say that the question seems to me one of the deepest interest and of the gravest importance. Indeed, it does not require much insight or imagination to apprehend the greatness of the issues that are involved.

In the first place, it would be correct, if I am not mistaken, to say that in South Africa at large there is a genuine and a keen desire for efficient education of the highest type. A sound liberal education is desired for all who can profit by it, whatever their future callings are to be. But the practical and immediate need for the

organising of the highest teaching is felt, I believe, more particularly in regard to three great professions—the profession of engineering, in all its branches; the profession of agriculture (including forestry); and the profession of education itself, on which the intellectual future of South Africa must so largely and directly depend. That the interest in the higher instruction is so real must be regarded as the best tribute to the efforts of those able and devoted men who, in various parts of this land, have laboured with dauntless perseverance for the improvement of primary and secondary education. Unstinted gratitude is due also to the University of the Cape of Good Hope. It is acknowledged on all hands that the University, as the chief guardian of learning in South Africa, has done admirable work in maintaining a high standard of general education. Certainly it cannot be regarded as any disparagement of that work if, as seems to be the case, a widespread desire exists that South Africa should possess an institution or institutions of university rank which, besides examining, should also teach. That is a natural progress which is illustrated by the recent reconstitution of the London University itself. I am not qualified, nor should I desire, to discuss the various difficulties of detail which surround the question of a teaching university. That question is for South Africa an eminently practical one; and doubtless it will be solved, possibly at no distant time by those who are most competent to deal with it. I will only venture to say a few words on some of the more general aspects of the matter.

The primary needs of daily life in a new country make demands for certain forms of higher training—demands which may be unable to wait for the development of anything so complex and costly as a teaching university. It is necessary to provide a training for men who shall be able to supervise the building of houses, the making of roads, bridges and railways, and to direct skilled labour in various useful arts and handicrafts. The first step in such a provision is to establish technical schools and institutes. Germany is, I suppose, the country where the educational possibilities of the technical school are realised in the amplest measure. In Germany the results of the highest education are systematically brought to bear on all the greater industries. But this highest education is not given only in completely equipped universities which confer degrees. It is largely given in the institutions known as Technical High Schools. In these schools teaching of a university standard is given, by professors of university rank, in subjects such

as Architecture, various branches of Engineering, Chemistry and General Technical Science. There are, I think, some ten or eleven of these technical high schools in Germany. In these institutions the teaching of the special art or science on the theoretical side is carried, I believe, to a point as high as could be attained in a university; while on the practical side it is carried beyond the point which in a university would usually be possible. In England we have nothing, I believe, which properly corresponds to the German technical high school; but we may except to see some of the functions of such a school included among the functions of the new universities in our great industrial and commercial towns.

New technical schools or institutes which do not reach the level of a German technical high school may nevertheless be so planned as to be capable of being further developed as parts of a great teaching university. And the point which I now wish to note is this—that the higher education given in a technical institute, which is only such, will not be quite the same as that given in the corresponding department of a teaching university. University education, as such, when it is efficient, has certain characteristics which differentiate it from the training of a specialist, however high the level of the teaching on the special subject may be. Here, however, I pause for a moment to guard against a possible misconception. I am not suggesting that the specialist training given in a technical institute, though limited, is not an excellent thing in itself; or that in certain conditions and circumstances it is not desirable to have such a training, attested by a diploma or certificate, instead of aiming at a university standard and a university degree. Universities themselves recognise this fact. They reserve their degrees for those who have had a university training; but they also grant diplomas for proficiency in certain special branches of knowledge. Cambridge, for instance, gives a diploma in the Science and Practice of Agriculture; and the examination for the diploma is open to persons who are not members of the university.

But the university training, whatever its subject, ought to give something which the purely specialist training does not give. What do we understand by a university education? What are its distinctive characteristics? The word *universities*, as you know, is merely a general term for a corporation, specially applied in the Middle Ages to a body of persons associated for the purposes of study, who by becoming a corporation

acquired certain immunities and privileges. Though a particular university might be strongest in a particular faculty, as Bologna was in Law and Paris in Theology, yet it is a traditional attribute of such a body that several different branches of higher study shall be represented in it. It is among the distinctive advantages of a university that it brings together in one place students—by whom I mean teachers as well as learners—of various subjects. By doing this a university tends to produce a general breadth of intellectual interests and sympathies: it enables the specialist to acquire some sense of the relations between his own pursuits and other pursuits: he is helped to perceive the largeness of knowledge. But, besides bringing together students of various subjects, it is the business of a university to see that each subject shall be studied in such a manner as to afford some general discipline of the mental faculties. In his book on "The Idea of a University" Newman says:—

"This process of training by which the intellect, instead of being formed or sacrificed to some particular or accidental purpose, some specific trade or profession, or study or science, is disciplined for its own sake, for the perception of its own proper object, and for its own highest culture, is called Liberal Education; and though there is no one in whom it is carried as far as is conceivable, or whose intellect would be a pattern of what intellects should be made, yet there is scarcely any one but may gain an idea of what real training is, and at least look towards it, and make its true scope and result, not something else, his standard of excellence; and numbers there are who may submit themselves to it and secure it to themselves in good measure. And to set forth the right standard, and to train according to it, and to help forward all students towards it according to their various capacities, this I conceive to be the business of a university."

It may be granted that the function of a university, as Newman here describes it, is not always realised; universities, like other human institutions, have their failures. But his words truly express the aim and tendency of the best university teaching. It belongs to the spirit of such teaching that it should nourish and sustain ideals; and a university can do nothing better for its sons than that; a vision of the ideal can guard monotony of work from becoming monotony of life. But there is yet another element of university training which must not be left out of account; it is, indeed, among the most vital of all.

I mean that informal education which young men give to each other. Many of us, probably, in looking back on our undergraduate days, could say that the society of our contemporaries was not the least powerful of the educational influences which we experienced. The social life of the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge is a most essential part of the training received there. In considering the question of the higher education in South Africa it is well to remember that the social intercourse of young students, under conditions such as a great residential university might provide, is an instrument of education which nothing else can replace. And it might be added that such social intercourse is also an excellent thing for the teachers.

The highest education, when it bears its proper fruit, gives not knowledge only, but mental culture. A man may be learned and yet deficient in culture; that fact is implied by the word "pedantry." "Culture," said Huxley, "certainly means something quite different from learning or technical skill. It implies the possession of an ideal, and the habit of critically estimating the value of things by a theoretic standard." "It is the love of knowledge," says Henry Sidgwick, "the ardour of scientific curiosity, driving us continually to absorb new facts and ideals, to make them our own, and fit them into the leaving and growing system of our thought; and the trained faculty of doing this, the alert and supple intelligence exercised and continually developed in doing this—it is in these that culture essentially lies." And if this is what culture really means, evidently it cannot be regarded as something superfine—as an intellectual luxury suited only for people who can lead lives of elegant leisure. Education consists in organising the resources of the human being; it seeks to give him powers which shall fit him for his social and physical world. One mark of an uneducated person is that he is embarrassed by any situation to which he is not accustomed. The educated person is able to deal with circumstances in which he has never been placed before; he is so, because he has acquired general conceptions; his imagination, his judgment, his powers of intelligent sympathy, have been developed. The mental culture which includes such attributes is of inestimable value in the practical work of life, and especially in work of a pioneer kind. It is precisely in a country which presents new problems, where novel difficulties of all sorts have to be faced, where social and political questions assume complex forms for which experience furnishes no exact parallels, it is precisely there

that the largest and best gifts which the higher education can confer are most urgently demanded.

But how is culture, as distinct from mere knowledge, to be attained? The question arises as soon as we turn from the machinery of the higher education to consider its essence, and the general aims which it has in view. Culture cannot be secured by planning courses of study, nor can it be adequately tested by the most ingenious system of examinations. But it would be generally allowed that a university training, if it is really successful, ought to result in giving culture, over and above such knowledge as the student may acquire in his particular branch or branches of study. We all know what Matthew Arnold did, a generation ago, to interpret and diffuse in England his conception of culture. The charm, the humour, and also the earnestness of the essays in which he pleaded that cause render them permanently attractive in themselves, while at the same time they have the historical interest of marking a phase in the progress of English thought and feeling about education. For, indeed, whatever may be the criticisms to which Arnold's treatment of the subject is open in detail, he truly indicated a great national defect; and by leading a multitude of educated persons to realise it, he helped to prepare the way for better things. Dealing with England as it was in the 'sixties, he complained that the bulk of the well-to-do classes were devoid of mental culture—crude in their perceptions, insensible to beauty, and complacently impenetrable to ideas. If, during the last thirty or forty years, there has been a marked improvement, the popular influence of Matthew Arnold's writings may fairly be numbered among the contributory causes, though other and much more potent causes have also been at work. When we examine Arnold's own conception of culture, as expressed in successive essays, we find that it goes through a process of evolution. At first he means by "culture" a knowledge and love of the best literature, ancient and modern, and the influence on mind and manners which flows thence. Then his conception of culture becomes enlarged; it is now no longer solely or mainly æsthetic, but also intellectual; it includes receptivity of new ideas; it is even the passion for "seeing things as they really are." But there is yet a further development. True culture, in his final view, is not only æsthetic and intellectual; it is also moral and spiritual; its aim is, in his phrase, "the harmonious expansion of all the powers which make the beauty and worth of human nature." But whether the scope which

Arnold, at a particular moment, assigned to culture was narrower or wider, the instrument of culture with which he was chiefly concerned was always literature. Culture requires us, he said, to know ourselves and the world; and as a means to this end, we must "know the best that has been thought and said in the world." By literature, then—as he once said in reply to Huxley—he did not mean merely *belles lettres*; he included the books which record the great results of science. But he insisted mainly on the best poetry and the highest eloquence. In comparing science and literature as general instruments of education, Arnold observed that the power of intellect and knowledge is not the only one that goes to the building-up of human life; there is also the power of conduct and the power of beauty. Literature, he said, serves to bring knowledge into relation with our sense for conduct and our sense for beauty. The greater and more fruitful is the progress of science, the greater is the need for humane letters to establish and maintain a harmony between the new knowledge and those profound unchanging instincts of our nature.

It is not surprising that, in the last third of the nineteenth century, Arnold's fascinating advocacy of literature, as the paramount agency of culture, should have incurred some criticism from the standpoint of science and of philosophy. The general drift of this criticism was that the claim which he made for literature, though just in many respects, was carried too far; and also that his conception of intellectual culture was inadequate. As a representative of such criticism, I would take the eminent philosopher whose own definition of culture has already been cited, Henry Sidgwick; for no one, I think, could put more incisively the particular point with which we are here concerned. "Matthew Arnold's measure of seeking truth," says Sidgwick, "is a survival from a pre-scientific age. He is a man of letters pure and simple; and often seems quite serenely unconscious of the intellectual limitations of his type." The critic proceeds to enumerate some things which, as he affirms, are "quite alien to the habitual thought of a mere man of letters." They are such as these: "How the crude matter of common experience is reduced to the order and system which constitutes it an object of scientific knowledge; how the precise possible conceptions are applied in the exact apprehension and analysis of facts, and how by facts thus established and analysed the conceptions in their turn are gradually rectified; how the laws of Nature are ascertained by the

combined processes of induction and deduction, provisional assumption and careful verification; how a general hypothesis is used to guide enquiry, and, after due comparison with ascertained particulars, becomes an accepted theory; and how a theory, receiving further confirmation, takes its place finally as an organic part of a vast living, ever-growing system of knowledge." Sidgwick's conclusion is as follows: "Intellectual culture, at the end of the nineteenth century, must include as its most essential element a scientific habit of mind; and a scientific habit of mind can only be acquired by the methodical study of some part at least of what the human race has come scientifically to know."

There is nothing in that statement to which exception need be taken by the firmest believer in the value of literary education. The more serious and methodical studies of literature demand, in some measure, a scientific habit of mind in the largest sense of that expression; such a habit is necessary, for instance, in the study of history, in the scientific study of language, and in the "higher criticism." Nor, again, does any one question that the studies of the natural sciences are instruments of intellectual culture of the highest order. The powers of observation and of reasoning are thereby disciplined in manifold ways; and the scientific habit of mind so formed is in itself an education. To define and describe the modes in which that discipline operates on the mind is a task for the man of sciences; it could not, of course, be attempted by any one whose own training has been wholly literary. But there is one fact which may be noted by any intelligent observer. Many of our most eminent teachers of science, and more especially of science in its technical applications, insist on a demand which, in the province of science, is analogous to a demand made in the province of literary study by those who wish such study to be a true instrument of culture. As the latter desire that literature should be a means of educating the student's intelligence and sympathies, so the teachers of science, whether pure or applied, insist on the necessity of cultivating the scientific imagination, of developing a power of initiative in the learner, and of drawing out his inventive faculties. They urge that, in the interests of the technical industries themselves, the great need is for a training which shall be more than technical—which shall be thoroughly scientific. Wherever scientific and technical education attains its highest forms in institutions of university rank, the aim is not merely

to form skilled craftsmen, but to produce men who can contribute to the advance of their respective sciences and arts, men who can originate and invent. There is a vast world-competition in scientific progress on which industrial and commercial progress must ultimately depend; and it is of national importance for every country that it should have men who are not merely expert in things already known, but who can take their places in the forefront of the onward march.

But meanwhile the claims of literary culture, as part of the general higher education, must not be neglected or undervalued. It may be that, in the pre-scientific age, those claims were occasionally stated in a somewhat exaggerated or one-sided manner. But it remains as true as ever that literary studies form an indispensable element of a really liberal education. And the educational value of good literature is all the greater in our day because the progress of knowledge more and more enforces early specialisation. Good literature tends to preserve the breadth and variety of intellectual interests. It also tends to cultivate the sympathies; it exerts a humanising influence by the clear and beautiful expression of noble thoughts and sentiments; by the contemplation of great actions and great characters; by following the varied development of human life, not only as an evolution governed by certain laws, but also as a drama full of interest which intimately concerns us. Moreover, as has well been said, if literature be viewed as one of the fine arts, it is found to be the most altruistic of them all, since it can educate a sensibility for other forms of beauty besides its own. The genius of a Ruskin can quicken our feeling for masterpieces of architecture, sculpture, and painting. Even a very limited study of literature, if it be only of the right quality, may provide permanent springs of refreshment for those whose principal studies and occupations are other than literary. We may recall here some weighty words written by one of the very greatest of modern men of science. "If I had to live my life again," said Charles Darwin, "I would have made it a rule to read some poetry and listen to some music at least once every week. . . . The loss of these tastes is a loss of happiness, and may possibly be injurious to the intellect, and, more probably to the moral character, by enfeebling the emotional part of our nature." The same lesson is enforced by John Stuart Mill, in that remarkable passage of his Autobiography where he describes how, while still a youth, he became aware of a serious

defect, a great lacuna, in that severe intellectual training which, for him, had commenced in childhood. It was a training from which the influences of imaginative literature had been rigidly excluded. He turned to that literature for mental relief, and found what he wanted in the poetry of Wordsworth. "I had now learned by experience"—this is his comment—"that the passive susceptibilities needed to be cultivated as well as the active capacities, and required to be nourished and enriched as well as guided." Nor is it merely to the happiness and mental well-being of the individual that literature can minister. By rendering his intelligence more flexible, by deepening his humanity, by increasing his power of comprehending others, by fostering worthy ideals, it will add something to his capacity for co-operating with his fellows in every station of life and in every phase of action; it will make him a better citizen, and not only a more sympathetic but also a more efficient member of society.

One of the urgent problems of the higher education in our day is how to secure an adequate measure of literary culture to those students whose primary concern is with scientific and technical pursuits. Some of the younger English universities, which give degrees in science, contribute to this purpose by providing certain options in the science curriculum; that is, a given number of scientific subjects being prescribed for study with a view to the degree of B.Sc., the candidate is allowed to substitute for one of these a subject taken from the arts curriculum, such, for instance, as the Theory and Practice of Education. This is the case in the University of Wales and in the University of Birmingham; and there are indications, I believe, that this example will be followed elsewhere. Considering how hard and sustained is the work exacted from students of science, pure or applied, it seems important that the subjects from which they are to derive their literary culture should be presented to them, not in a dry-as-dust fashion, not chiefly as subjects of examination, but rather as sources of recreation and changes of mental activity. From this point of view, for British students of science the best literature of the English language offers unequalled advantages. It may be mentioned that the Board of Education in London is giving particular attention to the place which English literature should hold in the examination of students at the training colleges, and has under consideration carefully planned courses of study, in which portions of the best English writers of prose and of verse are prescri-

bed to be read in connection with corresponding periods of English history, it being understood that the study of the literature shall be directed, not to philological or grammatical detail, but to the substance and meaning of the books, and to the leading characteristics of each writer's style. If, on the other hand, the student is to derive his literary culture, wholly or in part, from a foreign literature, ancient or modern, then it will be most desirable that, before leaving school, he should have surmounted the initial difficulties of grammar, and should have learned to read the foreign language with tolerable ease.

When we look at this problem—how to combine the scientific and the literary elements of culture—in the light of existing or prospective conditions in South Africa, it appears natural to suppose that, in a teaching university, the faculty of education would be that with which literary studies would be more particularly connected. And if students of practical sciences, such as engineering and agriculture, were brought together at the same centre where the faculty of education had its seat, then it should not be difficult, without unduly trenching on the time demanded by scientific or technical studies, to provide such students with facilities for some measure of good literary training.

A further subject is necessarily suggested by that with which we have been dealing—I mean the relation of university to secondary education; but on that I can only touch very briefly. Before university education can be widely efficient, it is indispensable that secondary education should be fairly well developed and organised. Secondary education should be intelligent—liberal in spirit—not too much trammelled by the somewhat mechanical uniformity apt to result from working for external examinations, but sufficiently elastic to allow for different aptitudes in the pupils, and to afford scope for the free initiative of able teachers. It is a gain for the continuity of education when a school-leaving examination can be accepted as giving admission to the university. Such an examination must be conducted under the authority of the university; but there is much to be said in favour of the view that, under proper safeguards, the school teachers should have a part in the examination; always provided that the ultimate control, and the decision in all cases of doubt, shall rest with the university. A system of school-leaving examinations for this country was earnestly advocated, I believe, by Mr. P. A. Barnett, who has achieved such excellent work for the cause of education in Natal. To discuss the advantages or difficulties

of such a proposal, as they at present affect South Africa, would demand knowledge which I do not possess; and I must content myself with the expression of a hope that in days to come—perhaps in a not distant future—it may be found practicable to form such a link between the highest education and the grade next below it.

But the limit of time proper for a chairman's address has now almost been reached. I thank you sincerely for the kindness and patience with which you have heard me. In conclusion, I would only say how entirely I share a conviction which has been expressed by one to whose ability, to whose generous enthusiasm and unflagging efforts the cause of education in this country owes an incalculable debt—I refer to Mr. E. B. Sargent. Like him, I believe that the progress of education in all its grades, from the lowest to the highest, is the agency which, more surely than any other, will conduce to the prosperity and the unity of South Africa. For all workers in that great cause it must be an inspiring thought that they are engaged in promoting the most fundamental and the most far-reaching of national interests. They are endeavouring to secure that the men and women to whom the future of this country belongs shall be equal to their responsibilities and worthy of their inheritance. In that endeavour the sympathies which they carry with them are world-wide. As we come to see more and more clearly, that the highest education is not only a national but an Imperial concern, there is a growing desire for interchange of counsels and for active co-operation between the educational institutions of the Colonies and those of the mother-country. The development of education in South Africa will command keen attention, and will be followed by earnest good wishes, not only in England, but throughout the British dominions. One of the ideas which are bound up with the history and the traditions of our English public schools and universities is the idea of efficient work for the State. Those institutions have been largely moulded, from generation to generation, by the aim of ensuring a supply of men qualified to bear a worthy part, either in the government of the nation or in professional activities which are indispensable to the national welfare. In our own time, and more especially within the last thirty years, one particular aspect of that idea is illustrated by the closer connections which have been formed between the universities and the higher branches of the Civil Service. The conception of work for the commonweal is in its turn inseparable from loyalty to those ideals of character and conduct by which English life and public

policy have been built up. It is by the long and gradual training which such ideals have given that our race has been fitted to grapple with responsibilities which have inevitably grown, both in extent and in complexity, far beyond anything of which our forefathers could have dreamed. That training tends also to national self-knowledge; it makes for a sober estimate of our national qualities and defects; it quickens a national sense of duty to our neighbour. The munificence of a far-sighted statesman has provided that selected youths, whose homes are in this land, and whose life-work may be here, shall go for a while to England, shall breathe the intellectual and social atmosphere of a great English university and shall learn to judge for themselves of the sources from which the best English traditions have flowed. That is excellent. But it is also most desirable that those traditions should pass as living forces into the higher teaching of South Africa itself, and that their spirit should animate educational institutions whose special forms have been moulded by local requirements. That, indeed, has been, and is, the fervent wish of men whose labours for South African education have already borne abundant fruit, and are destined to bear yet larger fruit, in the future. May those labours prosper, and may that wish be fulfilled! The sooner will come the day when the inhabitants of this country, this country of vast and still indefinite possibilities, will be able to feel, in a sense higher and deeper than citizens of the Roman Empire could conceive, *Cuncti gentis una sumus* ("We are all one people"). If the work which lies before us, in this Section of the British Association, should result in contributing anything towards the promotion of those great objects, by helping to elucidate the conditions of further progress, our deliberations will not have been held in vain.

UNIVERSITY OF MADRAS.

The following discussion of the principles laid down on page 25 of the Draft Regulations took place on the dates mentioned:

12th October 1905.

The Vice-Chancellor, in opening the proceedings, said that what was intended on that occasion was to have a preliminary discussion and an exchange of ideas on the principles laid down on page 25 of the Draft Regulations, on which the Faculties were to frame Regulations. It was proposed that after the debate, the consideration of the question would be adjourned to so

venient day, to enable members of the Senate to consider the matter fully. On the motion of Mr Tait, one of the mofussil members, it was decided to take up that subject for that day, in order to enable them to express their views on it and to leave Madras, if necessary, leaving the Draft Regulations to be disposed of by other members.

DR. A. G. BOURNE.

The Hon'ble Dr. A. G. Bourne, who put forward the proposals, made a lengthy speech, explaining the reasons which induced him to put them forward. He said that the suggestions printed on the paper were really the immediate outcome of several weeks of conversation between the members of the Commission who had been inspecting Colleges; but at the same time he did not ask his colleagues on the Commission to accept collectively or individually any responsibility for those suggestions. Those were the ideas which it seemed to him might be put before the Senate for consideration. As a matter of fact, it was Dr. Mitchell who drafted them, and he saw them for the first time when that printed paper reached him. He wished to suggest one or two alterations in the draft, alterations in nomenclature, which might remove certain misconceptions. The resolutions which he wished to propose as altered by him were:—

That the revision of such regulations as are mentioned above be effected in conformity with the following principles:—

(a) That the standard of the present Matriculation Examination is insufficient as a guarantee that a student who has passed it is qualified to enter upon a course of study in the University.

(b) That a further course of at least one year's study is necessary before any student should become qualified to enter a First Grade College.

(c) That this further course of study should only be entered upon after having obtained a leaving certificate (the school final certificate) from a High School, and that it should be prosecuted in a Second Grade College or in a Second Grade Collegiate Department of a First Grade College.

(d) That candidates for entrance into a First Grade College should apply for admission to the College which they wish to enter; that the authorities of the College should have the right of admitting or rejecting such applications; that the examination be conducted as heretofore by the University; and that the list of successful candidates who have applied for, and provisionally secured, admission to a given College should be forwarded to that College, with the permission

of the University to admit them as under-graduates: that no pass list be published.

(f) That in the Faculty of Arts two degrees, besides that of Licentiate in Teaching, be conferred, viz., Bachelor of Arts (Ordinary or Pass Degree), and Bachelor of Arts with Honours (Honours Degree).

(g) That the course of study for the Ordinary Degree extend over three years, and that for the Honours Degree over five years; that, except by permission of the Syndicate, such courses be pursued in one and the same College; and that there be no intermediate examination such as the present First Examination in Arts.

(h) That it be open to the University authorities to confer an Ordinary Degree on any candidate for an Honours Degree who, failing to pass the Honours Degree examinations, has shown such ability as entitles him to an Ordinary Degree.

He did not propose to bring forward clause (e) laying down an age limit of 17 years, below which no candidate would be allowed to appear for the Matriculation Examination. It was a question by itself, and after all it might not be a question for the University to solve. He would also omit for the present clauses (i) and (j) regarding the degree of Master of Arts, and the granting of certificates by College authorities for the purpose of admission to degree examinations.

It was natural that Fellows should wish that he should say a few words in explanation or in defence, it might be, of the proposals put forward by him. Either their present system was so good that they need not try to improve it at all or that the present was a fitting opportunity for them to look round and see if they could effect any improvements. Obviously the first thing under such circumstances was to try and discover if there was something that could be improved. He was not one of those who considered that everything up to the present had been wrong. He believed that there were really very few such. But he did think that certain improvements could be effected in their University course. The University had produced, or at any rate assisted in the production of a number of really brilliant men, and no regulations would have really interfered with them. The brilliant and clever man comes to the top, however much one may hamper him by means of regulations. Turning to their list of Graduates, they would find that there were a large number of men of average ability, who were doing good work in the world and who had certainly profited by their University course. But it was often said, he thought, that there were a

certain number who should not have been stamped by the University as Graduates; one was often told that it was a wonder how some of those men ever passed the Matriculation Examination. There were some such, and the remaining Graduates, no doubt, felt that their position as Graduates of that University was detracted from by their companionship with those men. If they looked at the question of the market value of the degrees, they would find that in all countries a degree had a market value, except to the leisured few; and he should think that it was absolutely lowering the market value of the degree to admit men indiscriminately to it, men of whom their competitors might even be ashamed. Certain clubs and societies put a limit to the number of members, and that was one of the sources of their strength and one way of dealing with the question was to make it harder for men to get the degree. He did not propose to adopt such a course and did not think that the system that he was proposing would make it harder for men to get the degree; but what he hoped it might do was to give the men a better education, while they were studying for the degree. He was only trying to seek after an improvement. What was now put forward before the Senate was not put forward in his official capacity as Director of Public Instruction; they had not been suggested to him by Government, and he did not even know whether the Government would approve of his proposals. They were not departmental proposals, but they were put forward in his private capacity, as far as they had been suggested to him by other Fellows of the University in their private capacity. The only way in which those proposals would make it harder for any one to get the degree would be that instead of certain men being able to spend two years in a place nearer their home in a Second Grade College, they would have to migrate to a place where there was a First Grade College, and they would have to spend one extra year in the First Grade College. The expense involved in it would not be very great. It was only those men who would find it harder to get the degree, harder because of that little expense they would have to incur. In looking round and considering what possible schemes might be adopted to alter the present state of things, they had not simply set down or evolved for themselves a scheme. The very first thing they did was to consider not the report of the Universities' Commission—that was taking information at second-hand,—but the evidence recorded by the Commission; they went very carefully through a great deal of that evidence, especially the Madras evidence. He should just

like to draw the attention of the Senate to one or two sentences from the evidence of a number of witnesses. He would begin with Sir V. Bashyam Iyengar's evidence, because it was to a large extent, exactly his scheme which they had adopted here. Sir V. Bashyam Iyengar said among other things "the establishment of a University as a purely examining body is one of the greatest blunders of the educational policy in India. There should be a Pass Degree and an Honours Degree. The Pass Degree should be open to candidates who have attended a course of lectures in any of the affiliated Colleges for three years. Then again the standard of the entrance examination should be something between the existing Matriculation and the existing F. A. Examination, and the F. A. Examination should be abolished altogether, and at the end of three years, after passing the entrance examination, the candidates might be allowed to appear for the Pass Degree." He said "another defect of the present system is that no personal influence is exercised over the students." One of his (the speaker's) reasons for trying to get the students to spend three continuous years in one and the same College was to increase that personal influence. The transfer system which was so common in many places was exactly what prevented that personal influence from being exercised. Dr. Miller said in his evidence "these defects form a strong argument for the abolition of the Matriculation Examination. The main difficulty lies in its unwieldy size and it should be advisable to allow a College a free-hand in matriculating its pupils." What was now suggested was a compromise. Dr. Miller further said "the granting of a certificate by a College which the University might or might not accept without a supplemental examination is a direction in which the cure might be applied." Father Sewell in his evidence stated "in a majority of cases"—referring to students entering a College—"they have not sufficient knowledge of English to profit by the by the instruction given them and they are never able to make up for it." The speaker said that he had only taken a few sentences from the evidence recorded. Of the witnesses who had spoken on the subject of the knowledge of English possessed by the students entering a College a majority of them—in fact 11 out of 14—bore testimony to what Father Sewell had stated, that their knowledge of English was not sufficient. He hoped that the Second Grade College course, altered in the way he proposed, would be mainly a course of English study, learning to write and speak colloquial English so as to be able to appreciate and digest the text-books which they

would have to study in their later College course. Father Sewell said: "It will be a good solution of the difficulty if each College held a Matriculation Examination for itself." Again he said, "the F. A. course, as at present constituted, is to a certain extent in the nature of school and not College work, and this is because a good deal of the time in the F. A. course is spent by the students in learning and understanding English." The speaker thought that the students could do that under the system he proposed, more easily and with greater profit. The Rev. Mr. Macphail said in his evidence "it should be an improvement to substitute a school-leaving certificate for the Matriculation Examination, care being taken that the same thing is not done under different names. The great difficulty is the obligation to examine a number of candidates within a certain time." In the written statement put before us, Mr. Bhabha said, "the first change is to render the F. A. a more efficient test in the knowledge of English. After the F. A. Examination I would have one course for the ordinary B. A. Degree and another for the Honours Degree." Mr. Swamikunnu Pillai said: "I think provision should be made for Honours Examination in Languages, as well as in Mathematics and Natural Philosophy." These extracts Dr. Bourne took altogether, as they dealt with the different portions of his proposals. Mr. R. S. Lepper said: "12 per cent. of those who pass the Matriculation are found unfit for the F. A. Class." Mr. P. S. Sivaswamy Iyer, in the thoughtful paper which he put before the Commission, referring to the question of personal influence, said: "Very few of the Professors know even the names of the pupils and take any interest in the students"—he was speaking of Government Colleges—"in the concrete, and the result cannot but be regarded as a serious defect in the system of education." How could a Professor be expected to know all his students when, as in a College they visited the other day, the Senior F. A. Class had doubled in numbers in the second term? If all sorts and conditions of students who had failed in the Examination joined the class only for one term, how could the teachers of that class know anything about their pupils? Some of the best influences of College-life were due to the personal example of the teacher and his ability to win the affection and regard of his students; and among the measures which might be taken for the purpose of creating an *esprit de corps* among young students and a healthy College-life was the provision of hostels in different Colleges, and that must be obtained by having the students together in a College for considerable time. Again Mr. Sivaswamy

Iyer said: "Apropos of Examinations, I think that either the Matriculation or the F. A. may well, be abolished." Some sort of Examination will, on doubt, be necessary before admitting students to the College course, but whether such examination should be held by an admitting College or High School is a question upon which opinion may be divided." Mr. Sivaswamy Iyer next spoke about a large number of students who were admitted to Colleges without being really qualified to enter upon a College course, and he said that the important point was that if they simply left College to matriculate their own students, the immense slaughter in the Matriculation would be transferred to the Degree Examination. Mr. Sivaswamy Iyer did not approve of the Pass and Honours courses, as he thought that they could not divide the men into two classes with any certainty. Lastly Mr. Rangachariar said: "In instituting an Examination for Honours, it is effectual to distinguish the more capable from the least capable of students. They must learn to measure their work." Mr. Rangachariar was an advocate of the Honours Examination in addition to a Pass Examination. He (the speaker) would point out that the proposal with regard to the Pass and the Honours Degrees was to make the one a three years' course and the other a five years' course. If they made a big distinction like that, it was only those who knew themselves to be clever that were likely to enter the Honours Course. So far, he had only taken the evidence and the written statements of Madras men. Those were the authorities for the proposals now made, which were an attempt to make a compromise between a number of views put forward. There was a suggestion to have a school leaving certificate. That was not put down as a proposal, for, after all, it was not the business of the University to decide it. They had no intimation as yet from the Government of India as to what course was to be taken with regard to that certificate, but they might assume that some such arrangement would be brought into force. Referring to the Government of India's resolution on the Educational Policy, they would find it therein definitely laid down "whatever courses a school may adopt, it should aim at teaching well and intelligently, and some test, of course, there must be. The Government of India are disposed to think that the best solution of the difficulty will probably be found in adopting a system of leaving examination, but this examination should not dominate the course, but should be adapted to it." He could not give the Senate any information as to what orders were likely to issue

but he might mention that he had heard of a proposal in the Bengal Educational Department who proceeded a little faster than they did—it was not an accepted proposal, but a proposal to be laid before the Government—that there should be a permanent Board to look after the High School course, not only the final examination, but to be generally responsible for the whole of the High School course, the Board to consist of Inspectors of Schools, the Director of Public Instruction, and one or two other departmental officers with some representatives of the University. They would form a large and responsible Board, who would specially attend to the work. Inspectors would be accepted as the best authorities as to what was going on in the schools. The Board would have to consider what examinations were necessary at any stage of the course, and they would appoint examiners for the purpose, probably, of more or less, attending to the requirements of either individual schools or groups of schools. That was what was being proposed in Bengal, and it seemed to him that something of the same sort might very well be proposed in Madras. Of course the idea underlying the whole thing was that at present the Matriculation Examination laid down one curriculum, and all the schools had to follow that curriculum, so that there was no freedom possible. It was not the case that one course or curriculum was right, and every other was wrong, but there should be a certain amount of freedom in the curricula to be followed by a High School. The University would, under the present proposals, see that, whatever curriculum the boys might have been through at school, if they got a certificate which showed that they had profited by the curriculum, they should go to a Second Grade College where, at any rate, for one year they would be specially prepared for the University work, for specialisation. That was the recommendation of the several witnesses. No doubt the present state of things with regard to High Schools was most unsatisfactory, and they were all agreed with regard to it. Every year they got for the Matriculation Examination 6,000 to 7,000 candidates who were unable to pass it, and only 1,500 to 2,000, who were able. They might say that the examination was very difficult, but he would not dwell upon that point, as they had a large body of men who knew that it was not too difficult; what he always thought as even worse than the small pass at the Matriculation Examination was the small percentage of candidates who got into the first class. Out of 9,000, there were only 15 who obtained 60 per cent. of the marks. It was perfectly appalling to find, from the failure list over 1,000 failing in

every subject, 1,500 failing in 3 out of 4 subjects, and 1,700 failing in 2 out of 4 subjects. There was no doubt that something must be done in regard to their schools, and he hoped that the proposals now put forward would improve the present state of things. The lower Forms required looking after, as well as the Matriculation classes. The University confined itself to the Matriculation classes, but the Board, which he described, would, he hoped, attend to the work of the 4th and 5th Forms also.

With regard to Second Grade Colleges, it must be clear to every body what exact position was proposed to be given to the Second Grade Colleges by the proposals now put forward. He was anxious to hear the views of the Fellows in modification of the proposals; he had not absolutely made up his mind either one way or the other, and he was certainly willing to argue any point. His proposal was not by any means to abolish the Second Grade Colleges, nor to interfere with them to any great extent, but to make them more useful. At present, the Second Grade College was an anomaly. A great many of the Fellows and other authorities would agree with him that it was somewhat an anomalous arrangement that a student should take the first half of what was supposed to be a more or less complete University course in a College of one grade and then move into a College of another grade. Many of those who would agree that the present state of things was anomalous would object to interference with vested interests. He heartily sympathised with their objections, but what he hoped was that they would consider that some such proposals as now put forward would improve matters, without interfering with vested interests. They were really giving a definite function to Second Grade Colleges, viz., to prepare pupils who came from High Schools for specialisation in their University course. It was for Faculties to lay down the course that should be followed in a Second Grade College. He should suggest something simpler than the present course. For instance, he should leave out physiology, but that was a matter upon which he should not like to dwell. He should say that the English of the exact sort which was wanted should be paid more attention to. What would happen to Second Grade Colleges under the proposals now put forward was that they would have a year's course instead of a two years' course. He thought that the present system was inconceivably bad, where a very large number of students in a Second Grade College, who went through a

two years' course, failing in the F. A. Examination, went back to the College to take half the course. There was no education in that. Sometimes the students did not take even half the course, but took only the last quarter, to have, so to say, a final polish. A very large number of those who once failed in the F. A. failed again for the second time. That was the case with the Matriculation also. If they should go through the year's course, as suggested in a Second Grade College, even the worst of them would learn something, and if they did not do well, they should be advised by the College authorities to repeat another year, and then they would turn out some of the very best students. His colleagues on the Commission and himself had seen what the Second Grade Colleges were, and they were in a position to say something with regard to them. At any rate, speaking for himself, he thought that with very few exceptions he could hardly say they were bad, they were very much the same; they were too good to lose altogether, but they were not so good as not to require some improvements. His belief was that with their present finances, their present staff and their present equipment they could manage one year's course thoroughly well, if they should give to them a more definite function than they had at present.

In regard to First Grade Colleges, the effect of those proposals on them, leaving out the Honours course, would be to make them have a three years' course. That would, he hoped, restore, to a large extent the personal influence and *esprit de corps*, if that three years' course was bound up with greater restriction than prevailed at present in the matter of transfers. He was prepared to admit that in some cases transfers were desirable; individual circumstances were such that transfers ought to be allowed to students, but the parents of the students should understand that ordinarily a transfer was disastrous to students. In 90 per cent. of the present transfers there was no reason except that students thought that by going to a different college they might get some tips for examination purposes. In no other manner could they explain the way they dodged about from college to college. They had investigated the transfer question and found that many joined one college first, and if they failed in the examination went to another, and if they failed again went back to the first. That was not taking a course. That was not Collegiate education nor University education, and something should be done to check it. He did not propose to detain the Senate by saying anything on the Honours

Degree, which had been recommended by a very large number of witnesses. He should think that the number of colleges who undertook the Honours Course would be very small, and he proposed to reserve his remarks on that subject.

MR. K. V. RAMANADHA IYER.

Mr. K. B. Ramanadha Iyer said that before proceeding any further he would call the attention of the Senate to para. 158 of the report of the Universities' Commission, which represented the mature opinion of the whole Commission, of which Dr. Bourne, who signed the report was one of the members. That paragraph stated "schemes had been put before us which involved an alteration in the course for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. It is suggested that the Matriculation standard should be raised, that the First in Arts Examination should be abolished, and the B. A. Course should be reduced to three years. We are decidedly of opinion that the standard of the Matriculation Examination should be raised for the reason that the test, which is preliminary to the four years' course, is not sufficiently severe to ensure that those who enter the University are fit for the course of study laid down for them. We doubt, however, whether an ordinary B. A. who had passed the highest standard—Matriculation Examination and studied for three instead of four years at a University would be a better product than a man who gets his degree under the existing conditions. What we have to aim at is to improve a student, when he becomes an under-graduate, with a view to his ultimate improvement as a graduate. We have therefore no hesitation in setting aside the proposal for reducing the University course from four to three years. We do not approve of the suggestion that a student would gain by spending a year more at the High School and spending a year less in the College Department."

DR. BOURNE

Dr. A. G. Bourne pointed out that the proposal now put forward before the Senate was not exactly the same as that which had been placed before the Commission. In any case no member of a body who signed a report should be held answerable to all that was in it; it was passed by a majority, and unless one chose to write a minute of dissent, one's views on every point discussed would not be known.

THE REV. MR. L. B. WOLFE.

THE REV. MR. L. B. Wolfe said that it was very difficult to know just what to say to a proposition

which was as indefinite as the one proposed. He thought that the weakest point in the proposal was that a Second Grade College would be given one year in which to show what it could do. In India a year was a very short time as they all knew, in which to show what work they could do. He had found, during his 22 years' experience of educational work, that he could not do much in two years. Dr. Bourne had said that the Second Grade Colleges were far from what they ought to be. It was a great deal easier to show the defects than to formulate a plan which would develop education along such lines as would insure a better product than that which had hitherto resulted. That was his perplexity. With due deference to all that had been said, education was not a matter of regulation; it was not something which could be ordered by law. If he understood education at all rightly, it was a growth; and growths might be of all sorts. There might be very abnormal growths, and in this country there had been very abnormal developments most certainly. But there had been, he believed, a steady growth during the 50 years and more of that University. He could say that, at least during the past 22 years, there had been advancement. It was, therefore, hard to commit oneself exactly to the proposals which were laid down, however much one would like to do so. He trusted that nothing that he said might be interpreted as not in favour of reform. He was quite sure that reform was necessary in their educational work, but the only question was along what lines the reform should proceed and what time should be given for carrying out the reform. There was such a thing as throttling a thing, when it was growing very well, and against that he was sure that hon'ble member who had spoken was as much opposed as any one else. He did feel that they were face to face with the real question, and he agreed that the present was the time to settle it; they had come, so to speak, at the parting of the ways, and if any definite and settled work could be given to Second Grade Colleges, that would justify the Senate in taking up time to reform the whole course of study. He would draw the attention of the Senate to the Government of India's letter to that University, dated 24th October, 1902, No. 854, and would just read a few sentences from that letter, as it was, so to speak, more or less a charter under which they were working at the present time. In the paragraph under Affiliation and Disaffiliation of Colleges they would find the following: "The Government of India are, above all things, anxious that the reform now proposed should be introduced with the utmost circumspection, and

all reasonable concessions should be made in order to avoid dealing harshly with institutions which have in the past made many attempts to work up to the standards which have hitherto obtained." That was the deliberate opinion of the Government of India after the promulgation of Universities Commission's report. That was what the Government said in answer to the very many petitions from this and other Presidencies in regard to the recommendations about affiliations, &c. He would also call attention to their own statement which, as a University, they sent on to the Government of India in March, 1903, and in which they stated that so far as that University was concerned, rules governing affiliations were such as need not be disturbed, because up to the present time they had worked satisfactorily in this part of India. There were other things to which he could call their attention, but as the matter must come up again before the Senate, he would not trouble them with further remarks; but he trusted that in anything that he said he would not be misinterpreted as saying anything against an honest attempt to reform their Colleges, even if it should be reforming out of existence the present Second Grade Colleges. He could not see how it should be possible for Second Grade Colleges to do very much work in one year. It was very much better that the Second Grade Colleges should go out of existence, and that the funds invested for that purpose were spent in some other way. One year's course was so short that it was almost impossible to do anything worth the name of education during that time. He would just like to state what he had sketched out. The pre-University course should be under the control of the University, the syllabus of study must be drawn up by the University, and it should be carried on in Colleges affiliated to the University; its examination should be conducted by the University, and the length of the course should be two years; the first year should begin at the end of the V form in the High school, and in the second year there should be the pre-University College course for which the school final certificates should be issued, guaranteeing the fitness of candidates for the University course.

MR. L. C. WILLIAMS PILLAI.

Mr. L. C. Williams Pillai said that the first principle enunciated in page 25 of the Draft Regulation was that the standard of the present Matriculation Examination was too low. In his official capacity he had to deal mostly with High Schools, and it was but just that he should voice the opinions of the Managers and Head Masters of High Schools. What he was going to say was

not necessarily his opinion, but was the opinion of the Managers and Head Masters of High Schools, whose views must, in fairness to them, be placed before the Senate. According to them, the Managers and Professors of First and Second Grade Colleges would be very glad indeed if the very best kind of Matriculates could be turned out from High Schools, so that their own work might be made easier. Instead of saying that the standard of Matriculation was too low, they went the length of saying that it was too high and in support of their opinion they stated that the candidates failed in the same subjects in the second year, when they passed in the very same subjects very highly in the previous year. During the last two years, there had been, to use a common expression, a slaughter in science, as many as 60 per cent. of the candidates having failed in General Knowledge. They said that strangely enough some of the best pupils who passed in the previous year in science failed in it in the next year, and they said that showed that there was something wrong in the method of examination and not in the standard of efficiency to which they carried their pupils. With regard to the charge made against the knowledge of English possessed by Matriculates, the fault lay, they said, in not prescribing a text-book for the Matriculation Examination. The University made a recommendation to the Government some years ago to prescribe a text-book, but the Government vetoed it.

DR. A. G. BOURNE

Dr. A. G. Bourne said the Rev. Mr. Wolfe's objection to the proposals was that they cut down the two years' course of the Second Grade College to one year. But he should like to point out to him and others connected with Second Grade Colleges that the Seventh Class, as it was called, was composed largely of pupils of their own school. It was not as if that the candidates remained in the Second Grade College for only one year, but in many cases their period of stay was 7 years, and it was only a question of cutting down the period from 8 to 7 years and not of cutting it down from 2 years to 1 year. It was not proposed to raise the standard of the present Matriculation Examination, and what was stated in clause (a) was a mere expression of opinion, and the remedy proposed was to get over the difficulty in the Second Grade College Course.

THE HON'BLE MR. V. C. DESIKACHARIAR.

The Hon'ble Mr. V. C. Desikachariar said that the proposal now put forward was a great improvement upon the existing system. The chief cry raised against the proposal was that if it was adopt-

ed a number of Second Grade Colleges would disappear, but he thought that was not correct. They had now 3 classes of institutions—High Schools, Second Grade Colleges and First Grade Colleges. There were institutions which combined all three or only two. Every Second Grade College had a High School Department and some of the First Grade Colleges had also High School Departments. The effect of the proposals would be that many of the High Schools which could not develop into Second Grade Colleges would improve and add a pre-collegiate class and thus become Second Grade Colleges. It might be that many schools might not have funds to have two college classes, but they might have funds to have one college class. If it was to have one more class in addition to the VI Form, it might be more easy for some of the High Schools to have it. Therefore, there was no fear that the Second Grade Colleges would all disappear if the scheme now put forward were carried. One other objection raised was that there were a number of students who were content to have only two years' instruction after the Matriculation Examination and who made the F. A. Examination their *summum bonum*. If statistics were taken it would be found that every student who entered the F. A. course hoped to pass the B. A.; and if they took the persons who passed the F. A. Examination, they would find that a very large percentage of those who passed it joined the B. A. course. In public offices no doubt greater value was attached to a man who passed the F. A. Examination, than to one who passed the Matriculation; and that was the artificial value of which much was made. In that sense it would be a hardship to abolish the F. A. Examination, but if the Government was going to say, as he hoped they would, that the Matriculation Examination was not to be the test for Government service, but they would have their own test, then there would be no hardship at all in abolishing the F. A. Examination. In regard to the F. A. Examination, he thought that a good deal of the time of the students was frittered away in studying subjects which were useless in after life. If in the F. A. course more attention could be given to general education and to the teaching of English, it would better fit the students for their college course. With regard to the transfer of pupils from one college to another, transfers chiefly took place from a Government College to a private institution, the chief reason for it being that proper professors were not appointed in Government Colleges. It so happened that owing to the exigencies of the service a Professor of English was sometimes made to teach Mathematics or a Professor of Mathematics was made to teach History, with the result that students very

often preferred to leave Government Colleges and join private institutions where experts taught special subjects. The best way to stop transfers was to appoint proper professors in Government Colleges to teach special subjects.

MR. J. P. COTELINGAM.

Mr. J. P. Cotelingam said that he had listened with a great deal of interest to what the Hon'ble Dr. Bourne said in introducing that subject. As a Second Grade College man himself, he hoped that he might not be misunderstood if he had a word or two to say in favour of Second Grade Colleges. They welcomed the reform, but while welcoming the reform, they should be careful that no damage of any kind was done to the good work that was acknowledged to be done by the existing Second Grade Colleges. Reference had been made to Dr. Miller and on more occasions than one in the Senate, Dr. Miller deprecated frequent changes; he thought that if the University suffered it was, to a very large extent, due to frequent changes. There had not been time enough to show what good might result from any particular course adopted by the University. Although the present was the time when changes of some sort might be introduced in the University curriculum, yet he would submit that radical changes were more likely to do harm than good. He must differ from the Hon'ble Dr. Bourne about the personal influence that the Professors of First Grade Colleges were likely to have over their pupils, if the course were to be extended from 2 to 3 years. Oftentimes a student in a Second Grade College began his studies in it from the Infant Class. The course of the Primary Department lasted for five years, the course of the Lower Secondary Department lasted for three years, and that of the High School Department for another three years. That made in all 11 years of study, so that when a student left a Second Grade College for a First Grade College, he would have undergone 13 years' course in the former. It was more likely that teachers in the Second Grade Colleges would have greater personal influence over their pupils than teachers in First Grade Colleges could have in three years. Then again a recommendation had been made that a pupil, who, after passing through the school course, went through one year of pre-collegiate course, would be better fitted to benefit by the course of instruction given in a First Grade College. For his part, he failed to see that. One year soon passed away, and he did not know how much of English, if English were the only subject to be taught in the pre-collegiate course, could be done in that one year. He supposed that something of mathematics and

something of history would have to be done. The actual period of working during a year was only 8 months, and he did not know how much could be done during that time in the pre-collegiate course, to fit the students to benefit by the instruction they would get in the First Grade Colleges. A point had been made of the large number of failures at the Matriculation Examination, and an explanation had been offered in that direction by Mr. Williams Pillai. A certain amount of weeding out process was already done at the Matriculation Examination; and in the F.A. Examination in connection with which a good deal of work was done in the Second Grade Colleges, the weeding out process was still further carried out; and it was only those who were fit to enter a First Grade College, that came out successful at the F.A. Examination. He did not think that matters would be improved very much by the scheme now proposed. If, as a result of the inspection of Colleges the Inspection Commission would point out to the Heads of Colleges their defects and show them a method of improvement, they would be helping to effect real improvement.

MR. P. T. SRINIVASA IYENGAR.

Mr. P. T. Srinivasa Iyengar said that the education imparted by the Second Grade Colleges could be best described as general, and he did not think it was wise to reduce the course of study from two years to one year in the Second Grade Colleges. The Second Grade Colleges had a distinct function to perform, namely the imparting of general education, and general education would be left unrepresented, if the F.A. Examination were abolished.

THE REV. MR. PITTENDRIGH.

The Rev. Mr. Pittendrigh enquired whether the Honours Course for two years would come at the top of a three years' course for the Pass Degree, or whether the bifurcation would commence after the Entrance Examination.

DR. A. G. BOURNE.

Dr. A. G. Bourne replied that he was not prepared to enter into details at the present moment, but he presumed that the Honours Course would be somewhat different in every subject. For instance, the Honours Course in English would be of a very different kind from the Honours Course in Science. Generally speaking, the Honours Course would be something different from a mere superstructure on a Pass Course. He thought that with regard to Honours Course the students would begin and proceed more slowly and steadily on a wider foundation. He did not, however, feel

competent to go into details on that subject at the present moment.

DR. A. C. MITCHELL.

Dr. Mitchell thought that the F.A. Course was at present a block in the way of continuity, inasmuch as a great many of the students came to grief at the F.A., and went no further on that account. Under the scheme now proposed, a larger proportion of the students who entered on a College Course would get to the degree, for the simple reason that the course would not be interrupted by any special test like the F.A.

MR. H. J. BHABA.

Mr. H. J. Bhaba doubted whether they could not leave the pre-collegiate course at two years as at present and make the Degree Course extend to three years. His opinion was that High Schools were in a deplorable state, as regarded English instruction. Either the Matriculation Course must be extended by one year or it must be followed by one year of a pre-collegiate course, and they should retain the same number of years for the College Course as at present.

The Vice-Chancellor said that after the opinions of all the Fellows who desired to speak on the subject were elicited, it was proposed to defer the consideration of the proposals to the 18th November, which would enable the members of the Senate to have sufficient time to think over the matter.

13th October.

SIR S. SUBRAMANIA IYER.

Sir S. Subramania Iyer said that having regard to the importance of the subject he felt it his duty to state his views, not with the authority of a person connected directly with education, but as the opinions of an average citizen, and in doing so he might say at once that he found himself considerably strengthened by the fact that his views were in accordance with those of Sir V. Bashyam Iyengar. The views propounded might not be quite popular with certain persons; certainly they would not be popular with the kind of people who had been writing letters to a local publication, for this reason, that he belonged, just at present, to a body which was supposed to servilely follow and carry out the dictates of the Director of Public Instruction and that the Director was engaged in putting forward his scheme out of unworthy motives. Statements of that kind in public prints were not calculated to increase the reputation which persons who had received English education were likely to enjoy at the hands of reflecting persons.

He felt that it was the duty of every member of the Senate to do what he could to support the hands of the Director in connection with the steps which he was endeavouring to take for the improvement of education in this Presidency. The scheme propounded by Sir V. Bashyam Iyengar had fallen flat upon the members of the Commission, but it commended itself to Dr. Bourne who was in charge of the affairs of the Educational Department. The view propounded was but a part of a whole scheme which was necessary for the benefits of education being fully realised in this country. Improvement must be at all the four points, namely in the Primary Department, in the High Schools, Collegiate Education and Post-Graduate course. He was perfectly satisfied that Dr. Bourne had all those various points before his mind and was doing what lay in his power to ensure improvements in every one of those respects. As regards the Primary Department, the letter read by the President of the Central Agricultural Association at a meeting at the Museum the other day showed what was going to be done in that direction. They were going to have rural schools with grounds attached for the purpose of conveying accurate and direct information connected with the agriculture of the country. One almost felt when that letter was being read that they were, to a certain extent, going to keep to the lines of work, which was being done in America. With regard to High Schools and Second Grade Colleges, he did not for one moment depreciate the good work which was being done. He was perfectly satisfied that the Senate should do nothing which would in any way do harm to those institutions, consistently with the policy of improvement which was to be adopted. But he was unwilling to be deterred by the feeling that if they wanted to make such and such changes, such and such a thing would happen, and therefore they should not make the change. That feeling should not deter them from doing what they considered to be proper. If in carrying out improvements the abolition of the Matriculation was necessary they must not be carried away with by the feeling that such a step would affect the finance of the University. It was much better that they should prevent thousands of candidates from wasting their money on the Matriculation Examination; it was not right that the University should continue to have that examination, in order to keep up a body of examiners who infested every syndicate. If education was to advance, well-to-do men should contribute to the extent of their power towards the maintenance of good institutions; but for a

long time to come a great deal would have to come out of State funds. One object of Dr. Bourne was to have a first class institution for post-Graduate study, a kind of institution which Sir V. Bashyam Iyengar had recommended. It might cost a great deal of money, but at some time or other such an institution must come into existence and until that happened they could not boast of people who would be able to produce original work. He was opposed to having any University examination like the Matriculation as a passport to public service. It would not doubt be a great advantage to the University that its Graduates, men who had received sound collegiate instruction and who had had post Graduate training, should have public offices open to them. They had Cambridge and Oxford men and men of other Universities getting into the Civil Service and into the higher branches of the Government service and such portions of public service as might be available for highly educated Hindus, Mahomedans, Native Christians and Parsis should be eligible for them. The Collegiate education which that they organized should not be such as to shut out the most brilliant young men of the country from getting into the proper ranks of the service—he did not mean clerkships on Rs. 20 or 30 but District Munsifships and Deputy Collectorships, &c. He advocated the abolition of the Matriculation Examination in order that some of the efforts of the University might be directed towards the development of the Collegiate course and Post Graduate course. Dealing with Primary Education he pointed out that they had not men competent to teach children properly and unless they looked to the foundation, they could not raise a strong superstructure. He condemned the idea of an extended curriculum in the lower classes covering such subjects as Physiology, Mathematics, History, Geography and English literature, the result of which was that the minds of the young were filled up with a mass of undigested information which hindered their future career. Sufficient importance was not attached to the facts that the medium through which instruction had to be imparted was a foreign language. In his opinion English ought to be taught by men whose vernacular was English and who made a special study of it. For his own part he felt doubtful of English at times in writing judgments in important cases and on such occasions he had to depend upon his friend, the Registrar, to see that the English was right. A man had to think in Tamil and translate his ideas into English. If attention was paid more to the mastering of the English language, if the curriculum was reduced and if children were taught in the lower classes

by competent persons, he had not the slightest doubt that a great improvement would be perceptible in the class of people who came up to the University. The proposals brought forward by Dr. Bourne should not be considered in the light of the effect which they would have upon Second grade Colleges. It should be the ambition of every native in this country to have half-a-dozen public schools in this country of the type of English public schools. The Government of India was anxious to provide proper education and to improve the department. The Fellows should not be guided by petty considerations connected with the Second Grade Colleges in dealing with the proposals now put forward before them. He would ask the Senate to take a broad view of the question and strengthen the hands of the Director with reference to the scheme he had put forward. There was one point on which he wished to lay stress. Several of his countrymen were extremely anxious that no age limit should be fixed for the Matriculation Examination so that capable men might be enabled to get into the ranks of the Civil Service. The age limit that had been suggested was 17, but if that should be insisted upon, it might be difficult for some of the young men to go to England and get into the Civil Service. Fairly intelligent men properly trained, were well qualified at the age of 15 to enter the University course. Mr. Justice Telang had matriculated at the age of 13. Among the members of the Senate, there were several who had taken their Degree in their 18th year, such as Mr. Krishnaswami Iyer and Mr. Sivaswami Iyer. It was a mistake to keep back an intelligent young man, because some dull young man was not able to keep pace with him. The true remedy was to eliminate the dull man and prevent him from invading the precincts of the University. All those who had already entered into the Civil Service must have taken their Degree very early such as Ruthnavelu Chetty, Venugopal Chetty, Narayana Iyer and Pandaranga Row. The really brilliant men ought to be enabled to pass their degree in this country at an early age, so that they might have sufficient time to be coached up in England to pass the Civil Service. In conclusion he pointed out that it was better to have a dozen good high schools than to have 50 inefficient high schools.

Dr. Bourne replied in regard to the last point that 16 had been generally suggested for the Matriculation Examination, and as one year was added to the Matriculation course to enable a candidate to appear for the entrance examination, the age limit of 17 for the entrance examination was the same as 16 for the Matriculation Examination.

Taking that age limit, a young man could graduate in his 20th year and he could easily appear for the Civil Service, as the age limit for it was 21.

Sir S. Subramania Iyer remarked there must be time for being coached up.

Dr. Bourne replied that a graduate would not require to be coached up for more than a year. However he was not an advocate of any age rule.

MR. V. KRISHNASWAMI IYER.

Mr. V. Krishnaswami Iyer observed that there were three points in the proposals of Dr. Bourne which might be subjects of controversy—firstly the practical abolition of the F.A. Examination, secondly the bifurcation of studies into two courses, Pass Course and Honours Course and thirdly the suggestion to confine students to one college and to give them no facilities to change from one to another. While the Fellows were anxious to see that brilliant men produced by the University were an honour to the country, they must not at the same time forget the breadth of education, the area over which education given by the University was imparted. In being dazzled by the fine products of the University, they ought not in the circumstances of the country, to forget that as large a number of people should be educated by the University as lay in its power. Dealing with Second Grade Colleges, he pointed out that there were about 40 second grade institutions and the question was whether under the scheme propounded by Dr. Bourne, they would be content with merely preparing candidates for the University course. They must consider whether the abolition of the F.A. Examination would make the Second Grade Colleges cease to exist. He had reasons to think that Second Grade Colleges would cease to exist. If, as stated on the previous day, it was true that very few were content to stop at the F.A. Examination, then the abolition of that examination would not affect Second Grade Colleges, but statistics must be collected to ascertain if that statement was correct. With regard to Pass and Honours Courses, it was an excellent idea to have those two courses as it would lead to the brilliant boy coming up. With regard to transference from one college to another, it was a mistake to suppose that students change colleges for the purposes of getting tips for Examinations. There might be weighty reasons for students desiring to change from one college to another, and he proceeded to enumerate them. He knew of a striking instance of a distinguished Indian being put in the History chair, a branch of study which he almost loathed. The fact that there was not that necessary amount of personal influ-

ence exercised by Professors over students was not due to students changing colleges, but to Professors not taking sufficient interest in their students. It was all very well to insist upon students remaining in one and the same college for a number of years and to reside in hostels; but that by itself was useless, unless the Professors were asked to live in quarters given to them and were brought into immediate contact with their students in their leisure hours. If a college was located in a Presidency town, there were several social engagements which occupied the attention of Professors, but if it was located some miles away from the Presidency town the students and Professors would be thrown together more often and the personal influence exercised would be indeed very great.

MR. H. J. BHABHA.

Mr. H. J. Bhabha agreed with Sir S. Subramania Iyer in saying that the age limit for the Matriculation Examination should be fixed at 15, and young men ought to be enabled to enter upon their University course at the age of 16. It was a mistake to discourage brilliant young men in going up for higher studies when they were in the swim of the thing.

MR. P. S. SIVASWAMI IYER.

The Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Iyer thought that the expense of an additional year's residence at a First Grade College was not likely to deter students from entering upon their College course. He advocated the retention of the two years' course as at present in the Second Grade Colleges and urged the necessity of young men being kept near their homes in Second Grade Colleges. He thought that the two years' course now adopted in the Second Grade Colleges was not too long. In his opinion it was not possible to make an improvement in the instruction imparted to a student if the period of study was curtailed to one year. He was not in sympathy with the suggestion that some of the subjects now studied for the F.A. Examination should be abolished, as, in his opinion, those subjects gave the requisite general education to the students. It would be a great pity to allow students to begin specialising, before they had some knowledge of the subjects now prescribed in the F.A. curriculum. He was in favour of the abolition of the Matriculation Examination and in its place, school final certificates might be issued to students to enable them to enter the Second Grade College. At the end of course in the Second Grade College, there might be an examination conducted by the University, the passing of which would enable the students to enter the First Grade

[Oct. 1905.]

College. In regard to the question of transfer he was in favour of transfers being freely allowed from one college to another.

THE REV. G. PITTENDRIGH.

The Rev. G. Pittendrigh said that the whole subject was bristling with difficulties and while he was not against the changes proposed he was somewhat pessimistic about them. They had not the slightest idea as to the nature of the school final examination that was under contemplation and until they knew something about it, it would not be possible for them to make up their minds upon the proposals now put before the Senate.

MR. AZIZ-UD-DIN SAHIB.

Mr. Aziz-ud-din Sahib said :—

Mr. Vice-Chancellor,

I feel diffident to accept the correctness of the statement that the standard of the present Matriculation Examination is not a sufficient guarantee as to the qualification of a student to enter upon the course of study in the University. At first, the subjects to be brought up for this examination were fewer, and the course prescribed was less, by one year, but of late there has been a tendency to add to the subjects which are already numerous and to extend the course further. Life is too short for these protracted studies in a foreign language, and taking into consideration the fact that old age in the East sets in much earlier than in the West, it is undesirable that the course should be so prolonged as to make the student old when he bids good-bye to the precincts of the College. If, as alleged, the Matriculate of the present day is not fit to enter upon the University course, it is I think mainly due to the fact that the subjects he has to study are too many and the time allotted to teach them is very limited. I think that so far while the University has been deprecating cramming it has been in effect offering a premium to it indirectly by multiplying the subjects and by judging merit solely by passes secured in the Examinations. The result has been most pernicious. Instead of men with sound education and sufficient mental power to think, the University has been producing men whose knowledge is generally confined to the surface. The strain caused by raising the present standard will not only further impair the mental powers of many a youth but will also seriously undermine the health of the student population. It has been my painful privilege to witness at the Convocation during the last twelve years the miserable physique of the University graduates most of whom it appeared to me had worked up their way to an early grave by over-study enforced upon them by the Educational Rules. I

think it is high time, and the present opportunity seems to be the fittest one to improve matters in this direction. I strongly object to the raising of the Matriculation Standard and to the adding of of even a single year's study to the present Matriculation course.

As to the age I think the minimum should be 15.

MR. H. J. ALLEN.

Mr. H. J. Allen combated the remarks of some of the speakers especially of the Hon'ble Mr. V. C. Desikachariar, that the reason of the students transferring from one college to another was the inefficiency of the teaching in Government Colleges. The real explanation was that education in Government Colleges was expensive and students were not offered anything in the shape of scholarships. The speaker gave statistics to show that transfers of students from the Presidency College to private institutions were very few. Taking the Junior F.A. Class at the end of the first term of the current year, three students out of 53 left the College. In the Junior B.A. Class out of a total of 171 on the 31st of May, the number that left the College was only 5, of whom one had to leave because he had not paid his fees and another had gone to the Engineering College at Rerkee. In December last year out of a total of 183, only 14 students left the Junior B.A. Class, of whom 3 were not promoted in the science subjects and 9 were not promoted to the senior class.

MR. M. RANGACHARIAR.

Mr. M. Rangachariar made a lengthy speech in the course of which he pointed out that Primary, Secondary and University Education had been so organised in this country that a boy who entered a Primary School naturally expected to go up to the University. In no country in the world, not even in Germany which contained the largest number of Universities, was it understood that every citizen of the State was entitled by capacity, fitness, and opportunity to go up to the University. In his opinion, Primary Education must be so organised as to make it serve as an end in itself, while it served as a stepping stone to Secondary Education, and that Secondary Education must be organised in such a way as to make it an end in itself while it should be a stepping stone to University Education. He was against the abolition of the F.A. Examination and was in favour of the School-final Examination being made applicable to those who were not going up to the University. He approved of the Honours Course which he thought might extend to three years after a candidate passed the F.A. Examination.

Oct. 1905.]

The further discussion of the subject was adjourned to this evening.

14th October.

MR. H. J. BHABA.

Mr. H. J. Bhaba expressed himself in favour of bifurcation of studies in the High School Department, one set of students going up for the University course and the other going up for a practical course to fit them for certain walks of life. Both the sets of students might study general subjects together in the morning and study special subjects in the afternoon separately, the students going up for University course studying literary subjects, and the others scientific, technical and industrial subjects. The School Final Examination which was proposed to be instituted should include fewer literary subjects, but a number of scientific, technical, and industrial subjects. That examination should be so framed that a great majority of poorer students, poorer both intellectually and in point of wealth might be enabled to find employment after having passed the examination. Efforts in that direction had been made in America and what were called Manual-training High Schools were now in existence in that country. He thought that instruction in scientific, technical, and commercial subjects, in agriculture, in practical telegraphy and in mechanical engineering, etc., should be given in the School Final course. Those who preferred the University course should appear for the Entrance Examination, and those who preferred the practical course should appear for the School Final Examination.

THE REV. FATHER SEWELL.

The Rev. Father Sewell thought that the existing Second Grade Colleges were fulfilling a useful purpose and should not be abolished, but he thought that the abolition of the F.A. examination would be an unmixed blessing. He did not mean to say that an intermediate examination between the Entrance Examination and the Degree examination was an unmixed evil, but that the present F.A. examination with its special features was decidedly objectionable, as it decapitated the graduate course. If a better and more suitable curriculum was allowed to be established in High Schools than that which at present prevailed, they might hope that the students coming up from the secondary course might be fit, from their knowledge of English and from their general knowledge, to proceed to the Collegiate course.

THE REV. DR. MILLER.

The Rev. Dr. Miller observed that he had not had the advantage of hearing the previous dis-

cussion, but he might be allowed to express his opinion generally on the points that were now before the Senate. They were now discussing the subject with a view to the formation of their own opinion in the first place and of the opinion of the outside public in the second place, in order that the Senate might come to a decision on the subject a month hence. He would express his entire approval of the lines along which Mr. Bhaba had been speaking, he approved of a scheme of bifurcation properly conducted in the High School Department. He would remind the Senate that the Education Commission which sat several years ago and of which he had been a member had urged with practical unanimity that there should be two courses in the High Schools—one tending to the liberal culture of University Education and the other to preparation for the practical duties of life. Dealing with the principles laid down on page 25 of the Draft Regulations, he expressed his entire dissent in what was stated therein—not perhaps what was meant—that the standard of the present Matriculation examination was insufficient as a guarantee that a student who had passed it was qualified to enter upon a course of study in the University. In his opinion it was not the standard that was wanting. He quite admitted—he would emphatically declare—that very many of the students who had now passed the Matriculation examination were unfit to enter upon a University course, but that was not because the Matriculation standard was at fault. If the boys had been intelligently trained up to the standard theoretically laid down for the Matriculation examination, they would be thoroughly qualified to enter upon the University course. He was glad to think that there was a hope at all events that in the future a better race of students might arise. He was glad to hear of the abolition of the Lower Secondary Examination, which had been the curse of education ever since it had been introduced. Of course the mere abolition of it would not put things right, but it removed a nearly impassable wall in the way of real education in High School. He had the hope that, in course of time, real teaching might be given instead of that memory and cram work, which had been the end and aim of most teachers and of most pupils in the various High schools; and with the removal of the Lower Secondary Examination, it was legitimate to hope that the schools might attain to a better character and the teachers might be animated by higher aims than simply pushing pupils through the next examination by parrot work and getting probable answers to possible questions. (Laughter). He maintained that the present standard of the

Matriculation examination, if it was thoroughly worked up to, was a very fair foundation for entering upon a University course. He did not say that the present standard was perfect; it might be improved in various details, but he dissented from the statement that the standard of the Matriculation examination was insufficient. If the present standard were worked up to thoughtfully and intelligently, even as intelligently as it used to be in Madras before the Lower Secondary examination or the Middle School examination, which lowered the whole tone of education—if it were worked up to, as it had been in those bygone days, he had no doubt that the preparation would be found to be far better than what it was at present. Speaking about the Second Grade Colleges, he said that he did not know what course the discussion had taken in regard to them. He had no great love for Second Grade Colleges, and if he were setting up a scheme of education *de novo*, he would not include in it institutions like the present Second Grade Colleges; but he was not for revolution; he believed in growth. At present they had a system which had satisfied the wants of the community and which, in spite of the evils about it, had worked fairly well and had done good work. He was entirely opposed to doing anything that would result in the practical abolition of the Second Grade Colleges. They should not in that or any other matter be too fond of making changes. No doubt there were ways in which gradual changes might be introduced, but anything that would imply a sudden abolition of those very useful institutions would, in his opinion, be a great calamity to the country generally. How far the interests of those institutions had been secured he was really not in a position to say. Speaking of the pre-collegiate course he said that he did not himself believe in it. If the standard of the Matriculation examination was fairly worked up to, as it ought to be, he thought that a four years' course thereafter, pretty much on the lines followed at present, would be a very good thing. He had no doubt that for many years to come the first two years of the course should, in the present circumstances of the country, be spent in a Second Grade College. He hoped that, whatever the Senate did, it would not do anything that would put a sudden end to those institutions. Dealing with the question of age limit in connection with the Matriculation examination, he pointed out that he did not like hard and fast rules, but he thought that some age limit had at present become desirable largely through the premature forcing of clever little boys to pass examinations, when they had digested absolutely nothing. At present he was in favour

of some kind of age limit being fixed, but they should be careful not to introduce any hard and fast rules. With regard to the two courses for the Bachelor of Arts Degree, the Pass Course and the Honours Course, he confessed that he would very much rather have the present system of the B. A. Degree being the Pass Degree, and the M. A. the Honours Degree. It was very important that the one should be a stepping stone to the other. He deprecated very strongly any attempt to make the two courses different from the beginning. There were no doubt some subjects in which differences in teaching and training might perhaps be legitimate, but upon the whole in the present circumstances of India, he thought that it was highly desirable that every one who aimed at being a cultured and educated man should take first the ordinary Pass Degree and should not be called upon to decide finally whether he was to go further or not, until that stage had been reached. It was not a matter of great importance whether the higher stage should be called the Bachelor of Arts with Honours or the Master of Arts; but he did not see any sufficient reason for changing the present nomenclature to something new. He objected to change in educational and in all other matters, that was not proved to be necessary. When change was necessary, let them by all means have it, but a change for the sake of change was a thing he would most entirely deprecate. He thought that the Senate would do well to think twice before they decided on the abolition of the F. A. Examination. He had been a very strong opponent of premature examinations; but he was not quite so sure that a public examination, when intermediate in the B. A. course, was an unmitigated evil, and he believed that something of that kind was likely to do good. He thought that it was desirable that he should express those views which had taken a long time to form and which were the result of a considerable amount of experience.

SIR S. SUBRAMANIAM IYER.

Sir S. Subramaniam Iyer amplified what he had said on the previous day and pointed out that it was not the intention of Dr. Bourne to abolish a single Second Grade College, for the purpose of having it abolished. When changes were necessary, they should not be avoided and the proper course was to have a distinct programme and to have it brought into force five or seven years hence, thus giving time to existing institutions to adapt themselves to new conditions.

16th October

MR. K. B. RAMANADHA IYER.

Mr. K. B. Ramanadha Iyer was of opinion that anything that would tend to the abolition of Second Grade Colleges was undesirable. He pointed out that of the Second Grade Colleges, there were as many as 38 affiliated to the University of which, 17 were Missionary Colleges, 13 Native Colleges, one Government College and 7 Colleges for the education of girls. If the proposals now put forward were carried, possibly several of the Missionary Colleges might develop into First Grade Colleges, but so far as the Native Colleges were concerned, it would be a long time before they could expect any of them to work up to the requirements of First Grade Colleges. Looking at the last year's report of the Senate, he found that from the Second Grade Colleges, 1,042 candidates had been sent up for the F. A. of whom 457 passed; and from the First Grade Colleges, 913 had been sent up, of whom 416 passed. If the Second Grade Colleges were abolished, the question was whether the First Grade Colleges would be able to find room for the large number of students that now underwent training in the Second Grade Colleges.

MR. N. SUBRAMANIAM.

Mr. N. Subramaniam agreed with Dr. Miller and Dr. Bhaba in thinking that the course of study for young men who intended to go in for the University must be different from that for those who, after leaving the High School, intended to enter upon public life. He urged that far more attention should be paid to the imparting of instruction in English knowledge than was now the case. If that were done, he thought that by the time the students passed through the Sixth Form they ought to possess as much knowledge of the English language as they would possess under the proposed pre-collegiate course of study. He was of opinion that the time now spent in learning the English language was far too little. He thought that the students intending to go up for the University should not be required to study the same number of subjects as those who preferred a practical course and intended to enter public life after their High School Education. He advocated that students going up for the Matriculation Examination or the Entrance Examination, should be allowed some latitude in the choice of subjects, in which they should go up on the lines of the London Matriculation Examination, which had 24 subjects out of which the students could choose, besides the compulsory subjects. There was no reason why a student who was going to

take philosophy for the Degree Examination, should be asked to labour over Trigonometry and Geometry. It would be a great advantage if the students appearing for the Matriculation examination could be allowed the choice of bringing up such subjects, as they were likely to take up in their University course. He pleaded for limitation being placed on the maximum strength of a class of a High School, so as to enable teachers to give individual instruction to boys; which, at present, was not possible, owing to the fact that some of the classes were 40 or 50 strong. That suggestion might involve an additional expenditure on the part of Managers of High Schools in the shape of employing extra teachers, but he had no doubt that the increased expenditure could be re-imbursed by raising the school fees. Dealing with the Pass Course and Honours Course of the Degree Examination, he thought that the period of study should be the same for both courses, *viz.*, 3 years, and not three years and five years respectively as proposed at present.

MR. W. E. HOARE.

Mr. W. E. Hoare said that while he agreed with Dr. Miller that the abolition of the particular Lower Secondary examination they had was good, he did not agree with him that the abolition of a Lower Secondary examination was good, as it threw too much responsibility on the managers of schools in the matter of promotions. He said that the inspecting officers were not able to devote as much attention to the inspection of schools as they used to do before. He thought that the Matriculation examination should be left as it was and they might reduce if necessary the multiplicity of subjects required for that examination. In his opinion, the existing Second Grade Colleges met a felt want and were doing their work as well as the First Grade Colleges. 19 of the Second Grade Colleges had European Principals and several of them had two European Professors on their staff. It must be remembered that those colleges had not grown up out of pure wickedness. It was Mr. Grigg who had encouraged promising High Schools to develop into Second Grade Colleges. He advocated the abolition of the third class in the B. A. Degree Passes, as in his opinion the third class B. As. were poor specimens. He would ask for strict supervision over High Schools by Government and the University. The University should refuse recognition to High Schools which did not secure a high percentage of passes at the Matriculation examination. It would be a good thing for the country if about 100 High Schools were reduced

to the Lower Secondary Standard. He thought that University Education suffered a good deal on account of the close connection between the University and the Government. In his opinion the objects of the University were prostituted by having examinations for the purpose of deciding the fitness of candidates for Government service. He thought that the Government ought to provide its own examinations and the University should have nothing to do with them.

THE REV. DR. MILLER.

The Rev. Dr. Miller said that he had understood from one of the speeches made at the previous meeting that the interests of the Second Grade Colleges had been sufficiently secured, but he now found that such was not the case. While he was of opinion that the best thing for a student was to spend the whole of his 4 or 5 years in one and the same College, he could not ignore the fact that the extinction of the Second Grade Colleges would be a great loss to the community. Under the proposed scheme, they would be relegated to the position of mere preparatory institutions of a year's course, preparing the students for the Higher Grade College and he believed that the result of such a course would be disastrous. One of two things must happen if that scheme were carried out. Some of those colleges would cease to exist and that would be a serious loss to the means of culture, or some of them would be forced on pre-maturely to develop into First Grade Colleges, and that would be a still greater evil. In course of time, (say in ten years) he should like to see Second Grade Colleges pass out of existence, but he should be very sorry, if they should be suddenly compelled to go back into a sort of inferior condition. He placed no value upon the percentage of passes to which Mr. Hoare had referred. It was not by percentage of passes that they should judge of the real value of anything like liberal culture or true education. It was proposed to have one year's course in the Second Grade College and two years' course in the First Grade College. He should not object to two years' course in the Second Grade College and three years' course in the First Grade College, provided that those who drew up the syllabuses did not fall into the error of over-loading the curriculum. True culture did not consist in knowing something of many things but in knowing thoroughly at least one thing. The curriculum should be so arranged that there should be not only leisure for exercise and amusement but leisure above all for thought.

He was in favour of as a large number as possible graduating so as to form an educated public and a few of them at least taking up the higher course—the Honours Course or as he preferred to call it the M. A. course, so as to enable them to become leaders of thought.

MR. C. NAGOJI ROW.

Mr. V. Krishnaswami Iyer asked the Vice-Chancellor if he would permit him to read a short paper on the subject, prepared by Mr. C. Nagoji Row, Principal of Kumbakonam College, who had been prevented from attending the meeting that day, owing to illness.

On the question being put to the meeting, the majority of the members voted against the proposal to read the paper, on the ground that it would create an inconvenient precedent. The Vice-Chancellor suggested however, to Mr. V. Krishnaswami Iyer that the paper might be handed over to the representatives of the press.

The following are the remarks of Mr. Nagoji Row :—

I had not intended to speak after hearing Dr. Miller on examinations, and I had intended to reserve my remarks for the final discussion; but when a number of my friends in the Senate urged that,—with my experience as an educational officer of 34 years' service during 17 of which I have been connected with one or other of the 3 Government First Grade Colleges in the Presidency and during the remainder of the time with institutions of all grades from the Second Grade College down to the infant class, including Technical Schools and Girls' Schools which have only been recently placed under special Inspecting Agencies.—I ought to have some special personal knowledge of institutions of all grades, and that it was my duty to place my views before the Senate to enable some of its members at least to form their opinions on the questions now before them, I could not say no to their request. And I shall state what I have to state as briefly as I can.

The University as a University might be supposed to have nothing to do with High School Education as such. High schools and the examinations connected with them being under a separate agency, one would at first think that the duty of the University would begin with laying down a Matriculation or an entrance examination to test the fitness of students to enter the portals of our Colleges. If all branches of education were under the guidance and control of a single body the State or some other corporate institution, then all branches of education would

form parts of one organic whole and each stage would be made to fit in naturally with the next higher. But this is not possible here except to some extent only, as High School Education and the University Education are under the control of two different bodies. There is, however, one fact connected with secondary education which we have to consider, *viz.*, the number of lads that are likely to go through a complete High School course, and the proportion of those that would in the present state of the country enter upon a University course. I suppose it was in connection with this that some of the speakers at Saturday's meeting spoke on the desirableness of having a bifurcation of studies, probably believing that if there were two sides to our High School Education, one practical and the other literary, a fair proportion of those who now go in for what is practically a literary course would then go in for the practical side and there would not in that case be the rush that there is now to the University. This opinion, however, requires to be carefully examined. I think the establishment and the success of schools with a technical side depended largely on how they met a real want for such education in the country, which again could exist only if there were industries, manufactures and commerce on a large scale which rendered the employment of men with technical education remunerative, at all events quite as remunerative, as that of those with a purely literary education.

My experience of India has taught me that the people do not value modern knowledge for its own sake, as we no doubt think they should do, but go in only for that kind of education which they rightly or wrongly imagine will bring them the largest pecuniary advantage, in this instance at least shewing that they have a little more practical sense than some of us might credit them with. They do not think that a Technical Education will pay well in the present state of the country, and know that if any education pays at all, it is literary and professional education prescribed by the University. Now, however, that both Government and the people have begun to direct their attention to the development of Agriculture, Commerce and Industry and that the people are slowly discovering that literary education has begun to pay less and less, a time may soon come when more will go in for practical education and fewer for literary education, still I think that the time is not quite so near as we might imagine. I know a member of a Mission and two Board Industrial Schools, and I know that the attendance at these is poor and would not be even what it is at present if free boarding

in the former case and stipends for every boy in the latter case did not afford an artificial stimulus.

From what has been said above, it will be clear that the number of candidates for admission into Colleges prior to the passing of the Matriculation Examination as under the proposed regulation, will not be less than $\frac{2}{3}$ of the number that now go up for the Matriculation. In what will then be the lowest class in a College nearly double the number now attending it will seek to secure provisional admission before they are admitted to the Matriculation examination.

The accommodation in the College being limited it may be expected that each college will select from among the applicants only as many candidates as can be accommodated in it and refuse to admit the rest. This would probably necessitate a candidate for admission to go to half a dozen colleges, from one to another, before he can finally secure the coveted admission. In this he may have had to pass the School Final, must have sought for the admission at more than one college, and at last when he does secure admission he must sit for the University Matriculation. This would certainly be putting too much strain on young men.

It would therefore be better for the University to hold the Matriculation examination, before the candidates choose a college, and to let them join any institution which would admit them after passing the Matriculation as they do now. Of course in the present state of public opinion it would not do to allow the colleges each to have its own Matriculation test. As regards the standard of the Matriculation examination it is, I think, sufficiently high and would serve its purpose admirably if the curriculum included a large amount of easy prose and poetry in English which would make it impossible for candidates to pass the Matriculation examination with only an imperfect knowledge of Grammar, and if the examination instead of being too easy at times, and too difficult at others, would test the average intelligence of our boys. Examinations are more responsible for evil results than teaching; because whatever we might do, the teaching to a great extent is shaped by examinations, and if the examinations are not properly conducted, the teaching becomes generally poor and ill-directed.

As regards the F. A. Examination the proposal to do away with it would involve too great a change in the existing state of things. Let us consider what the abolition of the Examination and the closing of the Second Grade Colleges will mean.

Those students who now study in their 2nd year classes will have to go to the 1st year classes of the First Grade Colleges, and would nearly double their strength. How many First Grade Colleges will be able to supply the additional room required for this? And if there were no examination between the Matriculation, and the B. A., all those who enter the proposed 1st class of the First Grade Colleges will go on for the B.A. examination thus swelling the numbers not only in the 1st year classes, as stated above, but also in all the classes, there being no intermediate examination to weed out the unworthy, as at present. The inconvenience of hostel accommodation in such a case would be even greater.

I find that the number going up for the F. A. from all the Second Grade Colleges put together does not fall short of the number going up for the same examination from the First Grade Colleges, and the results turned out are in no way worse. If this examination were abolished and the Second Grade Colleges closed, the work of the First Grade Colleges would have to be fully doubled, and we should have either to put an arbitrary check on the number seeking a liberal education or to increase both the number and the efficiency of the First Grade Colleges, helping some of the Second Grade Colleges freely enough to become First Grade ones. How far the former is desirable and the latter possible, I leave to you to judge.

In this connection I may add that the F.A. Examination should be maintained for the same reasons that the F. L. and the F. E. Examinations have recently been instituted and also for the reason that it is the qualifying examination for admission to the Civil Engineering and Medical degrees.

As regards the Pass and the Honours B. A. Examinations, I entirely agree with the remarks which fell from the Rev. Dr. Miller.

MR. V. C. SESHACHARI.

Mr. V. C. Seshachari approved of the institution of the School Final examination. In discussing the present educational policy, he pointed out that the standard required by individual examiners was not uniform and he thought that a better selection of examiners should be made than was the case at present. He did not think that the education of boys depended much upon the nature of teaching given them, but chiefly upon the latent capacity of every student.

THE VICE-CHANCELLOR.

The Vice-Chancellor, in bringing the debate to conclusion congratulated the Senate on the in-

structive debate they had had. He had no doubt that it would be most valuable not only to the members of the Senate in helping them to a decision on the questions raised but also to the large circle of persons outside the Senate, who were deeply interested in every question connected with University Education, whether as masters or managers of schools or as parents of boys. He had no doubt that between that date and the date which would be fixed for the final disposal of the question, the members of the Senate would receive several communications from and exchange ideas with a great many persons interested in education now that they would see what the points were, to which their attention should be directed.

It was then resolved to adjourn the debate to Saturday the 25th November at 3 P.M., when the proposals would be taken up for final disposal.

The Fellows resolved themselves into Committee and discussed the Draft Regulations *seriatim*:-

1 and 2. The members of the Senate shall rank in the following order:-The Chancellor, the Vice-Chancellor, the *ex-officio* Fellows, in the order in which their respective offices are named in the First Schedule to the Indian Universities Act, 1904, the Ordinary Fellows according to the date and order of the first publication of their names as Ordinary Fellows in the *Fort Saint George Gazette*.

3 Meetings of the Senate shall be either ordinary, special, or extraordinary meetings.

4. Ordinary meetings shall be held on or about the first Friday in March and the third Friday in October of each year.

5. Special meetings of the Senate shall be such as are convened at the request of the Syndicate by the Vice-Chancellor, or the Chairman of a meeting of the Syndicate, for the disposal of urgent business to be laid before the Senate by the Syndicate.

6. Extraordinary meetings of Senate shall be convened by the Vice-Chancellor on the written request of any ten Fellows.

7. Any Fellow who wishes to propose a resolution at an ordinary meeting of Senate shall forward the terms of the resolution to the Registrar so as to reach him not later than the 1st February, if it is intended for discussion at the March meeting, or not later than 1st September if it is intended for discussion at the October meeting. When any ten Fellows forward a written request to the Vice-Chancellor to convene an extraordinary meeting of Senate they shall at

the same time forward the terms of the resolution or resolutions which it is intended to propose and also the name of the proposer of each resolution.

8. The Syndicate shall consider each such resolution of which notice has been given in accordance with the foregoing regulation and shall cause it to be placed on the agenda paper of the meeting at which its discussion is intended by the proposer: provided that the Syndicate may exclude any proposed resolution from the agenda paper which deals in whole or in part with any decision of the Senate adverse to its terms which has been arrived at in any meeting of Senate held within one year previous to that at which its discussion was intended.

The Registrar shall inform the proposer in each such case of exclusion, and the Syndicate shall report the fact of exclusion at the meeting at which the discussion of the resolution was intended, or, if there be no other business at that meeting, at the next meeting of Senate.

9. No resolution, proposal, or other matter of business which has not been submitted to the Syndicate shall be brought before the Senate at any meeting, except as provided for in regulations 13, 15, 23 and 43.

10. The Registrar shall, not less than fifteen days previous to each ordinary or extraordinary meeting of Senate, issue to each Fellow a notice stating the time and place of meeting, and this notice shall be accompanied by an agenda paper shewing the business to be brought before the meeting, and except as provided for in regulations 13, 15, 23 and 43, no resolution, proposal or other matter of business which is not entered on the agenda paper shall be brought before the meeting, provided that the Syndicate may, for reasons of urgency, bring any business before any meeting of Senate without notice being given in the agenda paper.

11. If there be no business to be brought before an ordinary meeting of Senate, the Registrar shall issue a notice to that effect to each Fellow not less than fifteen days before the date of such ordinary meeting.

12. In the case of special meetings, the Registrar shall give such previous notice of the time and place of meeting as the circumstances in each case may permit, but except in regard to this particular, the provisions of regulation 10 shall apply to such meetings.

13. Any Fellow wishing to propose an amendment to a resolution on the agenda paper of any ordinary or extraordinary meeting of Senate shall

forward the same to the Registrar so as to reach him not less than five clear days before the day of the meeting at which the discussion of the resolution is intended. The expression "five clear days" shall be held to mean five days exclusive of the day on which the notice of amendment reaches the Registrar and of the day of the meeting. No amendment of which notice has not thus been given shall be considered at any ordinary or extraordinary meeting of Senate, except as provided for in Regulation 43.

14. The Registrar shall, not less than three days before each ordinary or extraordinary meeting of Senate issue to each Fellow an amended agenda paper, shewing all the resolutions as in the original agenda paper issued in accordance with Regulation 10 and also shewing all amendments of which notice has been given in accordance with Regulation 13 provided that if no notice has been received under Regulation 13 of any amendment no such amended agenda paper need be issued.

15. At any special meeting of Senate any Fellow may bring forward any amendment without previous notice being given.

16. The Vice-Chancellor shall, in the absence of the Chancellor, preside at all meetings of Senate, but if the Vice-Chancellor be not present, the Fellows present shall elect a Chairman from among themselves.

17. Twenty-five Fellows shall constitute a quorum for any meeting of the Senate other than the Convocation for conferring degrees.

18. Honorary Fellows are permitted to be present at any meeting of the Senate, but are not permitted to take part in any of the business of the meeting except as otherwise provided by the Indian Universities Act 1904 or by the Regulations.

19. At the time fixed for a meeting of the Senate the Chairman shall take the chair and shall ascertain whether a quorum is present or not. If a quorum is present, he shall declare the meeting constituted and shall proceed with the business of the meeting. If a quorum is not present, he shall, if it be necessary, wait until fifteen minutes after the time fixed for the meeting, and if no quorum be then present he shall thereupon declare the meeting dissolved and shall leave the chair. If at any time during the progress of business any Fellow shall call attention to the number of Fellows present, the Chairman shall within a reasonable time count the number of the Fellows present, and, if a quorum be not present, he shall declare the meeting dis-

solved and shall leave the chair. All such dissolutions shall be recorded by the Registrar and the record shall be signed by the Chairman.

20. At every meeting of the Senate the following shall be the order of business, after the election, if it be necessary, of the Chairman:—

- i. Any motion for a change in the order of business as stated in the agenda paper.
- ii. The election, if such be part of the agenda of any official of the University.
- iii. Business brought forward by the Syndicate.
- iv. Business brought forward by the Faculties taken in the following order:—Arts, Law, Medicine, Engineering.
- v. Proposals brought forward by Fellows and which had not been excluded by the Syndicate under Regulation 8.

21. All questions considered at meetings of the Senate shall be decided by a majority of the votes of the Fellows present. If the votes, including that of the Chairman, are equally divided, the Chairman shall have a casting vote.

22. On any motion or amendment being put to the vote, the Senate shall divide and the vote of each Fellow voting shall, if called for by any Fellow, be recorded. In that case the names of Fellows abstaining from voting shall also be recorded. The manner in which a division shall be effected shall be left to the discretion and direction of the Chairman.

23. In addition to motions of which notice has been given and which satisfy the conditions of Regulations 7 and 8 the following are the only motions which may be proposed at meetings of the Senate, and of these previous notice is not necessary:—

- i. A motion for a change in the order of business as stated in the agenda paper.
- ii. A motion for the adjournment of the meeting or debate.
- iii. A motion that the meeting pass to the next business on the agenda paper.
- iv. A motion that the meeting be dissolved.
- v. A motion directing the Syndicate to review their decision and to report at a subsequent meeting of the Senate.
- vi. A motion directing a Faculty to review or amend its recommendation in any matter brought before the Senate by that Faculty.

vii. A motion for the appointment of a Committee to enquire into and report on any matter before the Senate at the time.

viii. A motion remitting any matter before the Senate at the time to a Faculty or Faculties, or to a Board or Boards of Studies for their views or recommendations and report.

24. Every motion shall be affirmative in form and shall begin with the word "that."

25. Every motion at a meeting must be seconded, otherwise it shall drop. Any Fellow may second a motion by saying "I second the motion," and may reserve his speech. When a motion has been made and seconded, it shall be stated from the chair, unless it be ruled out of order by the Chairman.

26. When a motion has been stated from the chair, it may be discussed as a question to be resolved in the affirmative or negative or as proposed to be changed by amendment brought forward under Regulations 13, 15, and 43.

27. Not more than one motion and one amendment (if any) thereto shall be placed before a meeting at the same time.

28. A motion once brought forward shall not be proposed a second time at the same meeting or at any adjournment thereof. A motion or amendment substantially identical in part with one already brought forward at a meeting may be brought forward at the same meeting with the omission of such part.

(Clauses 29 and 30 were omitted.)

31. A motion for the adjournment of a meeting or of a debate on any particular question may be made at any time, but shall not be made so as to interrupt a speech. If a motion for the adjournment of the meeting be carried the meeting shall thereupon adjourn to the time specified in the motion. If a motion for the adjournment of the debate be carried the debate shall thereupon be adjourned to the time specified in the motion, and the meeting thereupon pass to the next business (if any) on the agenda paper. If either of such motions be negatived, the business of the meeting or the debate as the case may be shall be resumed.

32. A motion for adjournment of a meeting shall be in the form "That this meeting do now adjourn to," followed by words indicating the day and hour. A motion for the adjournment of a debate shall be in the form "That the debate on this question be now adjourned to," followed by words indicating the day and hour.

33. Ordinarily, a meeting or debate shall only be adjourned to the day following the meeting, Sunday being a *dies non*.

34. No amendment shall be moved to a motion for adjournment of a meeting or debate, except one substituting a different day or hour.

35. A meeting or debate renewed after adjournment shall be deemed one with that which preceded the adjournment.

36. A motion to pass to the next business shall be in the form "That the meeting do now pass to the next business on the agenda paper" and may be moved at any time but not so as to interrupt a speech. If the motion be carried, the motion under discussion together with any amendments to it shall drop.

37. A motion for dissolution of a meeting shall be in the form "That this meeting do now dissolve," and may be made at any time, but not so as to interrupt a speech. If such a motion be carried, the business still before the meeting shall drop, and the Chairman shall declare the meeting dissolved.

38. No motion under regulation 23 ii, iii, iv, shall be made or seconded by any Fellow who, during the discussion of any particular item of business, has already made or seconded any one of such motions.

39. Any motion made under regulation 23 ii, iii, iv, shall take precedence of any question that may be before the meeting, and, if not withdrawn, must be disposed of before such question.

40. When any motion under regulation 23 ii, iii, iv, has been brought forward and has been negatived, no other motion of the same kind shall be again brought forward until after the lapse of what the Chairman shall deem a reasonable time: nor shall any debate or discussion be allowed on such second or subsequent motion brought forward during a debate on the same question.

41. A motion directing the Syndicate or a Faculty to review or reconsider their decision or recommendation may be made at any time during the discussion on any such decision or recommendation, but shall not be made so as to interrupt a speech. The motion shall clearly specify the matter thus referred back to the Syndicate or the Faculty for review or reconsideration and may also indicate generally the sense or direction in which the mover desires alteration in such decision or recommendation. The motion may also include a direction that the Syndicate or the Faculty shall report at the next or at some other meeting of Senate.

42. A motion for the appointment of a committee to consider any question before the Senate at the time shall state the purpose for which the committee is to be constituted and the names of its members.

43. In addition to amendments of which notice has been given in accordance with regulation 13, and subject to the provisions of regulation 15, the following are the only amendments which may be made to any motion brought forward at a meeting of Senate, and of these notice need not be given:—

- i. amendments of a purely verbal or formal kind which, in the opinion of the Chairman, do not affect the sense or import of the motion to which they refer.
- ii. amendments to a motion for a change in the order of business as stated in the agenda paper, substituting an order different from that in the motion.
- iii. amendments to a motion for adjournment of the meeting or debate, substituting a time different from that in the motion.
- iv. amendments to a motion directing the Syndicate or a Faculty to review or reconsider their decision or recommendation.
- v. amendments to a motion for the appointment of a committee, enlarging or restricting its purposes or the questions remitted to it, or adding to or omitting the names of members proposed to form it.
- vi. amendments to a motion remitting any matter to a Faculty or to a Board of Studies.

44. Any motion before a meeting of the Senate may be amended (a) by leaving out a word or words; (b) by leaving out a word or words in order to add or insert some other word or words in their place; (c) by adding or inserting a word or words.

45. When the amendment is of the first kind, the form in which it is proposed and handed to the Chair shall be "That the words (*mentioning them*) be left out of the motion." When the amendment is of the second kind the form shall be "That the words (*mentioning them*) be added or inserted instead." When the amendment is of the third kind, the form shall be "That the words (*mentioning them*) be added (or inserted)" and there shall then follow words specifying the place in which the words mentioned are to be added or inserted.

46. No amendment shall be proposed which would reduce a motion to its negative or opposite form, or which would alter the first word.

47. Every amendment must be relevant to the motion to which it refers and must be framed so as to form therewith an intelligible and consistent sentence.

48. No amendment shall be proposed which substantially raises a question already disposed of by the meeting or is inconsistent with or adverse to any resolution already passed by the meeting.

49. An amendment, the substance of which has been disposed of in part, may be modified by its proposer so as to retain only the part not so disposed of.

50. The order in which amendments to a motion are to be brought forward shall be determined by the Chairman.

51. An amendment must be seconded in the same way as a motion: otherwise it shall drop.

52. When an amendment has been moved and seconded it shall, unless ruled out of order, be stated from the Chair, and the debate may then proceed on the motion and amendment together.

53. When, on a motion to which there is no amendment, the debate is concluded or if there is no debate, the Chairman shall put the question to the vote by saying "The question is," followed by the words of the motion, and the Senate shall then divide unless the Chairman ascertains that the question is carried affirmatively by a unanimous vote. If there is an amendment, he shall say "It has been moved," followed by the words of the motion: then he shall say "Since which it has been moved by way of amendment" followed by the words of the amendment: and then, if the amendment is one of the first two kinds, he shall put the question by saying "Shall the words (or word) proposed to be left out be retained?" If the amendment is of the second kind, he shall put the question by saying "Shall the following words or word be left out in order to add or insert the following words or word?" If the amendment is of the third kind, he shall put the question by saying "Shall those words be there added (or inserted)?" If an amendment is negatived, the original motion shall be again stated from the chair, and, subject to the foregoing regulations, any other amendment which is in order shall then be proposed thereto. If an amendment is carried, the motion as amended shall be stated from the chair and may then be debated as a substantive motion to which the further amendments to the original motion may, subject to the foregoing regulations, be proposed, and such further amendments shall be disposed of in the same manner as the first or original amendment.

54. No motion or amendment shall be withdrawn from the decision of the meeting without its unanimous consent: but this consent shall be presumed if the mover states his wish to withdraw the motion or amendment and the Chairman, after an interval during which no dissent is expressed, announces that it is withdrawn.

55. Any motion or amendment standing in the name of a Fellow who is absent from the meeting, or who declines to move it, may be moved by any other Fellow.

56. The Fellow who first rises to speak at the conclusion of a speech has the right to be heard. In cases of competition, the Chairman shall decide who is in possession of the meeting.

57. Except as hereinafter provided a Fellow having spoken to a motion or amendment, is not at liberty to speak again to such motion or amendment.

58. In so far as the question raised by an amendment is one on which he has not previously spoken, any Fellow may speak to that question, though he has spoken to the original question or a previous amendment.

59. When the Chairman has ascertained that no other Fellow entitled to address the meeting desires to speak, the mover of the original motion may reply upon the whole debate. But the mover of an amendment or of any motion under regulations 23, iii, iv, v, vi has no right of reply. No Fellow shall speak to a question after the mover has entered on his reply.

60. The Chairman has the same right of moving or seconding or speaking to a motion or amendment as any other Fellow, but he shall vacate the Chair while so engaged, and the Chair shall during such time be taken by the senior Fellow present not being the Chairman. Without leaving the Chair, the Chairman may, however, at his discretion or at the request of any Fellow, explain to the meeting the scope of any motion or amendment.

61. Any Fellow may, even whilst another is speaking, rise to explain any misconception of expressions used by him, but he shall confine himself strictly to such explanation.

62. Any Fellow may call the Chairman's attention to a point of order even whilst another Fellow is speaking, but no speech shall be made on such point of order.

63. The Chairman shall be the sole judge on any point of order, and may call any Fellow to order, and shall have power to take such action as may be necessary to enforce his decision.

Under Regulation 22 which specified the motions which might be proposed at meetings of the Senate without previous notice, the following was inserted as VI-A "A motion for the Senate to resolve itself into Committee."

The following further regulations were passed in connection with the same subject:—

37. A motion that when the Senate do resolve itself into Committee it must specify the item or items of business to be considered in Committee.

60. At meetings of the Senate in Committee proceedings shall be governed by the foregoing regulations framed for debate, except that no notice need be given of motions or amendments, that no motion or amendment need be seconded, and that every speaker may speak on any subjects as often as he chooses.

61. The resolutions passed at meetings of the Senate in Committee shall be embodied in a report by the Registrar to be laid before the Senate at a subsequent meeting, but shall not become final unless they are confirmed by the Senate.

FACULTIES.

The Senate shall be divided into four Faculties, namely, Arts, Law, Medicine, Engineering.

The Faculties shall have precedence among themselves in the order named in the foregoing regulation.

Every Fellow shall be assigned by order of the Senate to one or other of the Faculties at the meeting of the Senate next after his becoming a Fellow.

Each Faculty shall elect one of its members to be President of the Faculty. Within one month after the occurrence of a vacancy in the office of President of a Faculty, the Registrar shall send to each member of the Faculty an intimation of the vacancy and also a voting paper. The voting paper shall be returned by the member so as to reach the Registrar not later than the fourteenth day after the date of posting the intimation. Two Fellows appointed for the purpose by the Vice-Chancellor shall scrutinize and count the votes, and communicate the result of their scrutiny and count to the Vice-Chancellor. The Vice-Chancellor shall thereupon declare the member who has the highest number of votes to be the President. In the event of an equality of votes the Vice-Chancellor shall have a casting vote. The Registrar shall communicate the result of the election to the members of the Faculty.

The President of a Faculty shall, if he remain qualified to do so, hold office for three years, on

the expiry of which he shall vacate office, but shall be eligible for re-election.

During the temporary absence of the President of a Faculty, or in the interval between the vacating of office by a President and the election of his successor, the Vice-Chancellor shall nominate a member of the Faculty, who shall for the time being and so far as may be necessary act as President of the Faculty.

7-A. :—That the elected members of the Syndicate shall vacate their seats in a body when by two-thirds majority of those present and voting, the following motion has been carried in an extraordinary meeting of the Senate:—That the Syndicate no longer possesses the confidence of the Senate. In this event, the election of the new Syndicate shall take place according to the procedure in the case of the first Syndicate election under Section 15 of the Universities Act, 1904.

8. It shall be the duty of the Syndicate:

- i. to administer the property of the University on behalf and subject to the control of the Senate.
- ii. to keep the accounts of the University and to submit them to such inspection and audit as the Government may direct:
- iii. to correspond on the business of the University with the Government and with all other authorities and persons:
- iv. to appoint examiners, and to cancel any such appointment, and to define their duties and powers and to fix their remuneration:
- v. to notify and make arrangements in accordance with the regulations of the University for the election of Ordinary Fellows by the Faculties or by registered graduates, and for the election of the Syndicate:
- vi. to recommend to the Senate the assignment to a Faculty of any Fellow recently elected or nominated:
- vii. to make due provision for examinations being conducted in accordance with the regulations of the University, and for the supervision of such examinations, and to fix the remuneration of Superintendents:

8-A. The Syndicate shall have power:

- i. to appoint, suspend, punish, or dismiss any servant of the University other than the Registrar:
- ii. to nominate University Professors and Lecturers, to define their duties and fix their

remuneration, and to report any such proposed arrangements to the Senate for its sanction :

- iii. to recommend to the Senate that any person shall be admitted as a candidate to any University examination without the certificate or certificates required by the regulations for admission to that examination :
- iv. to dispense with a strict compliance with the regulations of the University in so far as relates to the time, place, and manner of examinations, or to the time and manner of conducting any election : provided that any resolution of the Syndicate passed in reference to such departure from recognized procedure shall be reported to the Senate at its next meeting, together with a full statement of the special grounds upon which the Syndicate acted :
- v. to refer any matter to a Faculty or Board of Studies for consideration and to call upon the Faculty or Board for a report thereon :
- vi. to draft such regulations as may, from time to time, be necessary, and to submit them to the Senate for approval :
- vii. to make its own standing orders and, subject to the regulations of the University, to regulate the disposal of its own business.

Regulations 9 to 13 were not moved and were therefore omitted.

14. Any Faculty or Fellow shall be at liberty to submit any question to the Syndicate for its consideration and subsequently to bring before the Senate the decision of the Syndicate thereon, with a view to its modification or annulment.

15. The Syndicate shall prepare annually a report on its work and shall submit the same to the Senate at its meeting in the month of October.

11. A Faculty shall have power :

- i. to consider and report on any matter referred to it by the Senate or Syndicate.
- ii. to draft regulations in regard to courses of study and examinations prescribed by the University, and to lay such regulations before the Syndicate in order that they may be brought before the Senate.

iii. to appoint a committee of the Faculty for any purpose within the cognizance or powers of the Faculty :

iv. to hold meetings of the Faculty or a committee of the Faculty along with any other Faculty or a committee thereof, for the discussion of any matter of common interest.

12. The meetings of a Faculty shall be convened by the President of the Faculty at such times as may be necessary or on the written request of any three members of the Faculty.

13. Any member of a Faculty may bring before any meeting of the Faculty any matter within its cognizance by giving notice to the President, who shall, subject to the provisions of Regulation 11, instruct the Registrar to include such matter in the agenda paper of the next meeting of the Faculty.

14. The President of a Faculty shall, not less than fifteen days' previous to a meeting of the Faculty, cause a notice to be issued to each member of the Faculty, stating the time and place of the meeting, and showing all the business to be brought before the meeting. No matter or business which is not entered on the agenda paper of a meeting of a Faculty shall be considered at the meeting, provided that the President may, for reasons of urgency bring any matter before any meeting without notice being given in the agenda paper ; and provided that any member may, with the permission of a majority of the members present at a meeting, bring any matter before that meeting without notice.

15. Subject to the foregoing regulations the procedure at meetings of Faculties shall be in general accordance with the regulations in regard to procedure at meetings of the Senate. With regard to any point of order or matter of procedure, the decision of the Chairman shall be final.

16. The President of a Faculty shall preside at all meetings of the Faculty, but in his absence, the members present shall elect a Chairman from among themselves.

17. The quorum for a meeting of a Faculty shall be one-third of the members of the Faculty.

[Regulations 18 and 19 were deferred.]

20. The Syndicate may refer back to a Faculty for reconsideration, any resolution passed by the Faculty : otherwise, where the nature of the resolution calls for it, the Syndicate shall lay the resolution before the Senate at its next meeting.

21. The proceedings at each meeting of a Faculty shall be communicated by the Registrar to the Syndicate.

ELECTION OF ORDINARY FELLOWS BY GRADUATES.

Subject to the provision of Section 6, Sub-section 4 of the Universities Act 1904 and to any directions of the Chancellor in accordance with Section 9, Sub-section 2, the Faculties of Arts, Law, Medicine and Engineering shall be entitled to elect 4, 2, 2 and 2 persons respectively as Fellows of the University.

ELECTION OF FELLOWS BY FACULTIES.

2. In the event of vacancies amongst Fellows elected under Section 12, Clause (c), the first two shall be filled up by the Faculty of Medicine, the next two by the Faculty of Engineering, the next four by the Faculty of Arts and the last two by the Faculty of Law.

3. If in any year any vacancy occur among the Fellows elected by Faculties, the Syndicate shall cause a notification of the fact to be published in the *Fort Saint George Gazette*, and shall, at the same time, announce the day appointed by the Chancellor for the election, the hours between which votes may be recorded, and, in the event of there being more than one, the number of such vacancies. The date of the notification shall be not less than fourteen days previous to the date so appointed.

4. The Syndicate shall appoint two Fellows to co-operate with the Registrar in the supervision of the election.

5. The Registrar shall, not later than the date of the publication of the notification made in accordance with regulation, 3, forward to each member of each Faculty which is required to elect a Fellow or Fellows a voting paper, together with a notice stating the number of vacancies and the date of the election. Should it be necessary to secure that the vacancy (or one or more of them if there be more vacancies than one) be filled by a person following the profession of education, or should the Chancellor have given any directions prescribing the qualifications of the persons to be elected in accordance with Section 9 (2) of the Indian Universities Act, 1904, the notice shall draw attention to the fact.

6. The number of persons for whom each member of a Faculty may vote may be less, but shall not be more, than the number of vacancies notified and any voting paper which contains votes for any number of persons in excess of the number of vacancies shall be rejected.

The remaining three regulations were deferred.

REGISTRATION OF GRADUATES.

1. The Syndicate shall maintain a Register on which any graduate who has :

- (a) taken the degree of Master or Doctor in any Faculty, or
- (b) graduated in any Faculty not less than ten years before registration,

shall be entitled to have his name entered and retained, subject to the regulations following.

2. Any graduate satisfying the conditions of Regulation 1, who wishes to have his name entered on the Register shall fill up a form of application, obtainable from the Registrar, and shall forward the same to the Registrar along with the initial fee of Rupees five and either the first annual fee of two Rupees or a composition fee of Rupees ten. The Syndicate shall thereupon cause his name to be entered on the Register if he be qualified to have his name so entered : provided that his application form and fees have been received by the Registrar on or before the ninth day of September 1907, or not more than one year from the date on which he becomes entitled to registration under Regulation 1, whichever is the later date. The date on which a graduate has taken a degree or graduated in any Faculty shall be the date on which the degree was conferred upon him in Convocation.

3. Any graduate who is entitled to registration under Regulation 1, but who fails to apply for the same before the expiry of the period specified in Regulation 2, shall, in order that his name be entered upon the Register, pay, in addition to the fees prescribed in Regulation 2, all arrears of annual fees reckoned from the 9th September 1907 or from the expiry of one year after the date on which he became entitled to registration under Regulation 1, whichever be the later date.

4. Any graduate whose name has been entered on the Register under Regulation 2 or 3, and who has paid the composition fee of Rupees ten shall not be liable for any further payments in order that his name may be retained on the Register for life.

5. Any graduate whose name has been entered on the Register under Regulation 2 or 3, but who has not paid the composition fee of Rupees ten shall have his name retained on the Register until the 1st September following the date or registration. Subsequent retention of his name shall depend on the payment of two Rupees on or before the 1st September following the date or registration and in each succeeding year the payment of two Rupees on or before 1st September.

ber in each year. Should any such registered graduate fail to pay the annual fee on or before the prescribed date, his name shall be removed from the Register, but it may be re-entered there on payment of all arrears of annual fees.

6. Any graduate, at any time while his name is on the Register, shall become entitled to the retention of his name on the Register for life by the payment to the Registrar of a composition fee of Rupees ten.

The Registrar shall send to each graduate qualified under clause (a) or (b) of Regulation 1 as soon as convenient, after he so qualifies himself a copy of the relations regulating to the registration of graduates, inviting his attention.

ELECTION OF ORDINARY FELLOWS BY REGISTERED GRADUATES.

1. If in any year any vacancy occur among the Fellows elected by registered graduates, the Syndicate shall cause a notification of the fact to be published in the *Fort Saint George Gazette*, and shall, at the same time, announce the day appointed by the Chancellor for the election, the hours between which votes may be recorded, and, in the event of there being more than one, the number of such vacancies. The date of the notification shall be not less than fourteen days previous to the date so appointed.

2. The Syndicate shall appoint two Fellows, to co-operate with the Registrar in the supervision of the election.

3. The Registrar shall, not later than the date of the publication of the notification made in accordance with Regulation 1, forward to each registered graduate a voting paper, together with a notice stating the number of vacancies and the date of the election.

4. The only persons eligible for election are graduates whose names are on the Register at the date of the notification published in accordance with Regulation 1. The number of persons for whom each registered graduate may vote may be less but shall not be more than the number of vacancies notified and any voting paper which contains votes for a number of persons in excess of the number of such vacancies shall be rejected.

5. Voters resident in the City of Madras shall fill in their voting papers at the Senate House on the day and within the hours notified in accordance with Regulation 1 and in the presence of one of the two Fellows appointed by the Syndicate in accordance with Regulation 2, and shall thereafter deposit them in the ballot-box provided for

the purpose. No such voting paper shall be deposited in the ballot-box after the expiry of the time notified in Regulation 1.

BOMBAY UNIVERSITY SENATE.

THE FACULTIES QUESTION.

A meeting of the Senate of the Bombay University was held on the 16th September 1905, in the Sir Jehangir Cowasji Hall, the Rev. Dr. D. Mackichan, Vice-Chancellor, presiding.

CONSTITUTION OF FACULTIES.

Consideration was given to the report of the Committee submitting draft regulations relating to the constitution and functions of the Senate, the Faculties, the Syndicate, Board of Accounts, Boards of Studies, and the Registrar.

Principal W. H. Sharp had given notice of his intention to propose that the report of the Committee be adopted. A number of amendments had been sent in against this proposition, and the regulations mainly affected by them were: 3, 5 and 11.

The regulations were as follows:—

"At a convenient time, soon after the appointment of any Fellow, the Syndicate shall, and at any subsequent time the Syndicate may, consider and recommend his appointment to one of the Faculties. Such recommendation shall be considered and adopted or rejected at the next following meeting of the Senate. The Senate shall assign Fellows to their respective Faculties according to their Professional Degrees or qualifications, Fellows holding no degrees or qualifications in Medicine, Law or Engineering being assigned to the Faculty of Arts. Provided that, in the case of Fellows holding degrees or qualifications in two different Faculties, it shall be competent to the Senate at the time of election to assign the Fellow to one or the other Faculty.

"There shall be four Faculties, namely of Arts, Law, Medicine and Civil Engineering. Except as provided for in section 14, sub-section 2, clause (b) of the Indian Universities Act of 1904, every member of the Senate shall be a member of only one Faculty;

"The executive government of the University shall be vested in a Syndicate consisting of the Vice-Chancellor, the Director of Public Instruction, and ten Fellows, who shall be elected for one year by the several Faculties in the following proportions:—

"Four by the Faculty of Arts, one of whom shall be elected separately to represent the Physical and Experimental Sciences;

"Two by the Faculty of Law; two by the Faculty of Medicine; and two by the Faculty of Civil Engineering;

"The elections shall take place in the following order:—Medicine, Engineering, Law and Arts. Except in the Faculty of Law, one-half of the elected representatives shall be Heads or Professors of Colleges in the respective Faculties and in the Faculty of Arts such a number of Heads or Professors of Colleges shall be elected as may be necessary to fulfil the statutory requirement, etc."

Principal Sharp, in moving his proposition for the adoption of the report, said there were three contentious points with regard to the report: firstly, the constitution of the Faculties, secondly, the number of Faculties, and thirdly, the constitution of the Syndicate. With reference to the constitution of the Faculties it had been the practice in the past to appoint a good many of the Fellows to more Faculties than one. This applied especially to the lawyers for the reason that under their rules a graduate in Law must be a graduate in Arts. The number of other persons who were affected by this system was not great. The B. A., LL.B.'s had, as a rule been assigned to both the Faculties of Law and Arts, and in that way they had been enjoying the double franchise to vote for the Law Syndics and Arts Syndics. The result was that there was a large preponderance of lawyers among the Arts and Law Syndics. He thought in the ordinary course of things the bulk of Arts Syndics should be made up of men who had been connected with the work of teaching in their schools and colleges, and he did not see why professional teachers were not competent to elect their own representatives, as lawyers and doctors. It was usually assumed in discussing this question that an Arts man was a worthless and incompetent individual, while a lawyer was a brilliant genius of wide culture and great attainments. He heard Sir Pherozechah Mehta once say that college professors might do well for teaching, but were totally incompetent to manage the affairs of the University.

Sir Pherozechah denied that he had ever made such a statement.

Continuing, Mr. Sharp asked why should a brilliant Arts man have one vote, whilst an ordinary lawyer—he would not say a worthless and inferior lawyer—should have two? Was it not inconsistent? The answer would be that a lawyer had double qualifications. But what did his second qualification amount to?

Sir Pherozechah: It is for the Senate to decide that.

XI

Mr. Sharp maintained that it was an invidious duty to be cast upon the Syndicate to recommend to the Senate that a particular individual deserved to be assigned to two Faculties. There were, of course, brilliant exceptions, but under the new Act such men could be called upon to give their advice by co-optation to any of the Faculties that required their assistance. Referring to the question of the number of Faculties, Mr. Sharp said in the committee a proposal was made to add the Faculty of Science to the existing four Faculties. It was opposed on the ground that such a Faculty would be very small. It could not be constituted except at the expense of the Engineering Faculty, which was already very small. Sir Pherozechah had told them in the Committee that he was a member of a committee which was considering a scheme to encourage the growth of Science. The report of that committee had since been out, and he found that the scheme referred to had come to nothing. The same objection applied to the proposed Faculty of Commerce. He thought the number of Fellows in that Faculty would be so small that Mr. Aiyar would have practically the whole Faculty to himself, unless Mr. Padhye chose to join him there. (Laughter). Coming to the number of Syndics, Mr. Sharp said the object of the Syndicate was not to supply many seats for the members of the legal profession, but to conduct the business of the University, and it seemed to him that for the prompt transaction of business it was advisable to keep the number of Syndics small, consistent with the proper representation of the Faculties. However, it was for the Senate to say whether they accepted that view or not.

Professor K. D. Naigumwalla seconded the proposition.

Amendments dealing with Draft Regulations 3 and 5 were then taken up.

AMENDMENTS.

Principal F. G. Selby moved an amendment that in the first sentence of Regulation 3 after the word "one" the words "or more" be added; that in the same Regulation, the third sentence beginning with the words "The Senate" and ending with the word "Faculty" be omitted; and that in Regulation 5 the words "only one Faculty" at the end be omitted and that the following words be substituted in their stead:—"at least one Faculty and may be a number of more than one Faculty."

Principal Selby said it seemed to him that it was very obviously to the interest of the University to invest all its departments with the services of those who were competent to serve them. He had not yet heard an argument that a mere pos-

session of professional qualification disqualified a man for the Arts Faculty. The history of the University proved that many of the most useful members of the Senate, and of the Arts Faculty, had been gentlemen, who besides possessing high qualifications in Arts, also possessed legal qualification and he would consider it a matter of regret if in future the Faculty of Arts were deprived of the services of men of this class. If there was a lawyer, who was at the same time a scholar and who could equally serve the Faculties of Arts and Law, he did not see why either of the Faculties should be deprived of his services. It was not compulsory upon the Senate to assign a Fellow to more than one Faculty, and he had no reason to suppose that a member of any professional Faculty would try to thrust himself upon the Faculty of Arts, simply because he was a member of a profession. Principal Sharp asked why any man should have two votes when he had only one. The simple answer to that question was that the man, who had two qualifications, should also have two votes. It was urged that it would be invidious to pronounce that some men were fit for inclusion into two Faculties and some were not. But such a question had never arisen in the past. The matter was argued as if it were a question of privilege. He regarded it as a matter of rights,—rights of men who had necessary qualifications for two places. Again, he had never heard an argument which had convinced him that the system in the past had worked in such a manner as to necessitate a change now. When a man had enjoyed a right for very many years and that right had not been abused by him he did not see why it should be taken away from him. The question was whether they should continue to give to or take away from certain gentlemen, who had enjoyed the right for nearly half a century to the profit of the University? He had always stated from the time the question of University reforms had been raised, that he would not take away a single thing that had been granted to anybody, unless it was proved that it had worked to the harm of the University. (Hear, hear). They all knew that on this question of University reforms there existed a bitterness of feelings. It was unnecessary bitterness, but he thought it was now time that it should subside and they should inaugurate their reforms in a spirit of harmony. The committee, he thought, were beginning an era of reforms by implanting in the middle of the Senate a powerful minority, which would be discontented, because it would be labouring under a sense of grievance and injustice. He would not encourage an inauguration of reforms in that way, for it would stimulate opposition which would be permanent and everlasting.

The Hon. M. Justice Chandravarkar seconded the amendment.

The Hon. Mr. Justice B. Tyabji said after hearing both sides it did not seem to him that they would be deprived of the services of their eminent colleagues, if either the proposition or the amendment was carried. Undoubtedly it had been the fact that for many years past eminent lawyers, who held also eminent degrees in Arts, had been appointed to both the Faculties. It had been pointed out by Principal Selby that the onus lay upon those who wanted to recede from the established practice. But he thought they ought to go upon the principle that ordinarily no man, even if he possessed two degrees, should be assigned to two Faculties. It was only in special cases that Fellows should be placed in two Faculties. He suggested that an addition might be made in the regulation in question that on special reasons having been shown a Fellow might be assigned to two Faculties.

The Vice-Chancellor ruled that the amendment suggested by Mr. Tyabji could not be allowed under the rules.

Mr. J. J. Modi moved an amendment that the consideration of the subject be adjourned till the 28th instant, so that steps might be taken to give effect to the compromise suggested by Mr. Tyabji.

The Rev. Father Dreckmann seconded the amendment, which was lost.

Dr. Sorab K. Nariman was in favour of Principal Selby's amendment. He thought the interests of the Engineering Faculty would suffer most if the present practice of assigning some Fellows to two Faculties was done away with. If Principal Sharp's proposition was carried, there would be only nine members left in the Faculty of Engineering, and if according to the rules one-fifth of the members were to form the quorum, sometimes there would be meetings of two Fellows only, and the Chairman would carry everything before him by his casting vote. (Laughter). In the past, out of thirty or thirty-five members of the Engineering Faculty only four or five members had frequently met to discuss and decide important questions, and if the numbers were still reduced, the result would be disastrous.

The Vice-Chancellor here vacated his seat for the purpose of addressing the meeting, the Rev. Father Dreckmann occupying the chair in the meantime.

SPECIFIC PROVISIONS OF THE ACT.

The Vice-Chancellor said it seemed to him that the issue had been a good deal confused in the

discussion that evening. With a great deal that had been said upon both sides of this question they were all in entire agreement. None of them disputed the attainments of the members of the Legal Faculty in other departments of study besides that of their particular profession, and none of them were disposed to minimise the services which any such gentlemen might have rendered in the past to the University. It seemed to him that many of the members who had spoken that evening had forgotten that this Act had specifically provided for such a case as had been referred to. He considered that the provision of co-optation, which would enable one Faculty to call into requisition the assistance of the members of any other Faculty, would completely meet the case before them. The only difference would be that the Fellows, whose services would thus he sought would not have a right to take part in the election of Syndics. He asked, was there no gentleman in the Law Faculty, so public-spirited and disinterested, who would not give the benefit of his knowledge, to the Arts Faculty? There was not the slightest difficulty in the matter, unless they supposed that without the privilege of taking part in the election of the Syndics no member of one Faculty was willing to serve on another. This was a matter in which a higher stand-point should be taken by members. Was it not sufficient that each member had his vote in the election of the Syndicate? The Syndicate was a representative body of the Senate, and he submitted that it would not be representative of the Senate, if any member of the Senate had more than a single vote for the election of the Syndicate. It would not represent the Senate as a body, but it would represent only certain Sections of it more than others. Appeals had been made to the traditions of the University, but he felt confident that the University would not suffer anything by the adoption of the proposition. He submitted they should not be tied down by the practice of the past. He was afraid that the Bombay Senate from its enormous size often came to be quoted as one of the serious grounds for reforms. They were the largest Senate in India. If they claimed that everything in the past must be continued, he would say they betrayed a most thorough-going Toryism or conservatism that he had ever come in contact with. The Hon. Sir Pherozeshah Mehta said it had been quite refreshing to himself and to most of the members present there that they had come to recognise in the Vice-Chancellor a Red Radical, while Principal Selby was a Tory of Tories. He had read the debates that took place in the Viceroy's Council on the Universities Bill and he remembered that the framer and the introducer of the Bill distinctly acknowledged that if the demand

for reform rested only upon the action of the Bombay University, there was no necessity for it. Anybody who read those debates would at once find that it was thoroughly felt that if the Bombay University stood alone with its past traditions, in all probabilities the Universities Reform Bill would never have seen the light of the day. He thought the Vice-Chancellor had not comprehended the principle upon which Principal Selby based his argument. The Principal had shown by his argument that when a system had existed for nearly half a century and was not shown to have led to mischievous results, then burden of proof of the contrary lay on those who wanted to alter that system. He submitted that the system which had stood the test successfully for half a century should not be abrogated unless a very strong case was made out against it. This was the only right and straightforward way of approaching the question. The Vice-Chancellor had failed in discharging the burden of showing that the system had worked badly and mischievously. All that he had tried to show was that nothing wrong would be done if they accepted the new proposal. The Vice-Chancellor had asked them not to fear that the service of able men would be lost to the Faculties on the ground that the Act provided for co-optation. The power of co-optation was misinterpreted by the Vice-Chancellor. It was given not for the purpose of importing Fellows from one Faculty into another, but for inviting learned men from outside to assist the Faculties in discussing important questions. Sir Pherozeshah in conclusion asked the Senate to pass Principal Selby's amendment.

The amendment was then put to the vote and carried by 41 votes against 23.

26th September.

DRAFT REGULATIONS.

The Senate considered the report of the Committee submitting Draft Regulations in respect of election of ordinary Fellows by registered graduates; election of ordinary Fellows by the Faculties; meetings of the Senate; order of business; rules of debate; election of University officials, &c.; registration of graduates; and election to the Legislative Council and the Municipal Corporation.

The Rev. Father Dreckmann moved that the report of the committee be adopted. He said Sir Pherozeshah Mehta had given notice of an amendment. He had no doubt that the amendment would be carried, but he could not help thinking that no better means could have been devised to show the futility and hopelessness of

their proceedings. The report of the Committee was signed by a majority of the working members—he would not say members of the Committee—and there was only one minute of dissent, which was not of much importance. Now, he found that notices had been given of a number of amendments including one from the Hon. Sir Pheroze Shah. He was sorry to say that though Sir Pheroze Shah was a member of the Committee, he was not present at a single sitting, and the Committee had not the benefit of his advice on a single point. After all that, Sir Pheroze Shah now wanted to discharge his duty by coming down upon them and saying that their report was hopelessly bad and they must do it again. The majority of the Committee did not take the trouble to be present at the meeting, and those who were present spared neither time nor trouble to make as satisfactory a report as they could. He might only add that if committees were to be treated in this manner, he thought very few men would consent to be upon a committee of this Senate.

Principal Sharp seconded the proposition.

The Hon. Sir Pheroze Shah M. Mehta moved an amendment that the report be referred back to the Committee. He thought Father Dreckmann would have done well if he had waited to hear his observations as to the reasons why he had given notice of this amendment, before he commented upon it in the manner he had done. As they know the Committee had been appointed for various purposes, one of them being of an extremely onerous and responsible character, namely, to frame bye-laws with regard to the rules of debate, order of business, &c., which came to about one hundred in number. Their present rules of debate had been framed by a distinguished jurist and a former distinguished member of this Senate, Sir Raymond West. But unfortunately in doing so that gentleman had drawn too much upon the rules of Debate of the British House of Commons. Now the rules of Debate of the House of Commons were framed with a view to meet a variety of minute and important points, which were not likely to arise in a body like the Senate of the Bombay University. Hence the Senate had found their rules extremely unworkable and impracticable in the past. A revision of these rules required very careful consideration. But the Committee entrusted with this important task set to work in a manner which did not suit a man like himself who had various calls upon his time. The Committee held its sittings in rapid succession without consulting the convenience of many of the members and with

the only view of finishing its work within a certain limited time. In the same manner the report was sent to the members within an intimation to sign the same or make a dissenting minute within a prescribed time. This was quite an unusual course. He had served on many committees of organised bodies of the Legislative Council and even of the Viceroy's Council, but he had never in his long experience been called upon to sign a report or submit a minute within a particular date. It was consequently impossible for him to sign a report or submit a minute dealing with such a complicated and important matter as the framing of rules of Debate within the short time given to him. It seemed to him that the subject was of such a character that the time bestowed upon it by the Committee could not result in a satisfactory report, and the only course left was to refer it back to the Committee for a more thorough and satisfactory consideration. He thought that so far as the report of the Committee dealt with the rules of Debate it was necessary that the Committee should be asked to go through it at a greater length. He quite admitted that with regard to other parts of the report, for instance, rules of debate, they might deal with them in shorter time. He might here draw the attention of the Senate to a notice of motion given by Principal Sharp in respect of the reports of the other committees, which asked the Senate to accept the regulations, as framed, for the present, and leave it to the Syndicate or any members of the Senate to bring forward any proposals for their amendment time after time. If it was the view of the Senate that they should adopt that course in connection with the report before the meeting, he was prepared to withdraw his amendment.

The Senate consented to this and many other amendments of which notice had been given, to be withdrawn, and the original proposition with some modifications was carried.

EXAMINATIONS IN LAW.

On the motion of the Hon. Mr. Justice Chandrakar the report of the Committee submitting regulation relating to the Examinations in Laws was adopted with certain modifications.

28th September.

EXAMINATIONS IN ARTS.

Mr. D. G. Padhye moved that the report of the committee submitting draft regulations relating to the examinations in Arts be adopted. Mr. Padhye said he wished that the same kind of procedure, which secured an easy passing of the report of the committee at the meeting held last

Tuesday, would be followed that day, namely, that the report would be passed and the work of reforming it might be done at leisure hereafter. This report had been carefully considered by the committee, and, he hoped, would be accepted by the Senate. Its main features were that for the degree of B. A. two instead of three examinations should be held, each at the interval of two years, and that the group of English and Indian History and Political Economy should be taken away from compulsory subjects, and the group of Roman Law and Jurisprudence and History from the optional subjects. He submitted that these changes were necessary with a view to lessen the burden of studies on the students, who were at present very much overburdened. He said in India it was the Bombay University alone that had still adhered to three sets of examinations.

Principal Paranjpe seconded the proposition.

The amendments were then considered. There were about two dozen amendments, the principal of which were against Regulations 4 to 12. These Regulations were as follows: (4) That there shall be held two examinations after Matriculation during the period of study for a degree in Arts. (5) That the Intermediate Examination be held two years after the Matriculation. (6) That the following shall be the subjects of the Intermediate Examination:—(a) English, 2 papers, and Composition, 1 paper; (b) Second Language (Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Hebrew, Arabic, French, Avesta and Pahlavi, Persian, German), 2 papers; (c) Mathematics—Algebra, Geometry and Trigonometry, 2 papers; (d) Deductive Logic, 1 paper; (e) Physics, 1 paper; (f) History, 1 paper; (7) That the B. A. Examination be held two years after passing the Intermediate Examination. (8) That the following shall be the subjects of the B. A. Examination:—Compulsory: (a) English, 2 papers, and Composition, 1 paper; (b) Second Language (Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Hebrew, Arabic, French, Avesta and Pahlavi, Persian and German), 1 paper, Optional: One of the following groups:—Language and Literature, (b) Mathematics, (c) Physics and Chemistry, (d) Natural Science, (e) Logic and Mental and Moral Philosophy, and (f) History, Political Science and Political Economy. (9) That the following be added to the existing regulations for the M.A. Examination:—That a candidate may take the M.A. degree in more than one subject. (10) That the period of study for the Intermediate Science Examination shall be two years after the Matriculation and that the Examination shall

include the following subjects:—(a) English, the same as at the Intermediate Arts Examination; (b) Mathematics, the same as at the Intermediate Arts Examination with the addition of Statics; (c) Physics; (d) Chemistry; (e) Biology. (11) That the period of study for the Examination for the degree of B.Sc. be two years after passing the Intermediate Science Examination and that it shall include the subjects prescribed at present for the Examination for the degree of B.Sc. with such redistribution as is rendered necessary by the change in the periods of Examination, the Syndicate being requested to appoint a Special Committee for the purpose and to submit the revised course to the Senate. (12) That no oral Examination in Languages be held at any of the Arts Examinations.

Principal F. G. Selby had given notice of an amendment for the omission of Regulations 4 to 8 and 10 to 12 from the committee's report and for the substitution of the present regulations for the previous Intermediate and B. A. Examinations and the Intermediate B. Sc. and the B. Sc. Examinations in their stead. Mr. Selby, however, withdrew his amendment in favour of one to be moved by Principal Sharp.

A similar amendment stood in the name of the Hon. Sir Pheroze Shah M. Mehta. It was as follows:—That Regulations 4—12 in the report of Committee be not approved; and instead thereof, the Senate resolves, (4) That the present Arts regulations 9—5, 9 about the B.A. and B. Sc. degrees be adopted as the new Regulations under Section 25, sub-section 2, clause (n) of the Indian Universities Act.

Sir Pheroze Shah said he had not touched the first three regulations proposed by the committee, but he wanted to make an observation with regard to the recommendation of the committee as to the limit of age fixed for the candidate for the Matriculation examination. He had always been of opinion that it was a mistake in their University regulations that no age had been prescribed (Hear, hear)—and in his evidence before the Universities Commission he had distinctly stated that some limit should be fixed. He was glad that the committee had proposed the limit of fifteen years, though he was in favour of fixing it at a still higher age. (Hear, hear.) On looking at the amendment of which notice had been given by Principal Sharp that it went a little further than that of Principal Selby's inasmuch as Principal Sharp asked for the abolition of viva voce examination, for the removal of Roman History and General Jurisprudence and Roman Law from optional subjects, it seemed to him that when two gentlemen like Principal Selby

and Principal Sharp agreed on a matter of this sort, he must rest content with supporting them without giving his reasons. He was quite willing under the circumstances to withdraw his amendment in favour of Principal Sharp's amendment.

Sir Pherozeshah was granted permission by the meeting to withdraw his amendment.

Principal W. H. Sharp then moved his amendment: (1) That Regulations 4 to 6 be omitted, and that the present regulations in Arts. 9 to 25 be adopted as the regulations under the Universities Act. (2) That propositions 7, 8, 12 be omitted, and that the present regulations in Arts 26 to 34 be adopted in their place, with the following changes: (i) In Regulation 31 (p. 63 of the Calendar for 1905-1906) the omission of "(f) Roman History and General Jurisprudence and Roman Law," and of the two N. B.'s which follow; (ii) In the same Regulation (p. 64 of the Calendar) the omission of the paragraph "In each language.....the 'viva voce' test." (3) That proposition 9 be omitted, and that the present regulations in Arts. 52 to 59 be adopted in its place, with the following addition: To Regulation 56 add the words "On the same conditions a candidate who has already passed the examination may appear on a subsequent occasion in a different branch." (4) That propositions 10, 11 be omitted, and that the present regulations in Arts. 35 to 51 be adopted in their place.

Mr. Sharp said the object of his amendment had been correctly stated by Sir Pherozesha. It was intended to meet what he believed to be the feeling of the majority of the Senate that their current regulations should better be kept for the present subject to any reform hereafter in ordinary course through the Syndicate and Senate.

Principal Selby, in seconding the amendment, said he was strongly in favour of retaining the Previous Examination. Properly speaking the subjects required for that examination ought to form part of a school course, but as it was not possible to teach them in their schools they ought to be taught in Colleges. It was contended that the subject of History or some other subjects should be taken out from the B. A. course, because the present course was burdensome. He had taken the trouble to inquire among his pupils if that were so, and not a single man said that the present course was burdensome. The general opinion among them was that a student of average ability did not only find time to study that course, but had ample time to spare to read some extra books. (Hear, hear.) As to the suggestion to remove History from the course, Mr. Selby thought that under the present political conditions

every Indian student should be made thoroughly acquainted with the history of the English life and English institutions, as the study of that subject produced a civilising effect upon the young student. On this ground he was not prepared to take away History, and political Economy from the B. A. course. There was also a notion among some that the business of the University was to specialise. There seemed to be a general idea that if one had special education it was bound to be thorough, and that a general education was apt to be superficial. He did not agree with that view. In his opinion a general and broad culture should precede specialization, but they knew that there was no University where a student could go for specialization.

The amendment of Mr. Sharp was then put to the vote and carried.

Some of the amendments against the first two regulations were then withdrawn and some were accepted and the whole report thus amended was agreed to.

The Senate adjourned to Wednesday next.

UNIVERSITY EXAMINERS.

NOTE BY MR. JUSTICE MITRA.

The following note on the election of examiners for the Calcutta University has been written by the Hon. Mr. Justice Sarada Charan Mitra:—

With reference to the Circular Letter No. 401, dated the 1st September, 1905, of the Registrar of the Calcutta University, requesting the members of the Senate to recommend competent men to be examiners for the Entrance, F.A., B.A. and B. Sc. Examinations to be held in the year 1906, I beg respectfully to make the following suggestions for the consideration of the members.

2. In recommending gentlemen for examinerships, the first matter undoubtedly to be kept in view is *capacity*. But mere learning or possession of University degrees does not constitute *capacity*. A man may be an excellent classical scholar, but he is not necessarily a good examiner of Indian students in English. A man may be an excellent mathematician, but his idea about the Matriculation Standard may be too high. A good knowledge of the subject-matter of an examination is essential, but is not the only quality as regards competency to examine. A learned scholar is not always an excellent judge. We do not unfrequently find that a less learned scholar is a better judge.

Knowledge of the subject-matter must be accompanied by sound judgment as to the proper

standard, and the standard must be based on the average capacity of the examinees. The average capacity the collective wisdom of the Senate of the University may demand is also an important factor for consideration. The demand of the Senate can never, however, be mathematically definite, and much will depend on the resultant of the average capacity of the examinees and the demand made by the Senate. It seems to me to be very necessary that an examiner should have a correct appreciation of the proper standard, and such appreciation can only be attained by experience in teaching and thorough knowledge of the average capacity of pupils who prepare themselves for a particular examination. He, who has often attempted to convey knowledge up to a certain standard and received responses from the pupils is the best judge of the standard, provided he has also a grip of the requirements of the Senate and a fair knowledge of the subject-matter.

In addition to these, another thing and a very important thing to be kept in view is scrupulous care and thorough honesty in the examiner. He must be beyond suspicion, both as regards industry and honesty in carefully examining the papers submitted to him.

Now, the persons best fitted to be examiners of candidates for the Entrance Examination cannot be raw young men from the University with however high degrees as to proficiency in learning. The men who fulfil the requirements indicated above are the teachers themselves, experienced headmasters and other teachers of high schools, and lecturers and professors of colleges who have served, at least for some time, as headmasters and teachers of high schools. It is curious that we have up to this practically ignored the claims of school teachers to be examiners. We have considered them to be unworthy of being examiners and have thus given them a status in the training line far inferior to headmasters and teachers in European countries. The duties and responsibilities of headmasters are far more onerous than those of professors. Good teachers in Science and Art must be better grounded in the art of teaching than those who perform similar duties in colleges. To be efficient teachers they must not only have a very fair knowledge of the matter to be taught, but also power of conveying it to the pupils and power to maintain discipline. Their duties are certainly not less important to the country than the duties of learned professors. But we have ignored their importance. So great is the indifference we have shown to the position of school teachers

that they are now generally ranked as inferior to even young lecturers in colleges with almost no experience. These latter consider it beneath their dignity to be school teachers. We propose to raise the standard of the Entrance Examination, and we must do all we can to raise the standard of school teachers. The first and one of the most effective means we may adopt to raise the standard of the Entrance Examination will be to have efficient men to be school teachers, and we can have efficient men if only we secure to them a good status in the Education Department. We must recognise their importance.

I fear the Senate of the University is considerably to blame for the present state of things and it is time that we should mend our ways. I would, therefore, suggest that out of 100 examiners that may be required for the Entrance Examination in 1906, 20 per cent., to begin with, should be headmasters or other teachers in the Entrance classes of schools. I think we may easily get 20 men from school teachers who will fulfil the necessary requirements of good examiners. The remaining 80 should be selected from lecturers and professors of colleges, preference being given to those who have a fair amount of school experience.

I have another general remark to make with reference to the appointment of examiners for the Entrance Examination. The examination is conducted in English and the examination of even the papers on the second language requires a fair knowledge of English. I venture to suggest that no one should be appointed an examiner for the Entrance Examination unless he has a fair knowledge of English. Sanskrit scholars, however, excellent as scholars but without sufficient knowledge of English, are not fit to be examiners.

The selection of examiners for the F. A., B. A., and B. Sc. examinations should rest on similar principles. Men who have experience in teaching the F. A., B. A. and B. Sc. classes should always be preferred for the respective examinations, and a certain percentage should be selected from the existing batch of lecturers.

Lastly, I would submit that none but those who have devoted themselves to the work of teaching in Arts or Science subjects should be recommended for examinership. Examinerships in Arts are not unfrequently sought as a means of support during the first few hard years of struggle in other professions. Persons who are, to all intents and purposes, members of professions other than teaching, lecture for a few hours in the Arts colleges on a small pay simply with a

view to get examinerships. Some are appointed examiners even without being nominal lecturers.

We should, if possible, confine our selection to those who are *bonâ fide* in the Education Department. The little encouragement we can afford to teachers by the appointment of examiners should be confined to such men as have devoted themselves to the bringing up of our boys and young men. Those who have adopted the teachers' or the literary profession are as a rule not sufficiently remunerated notwithstanding the important service they render to the country. Our best men desire to join other departments simply for economical considerations, and the Senate of the Calcutta University should do all it can to induce some of them at least to join the Education Department, and devote themselves to the very important work of educating our youths.

OUR ENGLISH LETTER.

CAMBRIDGE, September 1905.

The year's meeting of the British Association has been held in South Africa, and has provided the usual subjects for gossip more or less scientific. On this occasion two of the delegates have added to the ordinary crop of sensations by marrying each other. Some of the scientific papers have been more than usually interesting; and in the educational section there has been at least one paper that has been quite out of the common. This paper is by Mr. Way, the Head-Master of the Graaf Reinet School, and it is pessimistic to a degree; so much so, indeed, as in some measure to defeat its own object. Mr. Way sees no future, and very little present, for education in South Africa. The weather, to begin with, is far too genial. 'In South Africa, where all Nature smiles without, a library is a prison and books are fetters, and so there is no real love of literature in the country, no taste for poetry, and little real culture.' Should a boy, in spite of this obstacle, endeavour to cultivate his mind he finds little encouragement at home, for his father never talks of anything but the weather and the crops. A third hindrance—and here Mr. Way is on surer ground—is the daily sight of a human population ignorant, subject, and despised; for nothing, in spite of the examples of Greece and Rome, is so fatal to culture as the presence in large numbers of such a population. From the Southern States of America, from the West Indies, and from Africa how little that is enduring in literature or art has proceeded! Liberty and culture go hand in hand.

To despise one's neighbour is the sure way to the mental degradation of oneself.

Sir William Anson's annual statement in Parliament on the condition of education was made on the first of August. As such statements so often are, it was perhaps more remarkable for what it left out than for what it put in. It will be remembered that the County Council of West Ham revolted against the Act of 1902 on the ground of intolerable expense. The revolt was checked by the promise of the Government, through that staunch conservative educationalist, Mr Ernest Gray, to deal with the matter, and how is it dealt with? By refusing to supply school-places for children under five. The saving thus made is £850,000, which sounds something, but really, when examined, merely amounts to a reduction of three half-pence in the West Ham rates, and, of course, the babies must be provided for somehow. *Orèches* will have to be established; and how then will the rates be relieved? In all probability they will be considerably aggravated.

Nor was there in the speech a single word on the West Riding of Yorkshire, whose quarrel with the Act is almost a portent, on Passive Resistance, on the steady antagonism of Wales. Sir William indeed, was somewhat like those pagan historians of Rome who, in giving the life of Constantine the Great, contrived to avoid all reference to his conversion to Christianity, or like those Saxon chronicles which give every event of importance in the year 1066 except the Battle of Hastings. Yet, as Mr. Lloyd-George was quick to remind him, there is a good deal to be said on the subject. There have been now no fewer than fifty thousand Passive Resisters in England alone, many of whom have suffered imprisonment more than once rather than recognise the Act of 1902. And the revolt in Wales shows no sign of dying down. A day or two ago, at a great meeting in Cardiff, it was resolved that the whole force of the Principality should be applied if necessary to support Merioneth in its resistance to the Board of Education. A second school has just been opened in that county in accordance with Mr. Lloyd-George's scheme; fifty-four children were withdrawn from a non-provided school, and are now taught in the vestry of a chapel. Others will shortly follow. To ignore all this is simply childish; and, indeed, the whole speech was rather the deliverance of a skilful advocate, primed by one side, than the statesmanlike utterance we have a right to expect from the head of a great Government department.

I wrote a little time ago about 'The Hill,' Mr. Vachell's novel dealing with Harrow. One point

to be noticed in that book was that it entirely avoided *school hours*, which after all are not a negligible quantity in a schoolboy's life. The master as a house-holder and general manager was not ignored; the master as a teacher was forgotten. We have now, in the 'Lipton Letters,' a work in which, amid much other matter, there is throughout present the *teacher*. The author, who calls himself T.B., is obviously a public-schoolmaster of the best kind, original in his ideas, religious in life, kindly in feeling, and fully conscious of the nobility of his profession. But he feels also the disadvantages and obstacles that in England hamper him at every turn; the dead weight of tradition, the waste of time upon classical study (waste, not in all cases, but in many), the tyranny of examinations, and last, but by no means least, the reticence of school-boys which makes it so difficult to influence them for good. A school boy will far rather be thought bad than good; his one aversion is the 'pi' man or the 'pi' boy: his code of honour is simple, but dangerously false; his ideal is the boy who is good at games; and he knows no commandment binding on him except the opinion of his companions. 'T.B.' talks of all this with perfect frankness, and makes (incidentally) suggestions which, if carried out, might mitigate the evils. It is a pity that, as the book itself tells us, a man of such ideas and evident power should have felt compelled to refuse a place of wider influence. Still, his book, if read as it deserves to be, may spread his influence even wider than it could have extended even if he had become the Head-Master he was asked to be.

Another book that has recently attracted considerable attention is Mr. Lionel Portman's 'Hugh Rendal'—a story, like 'The Hill,' in which an actual school is (more or less exactly) described. It would seem that Mr. Portman is, alas! sceptical as to the truth of the common assumption that bullying has ceased in schools. The interest that these and other works dealing with school boys have aroused is a healthy sign of the times; and it is to be hoped that it will not stop short at mere interest, but will lead to action. Still more hopeful is the fact that that excellent paper, the *Westminster Gazette*, has seen fit to devote a whole page of its Saturday issue, for several weeks running, to a series of articles—by no means *ad captandum* in style—on educational topics, written by an expert, and showing considerable originality and power of thought.

The death of Dr. D. B. Monro, Provost of Oriel College, Oxford, demands notice here. He

XI

had been Provost since 1883, and virtual head of the college for several years previously; for Dr. Haykins, who was elected by the influence of Newman in the thirties, had ceased to take direct share in working the college for some time before his death. Dr. Monro had a European reputation as a Homeric scholar, his 'Homeric Grammar' being a work of immense research. He was an almost unique specimen of mixed university don and Scottish laird, being the head of an old Stirlingshire family which traced its ancestry back as far as the Boswells, themselves could trace theirs. He was also remarkable in being almost as good a mathematician as a classic: but he wore all his load of learning as lightly as a flower, and, having a considerable gift of humour, was deservedly popular both with dons and with undergraduates.

The recent issue of the list of 'classical greats' at Oxford is always an interesting event; for, to judge by the analogy of the last forty or fifty years, no twenty or thirty young men are so likely to include men of distinction in the near future as the twenty or thirty men in the first class of 'classical greats.' For instance, among the thirty first classes in 1886 at least fifteen have gained considerable eminence in one branch of literature or another. One good point about the examination is that no excessive attention is paid to 'pure scholarship'—i.e., to minutiae of grammar and composition in the dead languages. Such knowledge, of course, 'pays' in the examination; but its absence does not necessarily disqualify for a first class. For instance, Dean Burgon, coming up late in life, and without the advantage of good school training in the classics, only took a low class in 'Moderations,' but in Finals his native ability forced him to the very front. The same thing repeatedly happens to-day. An analysis of the list by an Oxford M.A. appears in the *Westminster Gazette*. Sixteen candidates who obtained a first class in Moderations in 1903 obtain a first class in 'greats' this year; but twenty only obtain a second. Five, on the other hand, who obtained a second in 1903, and even one who only obtained a fourth, now gain a first class: and, it is probable, will show in the future no less ability than the sixteen who have reached the coveted double honours.

A list of the open scholarships at Oxford and Cambridge gained during the last year shows that as usual St. Paul's is first. On this occasion St. Paul's took no fewer than seventeen, Rugby being nearest with fifteen. No fewer than thirteen times in the last nineteen has St. Paul's headed the list: and this extraordinary run of

success is enough to show what a task lies before the successor of the present High Master, Mr. Walker, who has just resigned.

Reviews and Notices.

COLONIES AND COLONIAL FEDERATIONS, BY E. J. PAYNE: THE ENGLISH CITIZEN (MACMILLAN & Co. 3s. 6d.)

The Earlier volume published in The 'English Citizen' Series was entitled "Colonies and Dependencies" though the truer title would have been "The Dependency and the Colonies." The Dependency is of course India and more than half the book was about India by Mr. J. S. Cotton and Mr. Payne—the author of the book under notice—dealt with the Colonies in 74 pages. We may say perhaps correctly that the relative importance of India and the Colonies was roughly represented by the number of pages accorded to each. A few years pass by—Nobility in Britain says to those in Greater Britain:

Keep you to yourself;

So loyal is too costly! Friends—your love
Is but a burden: loose the bond and go.

Thanks to many influences not the least among which were the Jubilee, the Coronation, the South-African War, and unofficial laureate poems of Kipling, Neo-imperialism is born and

The loyal to this crown

Are loyal to their own far sons, who love
Our ocean empire with her boundless homes,
For ever broadening England.

The change from the time of Sir F. Rogers (later Lord Blackford) who was calmly looking forward to "the eventual parting company on good terms" with the Colonies to the present days when Mr. Joseph Chamberlain is the propagandist of the Imperial idea, is reflected in the increasing attention paid to the Colonies and their affairs. Mr. Payne referring to his Earlier book or part of the book says that much of what he then said on the subject has become obsolete and "in view of the greatly increased importance of the Colonies, the deeper interest which recent events have aroused in all that concerns them, and the gravity of the issues pending in connection with them" the volume before us has been published.

In four chapters the geographical, historical, economic and political aspects of the Colonies are dealt with. The story of the harvest that Britain has reaped where other less lucky races and nations have sown is recounted with pardon-

able pride. Every chapter shows a perfect mastery of up to date knowledge and—what is above all important in such a handbook—a due sense of proportion of things.

The book was written before the fall of Port Arthur and because of the interest attaching to recent events we give the following quotation: "Wei-Hai-Wei, chiefly used as a drill and exercise ground for crews on the China Station, was taken on 'lease' from China in 1898 by the British Government for a term to last as long as Russia's occupation of the opposite peninsula of Liao-tung and fortress of Port Arthur. . . . Russia's occupation of Port Arthur will probably be soon terminated; but should it pass into the hands of some other Power, or revert to the Chinese Empire, the British right of occupying Wei-Hai-Wei will doubtless be retained." A sound prophetic deliverance this.

The writer describes with gusto the belated attempt of Germany to construct a world-empire and its failure because of the disturbance of the vested interests of so many powers. To say that in the dawn of doing it befell

While others slumbered or stretched limbs to rise,
England rose early and made haste to build,

would be giving altogether a superficial account of the Colonial achievements of England. Portugal and Spain were the pioneers and the Colonial successes of England were only possible after the international struggle with Spain, Holland and France and if the Colonial Empire of Britain is great enough to rouse the envy of other powers, its greatness is due to "its traditions of a great historic past, and anticipations, amounting to certainty, of a greater future, to the singular energy with which its economic resources have been and are being developed, to their varied individuality in their social and political aspects, of the members who compose it; and to a pervading and sustaining sense of cohesion among those members, inspired partly by common interests, partly by participation in the blessings of order and liberty derived from a common source, and partly by consciousness of the weight which their union gives them collectively in the affairs of the world at large."

We may or may not approve of everything the writer says, we may reserve our opinion about the nature of British civilisation, about the superiority of which to the 'brain-cram and jack-boot civilisation' and to 'the dollar-for-its-own-sake civilisation' Mr. Payne has no doubt: there can be no question that the book gives a reliable account of Colonial questions on the right desi-

sion of which the future of Britain greatly depends. We only wish that India may have a book dealing as fully with it as the present one deals with the Colonies, and we hope it does not mean that the Colonies are everything to the English Citizen and India nothing.

A CATECHISM OF TAMIL GRAMMAR NO II, BY G. U. POPE, OXFORD, (THE CLARENDON PRESS. 2s. net.)

Just as many a Scotch youth has been bred on the national 'haggis,' so many a Tamil youth has learnt the first elements of Tamil Grammar from the book before us. As the writer knew the book in his younger days it was in less attractive guise. The short English headings which we are glad to find retained will make the students of the language seize readily the connection between English and Tamil Grammar and help them in the mastery of the new language. We do not think the book demands any more detailed notice. A book which has stood the test of nearly half a century has surely deserved publication in the Clarendon Press.

A FEW THOUGHTS ON EDUCATION, BY SIR GOOROO DASS BANERJEE, KT, M. A., D. L. (THACKER, SPINK & Co, CALCUTTA).

Critics of education abound, but students of education are rare. Almost every man dogmatizes on the theory of education and offers cock-sure advice to educationists, often in no polite terms; but how few have qualified themselves for the task by study of educational literature, by observation and reflection? In education, as in politics, anybody is an authority, the expert is not tolerated. Even among teachers it is sad to think how few care to equip themselves with professional knowledge and benefit by the experience of the past. Lost in the narrow grooves of routine, most teachers consider it a waste of time to discuss the aims or methods of teaching and look upon every suggestion of reform as a wanton, if not malicious, attempt to disturb their peace.

It was therefore with a mixture of surprise and gratification that I took up this contribution to the literature of education from the pen of a layman. These feelings became stronger as I proceeded with the book, until now when I lay it down I do so with profound respect and admiration for the author. Eminent as a lawyer, Dr. Banerjee has fully sustained his reputation in

this venture of his outside his proper sphere. The amount of labour bestowed on the subject by the author and the thorough and conscientious manner in which he has considered the numerous problems that confront the student of education are in refreshing contrast with the airy and cavalier deliverances of the amateur. I was at first puzzled by the intimate knowledge displayed in the book of the difficulties of the teacher, until a reference to the preface discovered the fact that the worthy doctor had once been a teacher, and that in writing about education therefore he was only returning to his first love. Who could help lamenting then that the siren of law should have cast her spell over this youthful professor of promise?

If I should choose the most helpful part of a volume of which every part is helpful to the educationist, I would choose the venerable author's remarks on religious education. Himself deeply religious, he is emphatically of opinion that children at school should be taught religion systematically. But he recognises the difficulty caused by the diversity of creeds represented in our classes, and would prescribe, up to the age of fifteen, the teaching of those truths alone which are common to the principal religions of the world,—in short a sort of Natural religion. In his opinion two essential doctrines would be included in any such scheme,—the belief in the existence of God as the Creator and moral Governor of the Universe and as a Being whose attributes are infinite, and a belief in the immortality of the soul. Based on these beliefs are the supreme duties of moral living, altruism, prayer, and toleration which are to be inculcated by lessons drawn from actual life and stories from all sources. After the age of fifteen, the inquiring student may be aided by an exposition of the fundamental principles on which natural religion is based, and a discussion within limits of the controversies that have engaged the mind of man in the sphere of religion.

The author's method of dealing with controversies is exemplified in several places. Perfect frankness, a total absence of heat, and a modest, if firm, statement of his own leaning, mark him out as an ideal disputant. The composition of University Senates, the whole system of University examinations, the rules of affiliation and recognition, the questions who are to be examiners, and whether there are to be text-books in English for Matriculation,—all are banded in a spirit of urbanity and calm inquiry which astonishes one who has followed the recent violent writing in the Press. How closely he is in touch

with recent educational thought is evidenced by the acuteness of his remarks on the teaching of history, which he advises the master to take up from the modern time and proceed backwards to periods less and less approximate to the conditions familiar to the pupil. He is aware also of the psychological truth that apparent differences in the mental calibre of boys are often founded on differences in the acuteness of their senses, though the consequences are not fully followed out. How comforting, again, it is to come upon such a wise remark as the following! "I would strongly deprecate the use of books on Composition or on the Analysis of Sentences. A few general directions should suffice for the former, and the rules of Grammar ought to be enough for the latter purpose. There has been a tendency to multiply books and spin out small matters, to the no small embarrassment of the learner." Here is another paragraph conveying a caution which it is necessary for every teacher to bear in mind always, but which he is only too apt to forget. "When the want of sympathy develops into a positive feeling of contempt for the mental inferiority of the pupil, it leads to evil in another way. The teacher by attributing the ill-success of his teaching to the want of capacity in the pupil to learn, and not to want of ability in himself to teach, places himself in possession of a dangerous and often erroneous excuse which must unconsciously operate to the detriment of diligent work. The teacher should bear in mind that his function is to teach those placed under his care, however humble their powers may be." Another shrewd observation of our author concerns the futility of sending children too early to school. He advises home training up to the ninth year. The period may, perhaps, be prolonged by another year or two, but it is unfortunately not possible for many parents. "A boy up to his seventh or his ninth year requires individual attention to be paid to him such as cannot be expected at school, and he is unfit to profit fully by listening to what is addressed to him in common with many others. Boys sent to school early make much less progress than those of the same age who are taught at home. Particularly valuable is the author's advice to the teacher to study the methods of educationists as expounded in their writings and keep an attitude of openness to new suggestions.

In respect for the author, greatly enhanced for the value of the anecdotes that frequently enliven his pages. But I trust even absolutely charming, and regret that space forbids noting of any. The style of the author

attains the ideal set forth by himself, absolute perspicuity and directness of expression, with an almost ascetic exclusion of embellishment or rhetorical device. The one exception which I found, and which might perhaps have been avoided, is on page 33 where the aid of alliteration is sought to enforce a moral: "Economy is a virtue and extravagance a vice, and following fancy and fashion is foppishness and folly."

On certain points Dr. Bajerjee's opinions are adverse to the tendency of the day and may even be pronounced conservative. For example, he would have a youth take his M. A. degree at twenty. This would subject the student in many cases to overpressure and premature forcing which it is the object everywhere now to avoid. It is also in marked contrast to the practice of other countries not excluding Japan. Then he objects to examinations being conducted by teachers, the very persons whom enlightened opinion and practice nowadays consider the most fitted for the work. His exclusion of fiction from the child's reading, his advocacy of walking as perhaps the best exercise, his requirement that verses and slokas should be committed to the memory long before their meaning is comprehended, his imperfect appreciation of boarding houses and hostels, his ignoring of the means of cultivating the imagination of boys, his almost complete silence on the question of æsthetic culture,—these are some of the limitations which impair the value of the book and which, if one may venture on such a remark, seem to proceed from a too severe and ascetic view of life. The remarks, however, on *Brahmacharya* made on pages 145 *et seq.*, are by themselves unexceptionable, and may be commended to those wealthy folk who spoil their children by excessive indulgence and gifts of money. The following extract would seem to suggest a very low value fixed on the moral character of the teacher, and almost to ignore the enormous effects of his personality on the formation of the pupil's character: "For in order to be able to engage the serious attention of his pupils, which he must do to make his teaching effective, he should command respect; and he cannot do so without possessing a high character." (The italics are mine.) Is this all?

ELEMENTARY ALGEBRA, BY W. G. BORCHARDT, M. A., B. Sc. (PUBLISHERS, RIVINGTONS, 34, KING STREET, COVENT GARDEN, LONDON).

We have much pleasure in according a hearty welcome to Mr. Borchardt's Elementary Algebra. It is a text-book of Algebra on modern lines,

based on the recommendations of the Mathematical Association and in conformity with the recent ideas on the teaching of that subject. Perhaps our readers are aware that, recently in the United Kingdom, a change—a desirable change no doubt—has come in the ideal and the methods of teaching elementary mathematics. Skill in the handling of artificial problems and identities is no longer regarded as the object to be aimed at, but a good practical knowledge of the subject on the part of the student. The book before us has obviously the same end in view; and we are glad to be able to state that the book is thoroughly practical and that the author has succeeded in presenting the subject in a form simple and intelligible to young minds.

There is another peculiar feature of the work which requires special mention. Hitherto the subject of graphs was altogether excluded from the text-books of elementary algebra. But one of the recent developments in the methods of teaching elementary mathematics is the introduction of what is called the Graphical Method, in the study of elementary algebra. From an educational point of view, the Graphical Method has undoubtedly many advantages; and if the illustrations are wisely chosen, the method will surely prove of much value and interest to the beginner. It not only brings home to his mind the intimate connection between Algebra and Geometry, but also enables him to form a clear conception of a variable by presenting to his mind, in an attractive and simple manner, the notion of functional dependence. Accordingly, in this book, the subject of graphs is dealt with at some length, and there are chapters relating to elementary graphs and the application of graphical methods to the solution of equations and problems. The chapters on Substitution in Formulae and Miscellaneous Curves are also worthy of notice.

The book is divided into two parts. Part I comprises exactly the portions required for the Matriculation examination of the Madras University; and Part II, the portions required for the First Arts Examination. The examples under each chapter are numerous and carefully graduated; and, in addition, there are one hundred test-papers which the students are expected to answer after they have gone through the chapters to which they are appended. We consider that the book will prove very useful to candidates for the Matriculation and First Arts Examination of our University and consequently recommend it to their notice.

"MACHINE CONSTRUCTION AND DRAWING," BY FRANK CASTLE.

Is a neat well-got up book. Though there are already many books of the kind in the market, this stands unique, in that it will enable anybody possessing a slight knowledge of projection, to get a good grasp of the several Machine and Engine details, and the book is well-fitted to be one of reference for mechanics and mechanical Draftsmen.

The drawings of the several machine details are neat and the explanations clear; and they will enable anyone who goes through the book, to understand all about them without the aid of a model.

There are numerous exercises at the end of each Chapter which will be of great help to private students, by providing them with the means of testing their knowledge of the portions of the subject treated of in each Chapter.

We can strongly recommend the book to students preparing for the Government Technical Examinations in Machine Construction and Drawing.

MATEO, FALCONE AND L'ENLEVEMENT DE LA REDOUTE, BY PROSPER MERIMEE. (Price 1s. RIVINGTONS).

A good addition to Messrs. Rivingtons' New Junior French Text. Merimée is at his best in his tales and the two as being the shortest of the *Nouvelles* would form a good introduction to other tales of his—for the student of French. The edition is furnished with all the necessary apparatus for beginners in French—Exercices oraux et écrits, Questionnaire, Grammaire, Exercices écrits, and Exercices for translation into French. The book would form an admirable text-book for Lower Secondary French Classes.

THE FOREIGN TRADERS' CORRESPONDENCE HANDBOOK, BY GRAHAM AND OLIVER. (MACMILLAN AND CO. Price 3s. 6d.).

Gives all the instruction needed for enterprising young men to acquit themselves creditably as correspondents in German, French, Spanish. A general idea of the plan would be derived from the following specimen of the table of Contents: *Private Letters*—how to set out a private letter, Beginnings, Endings of letters: Invitations, Congratulations, Condolence, Inquiries, &c. *Business Letters* Offers of goods—

Voluntary, Declined, Requested, Orders given, Modified, &c.

FRENCH EXERCISES, BY C. EWING PRIOR. (RIVING-TONS. Price 4s. 6d.)

We commend heartily to those who have made some advance in the Study of French—as containing a good working summary of Grammar necessary for a sound knowledge of the language. French is taught through the medium of French and the Herbart-Ziller inductive plan is followed. Rules of Grammar without illustrations do not avail and the Exercises as impressing the rules on the learner are welcome. The first part of 43 lessons or exercises give all the essentials of French Grammar. This is followed by French and English passages for reciprocal translation. At the end we have some needed supplementary Grammar and Vocabularies.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT.

Mr. M. Venkataratnam, B.A., Third Assistant and Acting First Assistant, Teachers' College, Saidapet, to be Vice-Principal, Training College, Rajahmundry, vice Mr. T. V. Subba Rao, who is about to retire. To be in the ninth class of the Provincial Educational Service.

Mr. A. Subramanya Aiyar, B.A., L.T., First Assistant, Kumbakonam College, and Acting Second Assistant, Teachers' College, Saidapet, to act as First Assistant, during the employment of Mr. S. Mangesh Rao, on other duty or until further orders.

Mr. M. Ramaswami Aiyangar, B.A., L.T., 3rd Junior Assistant, Presidency College, and Acting 3rd Assistant, Teachers' College, Saidapet, to act as Second Assistant, in the ninth class of the Provincial Educational Service, during the employment of Mr. S. Subramanya Aiyar, on other duty or until further orders.

Miss S. Govindarajulu, Second Assistant Inspectress of Girls' Schools, Bellary Girls' Range, to act as First Assistant Inspectress of Girls' Schools, during the employment of Miss Bernard on other duty, but to continue in the Bellary Girls' range. To have effect from the date of her return to duty from leave.

On the 30th of September, the Rev. P. Walsh, M.A., of the S.P.G. College, Trichinopoly, announced his intention, at a public meeting at the S.P.G. College Hall, of starting a Hindu Hostel and also explained the objects of the High School Preparatory Class. The aim of this class or, as Mr. Walsh called it,

the "model school," were to train the young boys from the very beginning under highly experienced and cultured teachers, who by being given small classes would be able to give individual attention to the pupils and form their character, manners and physique, and cultivate their powers of observation and reasoning. Mr. Walsh himself taught the pupils English so that they might understand how to speak and write the language correctly from an Englishman. The present strength of this model school was six, paying a fee of Rs. 2 per head a month, but Mr. Walsh hoped to reduce it to one rupee a month from next term and hoped that parents would profit by the opportunity and make the school a permanent one.

A MEETING of the Senate was held on Saturday, 14th October, at the Senate House, with Mr. Justice R. S. Benson, Vice-Chancellor, in the Chair.

ELECTION TO THE SYNDICATE.

The business before the meeting was the consideration of certain alterations suggested by Government in regard to the bye-laws already passed by the Senate about the elections to the Syndicate.

The Senate went into Committee and discussed the modifications suggested by Government and approved of most of them. In regard to bye-law 8 the Government remarked: "The provision requiring the question whether any person elected is or is not a Professor within the meaning of section 15, sub-section (2), to be decided by a majority of Fellows resident in the Presidency would appear to be inconsistent with Section 15, sub-section (3), under which the matter has to be decided by the Senate."

The meeting felt doubtful whether the question referred to in the bye-law should be decided by votes recorded by means of voting papers or should be decided at a meeting of the Senate convened for the purpose. It was therefore resolved to ask Government what their intention was in the matter, and the consideration of the bye-law was accordingly adjourned.

FACULTY REPRESENTATION.

When the bye-laws were being discussed, Col. H.D. Love raised an important and legal question as to whether the various Faculties (Arts, Law, Medicine and Engineering) should not be represented on the Syndicate as was the case at present under bye-law 90. He raised the question with reference to the first bye-law, which ran as follows:—"The Syndicate under Section 15 of the Indian Universities Act, 1904, shall consist of the Vice-Chancellor as Chairman, the Director of Public Instruction and 10 Col. Love said:—

"I have to oppose this motion. I do so with the object of calling attention to what appears to be a contravention of the provisions of the Act. The Senate has decided to exclude the principle of Faculty representation on the Syndicate, and although Government has not yet confirmed the

Senate's resolutions regarding the mode of election of the Syndicate, it has not taken exception to the exclusion.

Section 25 of the Act provides that the Senate may make regulations to settle the proportion in which the members (other than the ex-officio members) of the Syndicate shall be elected to represent the various Faculties. This wording clearly shows that the framers of the Act contemplated Faculty representation on the Syndicate. It is true that the section is permissive: the Senate may or may not make regulations regarding the election of the Syndicate. If it does, the principle of Faculty representation is distinctly asserted by the Act, and is binding. If it does not, then it would appear that one of the transitory provisions of the Act, viz., Section 12 (S) becomes operative. Under this the statutes, regulations and bye-laws in force at the commencement of the Act, continue in force, i.e., the constitution of the Syndicate is fixed by existing bye-law 90.

Nowhere in the Act can I find any reference to the exclusion of Faculty representation on the Syndicate. Section 15 (1) (c) provides that the Ordinary Fellows on the Syndicate may be elected by the Senate or by the Faculties. Election by the Faculties certainly presumes Faculty representation: election by the Senate does not exclude it. The Senate in fact is nowhere authorized to make regulations for the non-representation of a Faculty, or regulations which might have that effect.

I make these observations merely to call attention to the matter, since any decision of which the legality can be subsequently questioned may prove a source of very great difficulty and inconvenience in the future."

The Vice-Chancellor, while admitting the importance of the point raised pointed out that as the principle of that bye-law had already been settled at a previous meeting of the Senate, it was not open to the present meeting to introduce any modifications in it.

THE BYE-LAWS.

The following were the bye-laws passed by the Senate Committee:—

1. The Syndicate under Section 15 of the Indian Universities Act, 1904, shall consist of the Vice-Chancellor as Chairman, the Director of Public Instruction and ten elected members.
2. At least five of the elected members shall be Heads of, or Professors in, Colleges affiliated to the University.
3. Any elected member who has held office continuously for two years shall vacate his seat but shall be eligible for re-election in the manner hereinafter provided.
4. Any elected member who intends or expects to be absent from the meetings of the Syndicate for more than three consecutive months shall for that reason be under obligation to resign his seat.

5. Any elected member who has been absent from three consecutive meetings may be declared by the Syndicate to have vacated his seat, but he shall be eligible for re-election.

6. Whenever a vacancy occurs among the elected members, the Registrar under the direction of the Syndicate shall publish a notice thereof in the Fort St. George Gazette, and shall on or before the date of such publication post to each Fellow a notice of the vacancy.

The Syndicate as a body and each Fellow shall be at liberty to nominate a Fellow to fill the vacancy.

Every nomination shall be in writing and must reach the Registrar not later than ten days after the publication of the vacancy in the Gazette.

The Registrar shall post a list of the nominations to each Fellow, together with a voting paper which shall bear on it the date of posting. The voting paper when filled up shall be returned to the Registrar in such a way as the Syndicate may direct with a view to secure the secrecy of the ballot and so as to reach the Registrar not later than 8 days after the date of posting by him. A Committee of two Fellows shall be appointed by the Vice-Chancellor for the scrutiny of the voting papers at a time and place to be fixed by him, and the Registrar shall post to each Fellow a notice thereof ten days before the date fixed for the scrutiny. Every Fellow shall be at liberty to be present at the scrutiny. The nominee who receives the largest number of votes shall be elected. If any two or more nominees receive an equal number of votes the Vice-Chancellor shall in each such case where necessary have a second or casting vote. The result of the election shall be announced in the Fort St. George Gazette.

THE Annual Salem District Educational Conference was held this year, under the presidency of Mr. T. T. Logan, Inspector of Schools, Western Circle, in the Government Training School, Salem, on Tuesday the 29th of August last. The propositions discussed were mainly those which had been suggested by the Teachers' Association, Salem.

The following propositions were after considerable discussion adopted by the Conference and the same have been submitted for the consideration of the Director of Public Instruction.

I. It is necessary to organise a Provident Fund for teachers employed in all recognised schools and colleges.

In the course of discussion on the above proposition, it was pointed out that the principle had long been admitted, beyond doubt, and that the necessity had long been recognised, but that there had been considerable practical difficulty in bringing any scheme into effect, such as the want of funds pleaded by Managers, and hence it was urged that unless the Government was prepared to make a liberal contribution towards the formation of such a fund, no practical scheme could be worked out. Finally it was suggested that the Department should be requested to take the initiative in the matter and to

formulate a workable scheme in consultation with managers.

II. In furtherance of the cause of Primary Education, it is desirable that each Municipality should be asked by the Department to form a Central Educational Museum under the superintendence of the Supervisor of Schools or of some other competent authority, that the Primary teachers in each Municipality should be constituted into an Association under guidance of the department and that arrangements should be made to assemble the members of the Association in the Museum at regular intervals, and to give them instruction in the teaching of object lessons.

III. Arrangements should be made in each Museum for the holding of vacation classes, for the improvement of up-country Primary teachers who should be given instruction in these classes in the subject-matter of object lessons and in the methods of teaching them. The attendance of these teachers should be invited by the offer of better prospects and batta and travelling allowance, if necessary, by the Local Fund Boards.

IV. For the recruitment of a larger and more efficient class of Primary teachers, it is desirable that the Department should take the following steps:—

(a) The Department should offer free scholarships to those who discontinue their studies at the end of the Primary or the Lower Secondary Course, to enable them to continue their general education in Secondary Schools, if they are willing to serve as teachers at the completion of their general course of education.

(b) The free scholarships should ordinarily be tenable for a period of three years and should be given on the same terms as those of the scholarships in force in the Training Schools.

(c) These free scholars should be placed under the supervision of the Heads of the Secondary Schools in which they study.

(d) After three years, these free scholars should devote half their time to learning teaching work under the instructions of the head of the institution and the other half in receiving general education.

(e) At the close of their general training an examination should be held to test their fitness for the profession.

(f) Such trained men should be accepted as teachers of the Second Grade.

V. Object Lessons in Elementary Science should be made a compulsory subject in the Lower Secondary classes attached to Upper Secondary Schools, and that the subject be taught through the medium of the vernacular.

A meeting of the Senate of the University of Madras was held on the 9th October.

The first business before the Senate was the recommendation of the Syndicate to exempt certain candidates for the ensuing Degrees from having to produce the certificates of attendance.

The Rev. Mr. Skinner moved that the Syndicate's recommendation be adopted—being to exempt the

students whose names were given in the agenda from the production of certificates of attendance for the following examinations—62 candidates for the L.T. Degree, 14 for the First Examination in Law, 21 for the B.L. Degree Examination, 4 for the B.E. Degree Examination and 1 candidate for the First Examination in Arts.

Mr. S. Venkobachariar, seconded the motion which was put and carried.

AN APPEAL-PETITION.

Mr. A. Periyaswami Mudaliyar next informed the Senate that he would move the proposition of which he had given notice after the Draft Regulations had been considered and passed, viz., that the appeal-petition of Mr. S. Velayudam Pillai, late Manager, University Registrar's Office, be considered by the Senate.

ADJOURNED MEETING DRAFT REGULATIONS.

The Fellows then met at an adjourned meeting of the Senate to consider the Draft Body of Regulations, for the conduct of the affairs of the University, which had been previously circulated amongst them, at the instance of the Hon'ble Dr. A. G. Bourne, only as a basis for discussion, and not as coming from the Syndicate.

The Vice-Chancellor informed the Senate that an order had been received from the Government fixing 31st December as the latest day by which the Regulations of the Senate should be sent to the Government for its approval.

MYSORE.

The following extracts are taken from the Address of the Dewan of Mysore, at the Mysore Representative Assembly, held on the 11th October.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

The Engineering School at Mysore made good progress. Several of the pupils of the institution obtained high places at the Madras Technical Examinations. Some of the subjects taken up were building, drawing and estimating, mensuration, earth-work and road-making, carpentry, bridge-work, free-hand and model-drawing, and in these subjects some of the successful students occupied the foremost places in the list. The Mysore Industrial School has considerably improved in efficiency, and the pottery department has been able to turn out at a short time may lay claim to be equal in quality to the best productions of that kind. The Industrial School at Melkote and the Weaving School at Dabbalapur were able to send to the Exhibition held at Bombay in the beginning of this year excellent specimens of silk and cotton cloths which won medals and diplomas. The Weaving School at Hole-Narsipur has now been provided with a small laboratory and dye-house and experiments have been successfully carried out to dye cloths cheaply with vegetable and artificial dyes. Altogether there were eighteen Industrial Schools, of which six were weaving schools. Some of the subjects taught in

the other schools were carpentry, blacksmith's work, drawing, rattan work, pottery and modelling, brick-laying and rope-making. All these schools did good work. During the year ten village schoolmasters who were trained in Mr. Tata's Silk Farm at Bangalore were appointed as Sericultural Inspectors in the mulberry-growing taluqs of the State to instruct the people in improved methods of silk-worm rearing and mulberry planting. In addition to the usual Medical and Engineering Scholarships, 27 technical scholarships were granted. Of the scholarship-holders 10 are studying Mechanical Engineering and 15 Electrical Engineering in the Victoria Institute of Bombay. Of the remaining two, one is studying engraving and the other metal-work and engraving in the School of Arts at Madras. There were also 5 scholars studying in the Veterinary College of Bombay and 2 in that of Madras. Demonstration Farms for imparting instruction in practical agriculture were established in connection with eight Government schools in different parts of the State. His Highness the Maharajah visited one of these gardens in his tour in November last and remarked that, to be of practical value, a garden should contain more than poor specimens of common country vegetables and that the encouragement of a taste for flower gardening in non-cultivators and the demonstration of improved methods and results to cultivators would be valuable. The teaching of practical agriculture was at the same time inaugurated in Mysore Normal School in order to enable the teachers of Primary and Lower Secondary Schools to have gardens and farms in connection with their schools.

EDUCATION.

LAST year I referred to a slight fall that had taken place in the number of pupils attending schools, and said that the decline did not appear to be due to any permanent causes. I am now glad to say that this belief has been confirmed by the rise in the strength of the schools which we notice. The percentage of boys at school to boys of school-going age rose from 21.28 to 22.68 and that of girls from 4.05 to 4.81. The number of all institutions increased and the rise in their strength shows that the revised scale of fees brought into force from January, 1904 has not had any discouraging effect on the growth of education.

BOMBAY.

THE *Mahratta* learns that Prof. Vishnu Govind Bijapurkar, M.A., Professor of Sanskrit in the Rajaram College in the Kolhapur State has been dismissed by the Durbar of that State for an alleged abetting of a breach of discipline by the boys of the Matriculation class of the Rajaram High School. The Professor was given a gratuity equal to six months' pay. The reason given by the Durbar is that "His Highness the Maharaja has been convinced that Prof. Bijapurkar has not been exercising his influence over the boys in the right direction." The students have not only been caned but prohibited from appearing

for the Matriculation Examination for one year. The *Mahratta* adds: "We may, therefore, put down Professor Bijapurkar as the most notable victim so far as the repressive action of the authorities directed against the Swadeshi Movement is concerned. As for the boys it is unfair that having made their choice of the punishment of caning as an alternative for rustication, they should be both caned and rusticated. Their case stands on a footing entirely different from that of their Professor; and we may appeal to the good sense and fairness of mind of the Principal of the Rajaram High School for a reconsideration of his vindictive decree."

GOVERNMENT have allotted a sum of Rs. 50,000 for extensions to the Male Training College at Dharwar, and a further sum of Rs. 60,000 for building a Female Training College on a much more elaborate scale than was originally proposed. The original plans provided for a structure costing Rs. 15,000 only, and the site selected was in the heart of the town. The building has, in fact, just been completed but will have to be utilised for some other purpose as, in view of the recent increased grant of Rs. 60,000, it is now wisely contemplated having a site outside the town.

THE results of the City and Guilds of London Institute Examinations, held in the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Byculla, Bombay, have been received. Of the 38 candidates who were examined 26 were students of the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute. The Institute students obtained the following successes. In ordinary grade, cotton spinning, 4 appeared and 4 passed, 1 in the first class and 3 in the second class. In the ordinary grade, cotton weaving, 2 appeared and 1 passed in the second class. In electric lighting and power, ordinary grade, 5 appeared and 2 passed in the second class. In electric lighting and power, honours grade, 1 appeared without success. In mechanical engineering, 13 appeared, and 7 passed, 5 in the second class and 2 in the pass class.

THE Rev. Dr. Mackichan, Vice-Chancellor, presided at an adjourned meeting of the Senate of the Bombay University, held on the 5th instant.

At a previous meeting Principal Sharp had moved a proposition for the adoption of the Committee's Report. The proposition was modified by certain amendments of Principal Selby.

The Rev. Father Dreckmann suggested that the Senate might adopt the same procedure in respect of this Committee's Report as they did in regard to the other Committee's Report, drop the amendments and pass the Regulations as they were, on the understanding that they were subject to amendment hereafter.

The Hon'ble Sir Pherozeshah M. Mehta said if Father Dreckmann saw his way to accept Mr. Rustom K. R. Cama's amendment which fixed the

number of Syndics, exclusive of the Vice-Chancellor and the Director of Public Instruction, at thirteen instead of ten, as proposed in the Draft Regulation 11, all the other amendments might be dropped.

The suggestion was accepted and Principal Sharp's proposition as modified by the amendments was then put to the vote and carried.

INSPECTION OF COLLEGES.

The meeting then proceeded to consider the Report of the Committee submitting draft regulations regarding inspection of colleges, college returns registers, intercollegiate rules, and residence of students.

The Rev. Father Dreckmann moved the adoption of the Report of the Committee.

Sir Bhalchandra moved an amendment, "That the Committee of Inspection to be appointed by the Syndicate for the inspection of a College shall not wholly consist of persons on the teaching staff of Colleges; and the Syndicate shall not appoint for the purpose of inspecting a College any person connected with another institution teaching in the same Faculty and under private management."

Dr. Kher seconded the amendment.

The Hon'ble Mr. Giles said in Madras 53 colleges had been inspected by a Committee of four gentlemen. Of these one was the Director of Public Instruction, another a gentleman of the highest scientific capacity in Madras, the third was a native gentleman, who had a high reputation among men of learning there, and the fourth was a representative of a Missionary College. The inspection was done without the slightest friction on either side.

The Hon'ble Sir M. Mehta said that, so far as the Government Colleges were concerned, there was no question of competition, but private Colleges were competing institutions. They had to depend upon the number of their pupils for their income, for their prosperity and their advancement. It was perfectly right that the Principal and Professors of a private College should take great interest in the development of their income. Therefore, if a student left it and went to another College it was a loss to it. In view of this it was perfectly clear that the larger the number of private Colleges the greater the distribution of students, which was not considered desirable by managers of private institutions. Under these circumstances, if the Principal and Professors of a private College were placed in the position of pronouncing an opinion on another competing College there was just the chance of Principal and Professors being led away by an unconscious bias. There would be no objection to Principals and Professors of Government Colleges inspecting private Colleges and *vice versa*.

Other members having addressed the meeting, the amendment was put to the vote and lost, and the Senate adjourned.

BENGAL.

DEPARTMENTAL NOTIFICATIONS IN THE CALCUTTA GAZETTE.

Babu Jay Gopal De, Assistant Inspector of Schools, Burdwan Division, is appointed to be Assistant Inspector of Schools, Dacca Division.

Babu Kiran Chandra Mitra, Professor, Dacca College, is appointed to be a Professor in the Hooghly College.

Babu Hari Das Saha, Professor, Hooghly College, is appointed to be a Professor in the Dacca College.

Babu Bama Charan Bhattacharjee, Professor, Hooghly College, is appointed, to be a Professor in the Chittagong College.

Maulvi Abdul Haq Abid, Assistant Headmaster of the Murshidabad Nawab's Madrasah, is appointed to act as Headmaster of that institution, during the absence, on leave, of Mr. F. A. LeFevre, or until further orders.

Mr. H. E. Stapleton, temporary Professor, Presidency College, is appointed to act, until further orders, as Inspector of Schools, Dacca Division, with effect from the 16th October 1905, *vice* Mr. H. A. Bamford, on leave.

THE Convocation of the Calcutta University will be held on January 1st, the Prince of Wales being present on the occasion. It is expected that H.R.H. will be awarded the degree of Doctor of Laws.

THE Government is going to establish an Agricultural College at Berhampur. The cost of maintenance of the College will be defrayed out of the special grant of Rs. 3½ lakhs per annum which has been allotted to Bengal by the Government of India out of the total grant of Rs. 20 lakhs for promoting agricultural education throughout India. With the establishment of the College at Berhampur, the Agricultural classes, attached to the Sibpur Engineering College, will be abolished.

It is now widely believed that the scheme for the reorganization of the Provincial and Subordinate Educational Services, Bengal, has been sanctioned by the Secretary of State. The special features of the new Provincial Service are reported to be the laying down of the minimum pay at Rs. 200, the creation of a new grade at Rs. 350 and an increase in the number of appointments in the different grades of the service. The special feature of the new Subordinate Service consists, we hear, of an increase in the number of appointments in the different grades throughout the service.—*The Bengalee, October 14.*

THE subjoined circular has been issued by District Magistrates to the heads of schools and colleges in the mofussil:—

1. The use which has been recently made of schoolboys and students for political purposes is absolutely subversive of discipline and injurious to the interest of the boys themselves. It cannot be tolerated in connection with educational institutions assisted or countenanced by Government.

2. I am therefore to state for your information and guidance that unless the school and college authorities and teachers prevent their pupils from taking public action in connection with political questions or in connection with boycotting, picketing, and other abuses associated with the so-called *Swadeshi* movement, the schools or colleges concerned will forfeit their grants-in-aid and the privilege of competing for scholarship holders, and the University will be asked to disaffiliate them. Where they loyally desire to prevent such conduct on the part of their pupils and are unable to do so, they must immediately submit a report to the District Magistrate, giving a list of boys who have disregarded their authority, and stating the disciplinary action taken to punish them.

3. I am also to point out that should there be any reasonable apprehension of disturbance on the part of schoolboys or students, it will be necessary to call on the teachers and managers of the institutions concerned for assistance in keeping the peace, by enrolling them as special constables. Their services as such will be specially valuable as the boys are bound to respect them and they will be able to identify those who may offend.

4. The gentlemen to whom this circular letter is addressed are requested to explain the above to their subordinates. The District Superintendent of Police will please instruct his thana officers to report instances of misconduct on the part of boys of the nature indicated in the first paragraph above.

WE take the following information from the first annual statement of the work of the Association for the advancement of Scientific and Technical Education of Indians.

In Orissa, the Utkal Conference has taken upon itself the work of the District Committees and promised co-operation and a large annual contribution. One thousand rupees have already been paid.

Almost all the noblemen of any distinction in these provinces have granted the Association scholarship. The amount of annual scholarship promised is Rs. 27,100.

Most of the District Committees have remitted parts of their contributions. A very large number of schools and colleges have come forward with subscriptions. The student masses of Calcutta have all agreed to subscribe. The boys of the Eden Hostel especially gave the not inconsiderable amount of about Rs. 23 a month during the last session. Many of the clerks of the offices of Calcutta and Alipur are paying 4 as. per month. The four annas scheme is thus working fairly well.

The Association has sent two young men to America, five to Great Britain, and eleven to Japan for industrial and scientific education. Their subjects of study are Agriculture, Leather, Mechanical Engineering, Pharmacy, Electrical Engineering, Practical Chemistry, Spinning, Weaving, Dyeing, Handlooms, Matches, Soap, Buttons, Enamel, Sericulture, Glass and Mining. The students are all well and trying their best to learn their respective industries. The Association has resolved to send another batch of students early next year.

The Association has started a school for teaching languages. At present French, German and Japanese are being taught under the best professors available in this City.

The Association has started an Agricultural Settlement near Deoghur with 45,000 bighas of land on the co-operation system. Only 8 annas of the property has been acquired, but it is expected that the other 8 annas will also be soon acquired. The project has been very popular and the number of applications for participating in has been so numerous that the trustees appointed for the purpose are in a position of great difficulty as to the disposal of these applications and are trying to acquire another large tract of land.

The Committee of Experts of the Association have recommended the starting of the following industries:—

- (1) Safety and Friction matches.
- (2) Small hardware including pins, needles, spades, kharas, umbrella sticks, knives and scissors.
- (3) Soaps (4) buttons and horncombs, (5) churries, (6) glassware, (7) enamel, (8) porcelain, (9) pencil, (10) leather, (11) paints, (12) acids.

Raja Peary Mohun Mukerjee, Maharaja Manindra Chandra Nundi, Maharaja Jagadindra Nath Roy, Dr. Rash Behary Ghose, and Babu Jogendra Nath Bose have expressed their willingness to start one or the other of the above industries. Babu Murlidhar Roy has written to the Secretary, promised to start a Pencil manufactory with a capital of Rs. 10,000, Babu Upendra Nath Sen, a Type foundry with a capital Rs. 50,000, Babu Davendra Nath Sen an Essence manufactory with a capital of Rs. 50,000, and Babu R. K. Bhattacharya has expressed his willingness to start a Match manufactory. It is expected that many if not all the donors will come forward to start an industry each. The District Committees have also been asked to start industries by themselves. The Institute of Engineers of Calcutta at the request of the Association have appointed a Committee for taking steps for the manufacture of Cement and other building requisites.

The Committee of the Albert Victor Temple of Science have agreed to make over the interest of Rs. 45,000 in its hands to the Association for starting a polytechnic. It is hoped that a polytechnic will soon be started in these provinces by the Association.

The amount collected during the last year is Rs. 25,341-13-0 out of which Rs. 12,058-11-5 is in the National Bank of India, the rest having been spent in paying seven months' six months' and four months' scholarships of the scholars according to the date of their departure, and in meeting other necessary expenditure of the Association.

SEQUEL TO THE HARRISON ROAD DISTURBANCE.

OFFICIAL ACTION.

With reference to the Harrison Road fracas, the following circular has been issued and it speaks for itself:—

No. T.—292.

From the Director of Public Instruction, Bengal.

To—

Darjiling, the 21st Oct., 1905.

Sir,—

As it is apparently established that the marginally named student in the institution under your control was implicated in the Harrison Road disturbance that occurred on the 3rd instant, I am directed by His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal to request you to be so good as to show cause why the student in question should not be expelled from your institution.

I have the honour to be,

Sir,

Your most obedient servant,

(Sd.) A. PEDLER.

ABOUT two hundred students of the Rungpore Zilla and Technical Schools have been ordered by the District Magistrate to be fined rupees five each for attending the local meeting on the Proclamation day and singing *Bande Matharam* in the public streets.

THE order of the Magistrate runs:—"These boys are fined rupees five each, and are not allowed to attend classes again until the fine is paid. The Headmaster will warn them that a repetition of the offence will endanger the existence of the school. Send copy to parents."

PUNJAB.

The Report of the Dayanand Anglo-Vedic College of Lahore contains much interesting matter about the work and progress of the college. The Gymnasium has been completed and Messrs. Ganda Singh and Sons of Sialkot have undertaken to equip it at a cost of Rs.700, with the necessary apparatus. There is a Dispensary attached to the college in which medicines are supplied at cost price to the boarders. Through Lala Lajpat Rai's generosity, a French class is to be opened in the college department and arrangements are being made to teach Japanese too.

The Report alludes to the recent fracas and the heavy punishment which the Syndicate of the Punjab University had thought fit to inflict on the college, against which an appeal to the Vice-Chancellor is pending. In the College department there were 271 candidates as against 260 during 1903-1904. The results at the public examinations were fair.

THE summary of a letter, dated Simla, October, 10th, which has been addressed to the Punjab Government by Mr. H. H. Risley, Secretary to the Government of India, has been published. It has reference to the minimum age limit for Matriculation at the Punjab University, and incidentally lays down the principles which apply also to other universities throughout India. The following extract gives the main points:—

The attention of the Government of India has been drawn to the published reports of the proceedings of the Senate of the Punjab University on the 26th June last at which it was decided after some controversy that the minimum age for Matriculation should be fixed at 14. From the earliest stage of the comprehensive reform of university education in India, which was initiated by the report of the Universities Commission, the Government of India have insisted upon the principle that boys should not be permitted to proceed to a university until they are old enough to profit by more advanced methods of study, and to adapt themselves to the larger responsibilities and greater freedom of collegiate life. These important ends can only be attained by fixing a minimum age for Matriculation.

The Government of India then go on to discuss the recommendation of the Universities Commission upon the subject of age limit, and conclude as follows: "In view of the close relations existing between the different Universities, it is desirable to place no obstruction in the way of students who have commenced their studies at one university and desire to complete them at another. In this view the general adoption of 16 as the minimum age for Matriculation is, in the opinion of the Governor-General in Council, almost a necessary consequence of the fact that this limit has been recommended by the Allahabad University and has been sanctioned by the Government of the United Provinces. Uniformity in the age of Matriculation is further demanded by the fact that the Matriculation examination is at present recognised in most provinces as a test qualifying for admission to a large number of Government appointments. The conditions under which this test is applied must be identical everywhere, and it would be detrimental both to the public service and to the candidates for employment in it to accept in a particular province the inferior standard of educational attainments which would result from a reduction of age for Matriculation to 14 or 15. For these various reasons the Government of India look upon the action taken by the Allahabad University as introducing a reform of vital importance to the future of Indian education. It is equally in the interests of schools, colleges, and the universities

themselves that the age for Matriculation should not be fixed at less than sixteen years. Occasional precocity is no great gain; universal immaturity is a national loss. The Governor-General in Council hopes that these considerations will not be lost sight of by the remaining universities, and he commends them to the attention of the Lieutenant-Governor in dealing with the University at Lahore. The Government of India recognize the praiseworthy efforts which the Punjab University has made in framing its regulations to promote the interests of sound education, and they trust that the Senate will realize that the modification of their proposals upon which the Government of India feel bound to insist will operate to the advantage of the students themselves by relieving them of the harmful pressure to which they are at present subjected.

Copies of the latter are sent to the Governments of Madras and Bombay and also to the Rector and Registrar of the Calcutta University.

Foreign Notes.

THE following letter has been sent to the heads of colleges and other educational institutions by the Rev. C. Manley, of Christ's College, Cambridge: "Committee of Christian men has been formed in England, with Sir Andrew Wingate as President, for promoting the welfare, both spiritual and social, of Indian students coming to study in England. A list of suitable lodgings in London has been prepared, and wherever possible arrangements will be made to meet students on arrival in London."

AT a meeting of the Council of the Teachers' Guild of Great Britain and Ireland, held on the 15th July, the following memorandum was finally adopted:—

MEMORANDUM ON THE SUBJECT OF THE REMUNERATION AND TENURE CONDITIONS OF TEACHERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The Council of the Teachers' Guild have, for some time past, viewed with anxious concern the short supply of men and women now entering the teaching profession, especially of those who possess good academic qualification; and, being convinced that this evil, if unchecked, is likely to carry with it serious consequences to the nation at large, they desire to invite attention to the following statement:—

It is in secondary schools that this deficiency in the supply of qualified teachers is most grave. The number of University graduates with good qualifications who offer themselves for vacant posts in these schools is wholly insufficient. The career of the teacher does not hold out adequate inducements to men and women of energy and intellectual capacity; the former, in an ever-increasing degree are diverted into other professions which offer better and

more assured prospects. There is a real danger that the shortage in the supply of teachers will be met by the acceptance of a lower standard of intellectual equipment and general culture.

Two main causes are in the opinion of the Council responsible for this state of things.

* First, the salaries paid at present are too low as compared with the remuneration which prevails in other professions. Those who by a long and, in many cases, expensive course of preparation have been fitted for the responsible and exacting duties of the teacher, and upon whom great and growing demands are made both in the way of intellect and of character, may reasonably look for a life of modest comfort. But with the existing rates of payment even this prospect is too often absent; while any provision for the future is almost, if not altogether, beyond their means.

The Council accordingly suggest that the rates of salary should, as soon as possible, be the following:—

(1) For men, registered, or qualified for registration, in Column B of the Register of teachers, and teaching in secondary schools, an initial salary (non-resident) of £150, rising to a maximum of from £250 to £350.

For women, correspondingly qualified, and teaching in secondary schools, the initial salary should be not less than £120, rising to a maximum of from £200 to £250.

Teachers with special qualifications, or occupying posts of special responsibility, should receive salaries on a higher scale.

In fixing the salary of any teacher, previous experience should be taken into consideration.

In the opinion of the Council these are the lowest terms that should be offered if teachers are to be found who will be fitted to carry out their responsibilities in the immediate future.

The Council are further of opinion that the salaries of assistant teachers should, in all cases, be fixed and paid directly by the governing body; also that when salaries are not paid by the term or half-term the contracts should be so drawn that the teachers should not suffer any detriment thereby, i.e., they should in all cases receive at the rate of a third of the annual salary for a term's work.

Provision should also be made for retiring pensions, both for heads of schools and for assistants, in all cases by joint contributions from teachers and governing bodies.

But, in the second place, it is not only the rate of remuneration, but also the conditions of tenure, which are highly unsatisfactory. Under this head the Council hold to the views which they have already published. They are of opinion that, for the dignity and general welfare of the profession, and in recognition of the fact that an assistant teacher works for the community rather than for an individual, it is desirable that he or she should be selected

by the headmaster or headmistress of a school for one (or two) years of probation and, if recommended by the headmaster or headmistress for a permanent appointment, should be elected to it by the governing body of the school. Dismissal should be at the hands of the same body, and an appeal should lie either to the Local Educational Body or to the Board of Education. An appeal should also lie to one or other of these bodies in the case of the dismissal of a headmaster or headmistress.

The Council hold that, in all cases, both heads and assistants should be engaged under written and stamped agreements.

Finally, they are of opinion that the clauses in the schemes of endowed schools whereby heads and assistants are dismissible "at pleasure" are objectionable, and in their place should be substituted clauses designed to carry out the views already expressed by the Council.

The Council have the honour of sending you this Memorandum as the outcome of their serious deliberation, and invite your earnest consideration of the same.

Signed on behalf of the Council.

S. H. BUTCHER, *Chairman*.

H. WESLEY DENNIS, *Vice-Chairman*.

It was decided that the Memorandum should be sent out in the middle of September to the Chairmen and Secretaries of all Education Committees of County and County Borough Councils in England and Wales, to the Education Committee of the County Councils Association, the Association of Education Committees of County Councils, the Association of Directors and Secretaries for Education and to the Press.

EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE, 1905.

As usual the Madras Teachers' Guild has arranged for an Educational Conference this year, to be held in the Hall of the Wesley College, Royapettah, on Thursday, December 14th and Friday, December 15th. On the first day at 5-30. P.M., a *Conversazione* will be held and a programme of music and recitation and an address will be given. On the second day, the following will be the programme:—

- (a) 11. A.M. to 2 P.M. Two papers and discussion.
- (b) 2 to 3 interval. [Refreshments will be provided for both Indian and European members and guests.]
- (c) 3 to 6. Two papers, discussion and resolutions.

It is requested that ladies and gentlemen who are interested in Education will please suggest subjects

for papers; and all offers to read a paper or to propose a resolution at the Conference will be most thankfully considered.

EXHIBITION.

In connection with the Conference, an Educational Exhibition will be held at which prizes will be awarded to the best individual Exhibit in each department, and certificates will be given to the School sending the best exhibits in the aggregate in each Department.

EXHIBITS.

1. Primary Schools:—Clay-modelling.
2. Lower Secondary Schools:—Freehand Outline-drawing from the flat.
3. Upper Secondary Schools:—Same as 2.
4. Pupils in Training Colleges and Schools:—Clay or other models to illustrate the teaching of Physical Geography.
5. All teachers in Upper Secondary Departments of Schools:—Same as 4.
6. Open to all Students—Natural History collection.

N. B:—

(a) All exhibits from Colleges or Schools must be certified as the genuine work of the exhibitors, by the Principal or Headmaster.

(b) Intending exhibitors and competitors are requested to communicate with the Secretaries before December 1st.

It is requested that managers will lend for show any new or specially interesting apparatus for teaching purposes that they may possess.

MADRAS TEACHERS' GUILD.

1. *Insurance Scheme*:—The Council as represented by the Honorary Secretaries has been appointed by the Oriental Government Security Life Assurance Company, Limited, Sub-agent to the Company, and as such is entitled to receive commission on the premiums paid by those who take out policies in that Company through it. This arrangement will enable the Council to make a rebate to all members and associates of the Guild and affiliated associations

who insure in that Company hereafter. The rebate due to each policy-holder under these arrangements will be paid to him or her annually as soon as possible after the close of the year. The members of the Guild may avail themselves of the above scheme and are requested to write to the Secretaries, Teachers' Guild, Royapettah, from whom information as to the amount of rebates, &c., may be obtained.

2. *The Kellett Memorial Fund*:—The Committee has resolved to close this Fund on the 31st of December, 1905. Intending subscribers are requested to send their subscriptions before then. It has also been decided to invest the sum that has been collected—about Rs. 800/—as the nucleus of a Building Fund and to use the interest accruing therefrom for the Library.

THE MADRAS TEACHERS' GUILD REGISTRY.

The Madras Teachers' Guild conducts a Registry for teachers seeking employment. The following are the rules approved by the Guild.

1. Every candidate who wishes to secure employment as a teacher shall send in his application in the prescribed form to the Secretaries.

2. The application shall be accompanied with a registration fee of Re. 1 in the case of the members of the Guild, and Rs. 3 in the case of non-members.

3. Every application shall further be accompanied with three testimonials:—one of character, one of general educational qualification, and one of professional qualification. The first testimonial must be from some responsible person and must be countersigned by two members of the Guild.

It is proposed by the Guild, in order to facilitate the working of the Registry to send out periodically to schools circulars of names on the list and to ask for information of vacancies, so that both teachers and Headmasters or Managers may be in communication. The Secretaries would be extremely glad if teachers who want posts will join the Registry, and if Managers of Schools and other will inform them of vacancies.

All communications should be addressed to the Honorary Secretaries, Teachers' Guild, Mylapore, Madras.

List of Teachers now on the Register:—

- (1) A physical Science M.A., L.T.
Service:—Headmaster of a High School for over five years. Desires the Headmastership of a High School or a Lectureship in a College in some town with a salary of Rs. 120 or more.
- (2) A Sanskrit History B.A., L.T. Has been Headmaster of a High School for over seven years. Desires post in Madras.
- (3) A Tamil Mathematics B.A., L.T. Has been Professor of Mathematics in a First Grade College for over 10 years. Wants a Lecturer's place in a College, or Headmastership of a High School in Madras or districts south of Madras, on Rs. 100, or more.
- (4) A Tamil Graduate, Branch IV. Holds untrained Teachers' certificate of the Collegiate Grade. 13 years' service as teacher. Wants an Assistant Master's place in a High School or a College on Rs. 50, if in Madras, Rs. 65, if elsewhere.
- (5) A Telugu Biology and Zoology graduate. Untrained. Wants a Lecturer's place in Physiology in a College. Salary Rs. 50 per mensem.

List of vacant places:—

- (1) An Assistant's place in a Second Grade College in one of the Southern Districts. A Mathematics graduate will be preferred. Salary Rs. 55 at starting.
- (2) An Assistant's place in the same college, from January next. Salary Rs. 55 at starting.
- (3) The First and the Second Assistants' places in a Municipal High School on Rs. 60 and Rs. 50 respectively.

None but qualified men need apply.

The Educational Review.

The Madras Senate has exhibited an unusual degree of activity, meeting day after day from the 9th October to the 21st October for the consideration of the Draft Regulations placed by Dr. Bourne before the Senate.

Considering the magnitude of the changes contemplated by the proposed regulations, it would not be out of place to examine the scheme put forward in some detail.

We must refer to one thing before discussing the scheme itself. The genesis of the whole scheme

is somewhat peculiar. Confining ourselves solely to the information vouchsafed on the matter to the Senate, it would appear that three gentlemen, Messrs. Bilderbeck, Stone and Bourne were entrusted with the work of drafting the new regulations. These three met a number of times and had talks on the subject, and as a result of these talks there was, we suppose, a residuum of ideas, the only custodian of which would seem to be Dr. Bourne. For Messrs. Bilderbeck and Stone soon left, and Dr. Bourne was the sole remaining member of the Committee here. Rev. Mr. Macphail and Dr. Crichton Mitchell were appointed members of the Committee—we presume by the Syndicate—and the talks were resumed when as members of the University Inspection of Colleges Commission they had to travel together. It must be to these talks that Dr. Bourne referred when he said that "the suggestions printed on the paper were really the immediate outcome of several weeks of conversation between the members of the Commission who had been inspecting Colleges." Though Dr. Bourne's

words suggest that all the members of the Commission had an opportunity of expressing their views on the scheme before the Senate, what he really meant was that the three members of the 'Committee for drafting the new regulations' who happened also to be members of the Inspection of Colleges Commission had several weeks' conversation on the matter. If there was anything like a discussion of the principles of the new scheme, anything like an understanding in what direction the changes were to be suggested among the members of the University Commission, there is no meaning in absolving the members individually or collectively from any responsibility for those suggestions.

On the first day (the 9th Oct.) when the draft regulations were taken up for discussion, Dr. Bourne said he put them forward on his individual responsibility—there was too little time to consult others, he had to go away to Simla, there was so much work, and so forth, and on the 12th when the principles of University reform were taken up, he mentioned that it was Dr. Mitchell that drafted the scheme and that he saw it for the first time when the printed paper reached him. We do not know what share Mr. Macphail had in the drafting of the new regulations. He helped, we suppose, in the preliminary conversational discussions. So the whole draft is the offspring of Dr. Mitchell, and Dr. Bourne has adopted it as his own.

This is the genesis of the Regulations that the Senate has been considering for two weeks continuously. The Senate may be congratulated on its excessive amiability, on its readiness to consider a brand new set of regulations drafted by one Fellow and put forward by another Fellow. Here we have a whole scheme of changes, some quite revolu-

tionary in character, put forward before a grave body of Senators. One would naturally presume that there had been a thorough sifting of preliminary discussion, that care had been taken about the whole of the regulations hanging well together, and that no material regulations had been left out. We find from the way that the Fellow in charge of the scheme piloted it in the Senate that he himself had not thoroughly made up his mind on several parts of it; and he repeatedly said that he had an open mind and that the regulations were put forth only tentatively to furnish a basis for discussion. We think that a little more responsible attitude in the matter of putting forward and carrying out any scheme of reform will not be out of place from such an ex-officio member of the Senate as the D.P.I., nor inconsistent with the dignity of the new Senate the members of which are presumably busy men who cannot afford to discuss views intended only to draw them out.

In these circumstances we regret that Mr. Cook's earlier proposal for the appointment of a representative Committee was not carried out. The Committee could have divided into Sub-committees and different parts of the regulations contemplated by Section 25 of the Universities Act could have been assigned to the different Sub-committees, so that when the whole of the regulations should be placed before the Senate there would be the guarantee that they had gone through the preliminary sifting among the members of the Special Committees, and the regulations would have been advocated with greater zeal than was exhibited for some of the regulations recently put forward. That is how they did it in Bombay, and they seem to do these things better in Bombay.

XI

Now coming to the suggested changes themselves, the most important are the rules of affiliation of the colleges and the principles guiding the revision of regulations by the Faculties.

A comparison of the new rules of affiliation with those hitherto existing shows that the new regulations do not err by making it easy for any new college to spring up. Considering the state of things elsewhere, it is a departure in the right direction.

The new provisions relate mainly to the constitution of the managing bodies, the teaching-staff, the accommodation and equipment of the colleges.

The Regulation that requires that every affiliated college shall be under the management of a definitely constituted body is a much needed one. The rules in regard to the constitution are to define the qualifications for membership of the body; its objects, responsibilities, duties, and powers, its relations with the Principal of the College, and the responsibilities, duties, and powers of the Principal in relation to the work carried on in the college, the internal management and the discipline of the college. An insistence by the University on proper educational qualifications and other guarantees of character on the part of the managing members of the institutions entrusted to their charge, and a clear demarcation of the spheres of activity of the managing body and of the Principal will go a great way to remedy some of the evils that the 'aided' institutions have been suffering from.

Properly enough, any changes that may be made in the above rules must be reported to the Syndicate. But that the previous

approval of the Syndicate should be necessary before giving effect to the changes is too large an order. A Syndicate not in sympathy with any institution or any class of institutions may practically put an end to the autonomy of the governing bodies.

Each member of the staff of an affiliated institution must be duly qualified by possessing special knowledge of the subjects he is engaged to teach. His appointment or removal is to be subject to the approval of the Syndicate as also the conditions of his tenure of office which are to be definite. This regulation in effect gives the Syndicate privileges without counterbalancing responsibilities. Considering what difficulties there are in getting the qualifications recognised of able Indian teachers the passing of such a provision would be attended with serious risk. The Syndicate, as it is likely to be constituted in this Presidency, will not be too ready to recognise local merit. As things are, an Indian is at a discount everywhere, more so in the educational field than elsewhere. That the Indian is left in the cold might be altogether a minor matter provided we got always efficient men for work. What the conditions are in the Educational Department, and how men are shifted from place to place and subject to subject is a matter of common knowledge. In Mission Colleges men are chosen for evangelical as well as for educational work. You may come across Messrs. Facing-both-ways and Bye-ends among the staff. Can the Syndicate be expected to speak plainly and, unhesitatingly when the qualifications of such persons come up? Will there not be a readiness to take the qualifications of these men at their face value and will not all the rigour of scrutiny be

reserved for other people? We should be glad to find that the Syndicate human nature is better than the same outside that body.

The provision of residential quarters for the Principal and the teaching staff and of hostels for students will bring the Indian Colleges nearer the Western ideal. The residential system is an inheritance of the monasticism of the middle ages. In England as the Colleges were monastic foundations, the residential system was perpetuated.—Why should we here make a fetish of it? We welcome the introduction of hostels so far as they provide neat and healthy lodgings for students, and wholesome food and pleasant recreations. But we have no unqualified praise for what the hostels may do beyond this. There is a great deal said of discipline in these hostels and of personal supervision. Unless you effectively secure this, the disadvantages of the arrangement will outweigh the advantages. Again with the professed neutrality of Government in matters of religion, is it fair to grant alien religionists opportunities of exercising insidious personal influence of the sort possible in hostels?

Granting there are no evils or that care is taken to minimise them, why should you insist on the college well enough provided otherwise forgoing its opportunities of spreading culture because it has not been able to provide residential quarters for all who do not live with their guardians or parents? A thorough carrying out of this provision with retroactive effect will disaffiliate all the existing colleges—the Presidency College included. And the existing colleges have had so many years to grow in. We should therefore prefer to have these requirements about the hostel and the residential quarters held up as commendable ideals to follow.

We might ask the several colleges to work in that direction, but to lay down anything more as compulsory on all colleges will not do. We should have to wait a very long time for Ranchi Colleges to flourish among us.

The sting of the new draft regulations has been felt by many as lying in the tail. The changes there suggested are many and revolutionary.

These 'principles of University reform' are based on the postulation Standard. late that the standard of the present Matriculation Examination is not sufficiently high to ensure that one that has passed it is competent to enter upon a course of collegiate study. This complaint against the Matriculation standard has been uttered by college professors who find that their lectures are not easily followed by the students of the Junior F. A. classes, and who put down this circumstance to their inadequate knowledge of English. Not all college professors, however, would endorse either the experience or the explanation. Many professors, high school teachers, and other persons connected with education will be found to maintain that the present Matriculate, taking him at the average, is quite equal in general ability to his predecessors. The better sort of Matriculate of the present day, who has benefited by reading-rooms and debating societies, is without doubt superior in respect of general equipment and command of English to the Matriculate of a former period when the intellectual life of schools was somewhat narrow and cheerless. It is a general, though amiable, weakness of elderly folk to glorify their own student-days, to belittle all subsequent educational advance,

and generally to feel uneasy regarding the services of teachers to the community. The change from the method of teaching at school to that at college is abrupt, and the student takes time to accommodate himself to the new environment. During the transition he is naturally not to be seen at his best. For some time at the beginning the European professor's manner of speaking may make his lectures somewhat unintelligible to those who have long been taught only by Indians. When due allowance has been made for these considerations, it will be found that the alleged deterioration of the present-day Matriculate is without any foundation in fact. If, however, some little truth still remains in it, the remedy may be sought in the improvements for which the high school teacher has been clamouring during some years past. No doubt he has to improve his methods of teaching, he must pander less to the cramming tendencies of his pupils and attend more to the interests of sound education. For example, composition work in some schools might easily be better done than it is; 'extra' reading in English might be more systematically stimulated than at present; pupils might be encouraged, even in the lower forms, to speak English oftener than they do, by means of conversation lessons on the subject-matter of the reading-books; and in general the student might be left to do more for himself, and less might be done for him by the teacher, than is commonly the case at present. But then his demand for changes in the conditions of his work must receive reasonable attention from the authorities. He asks for improved prospects, for greater freedom of work than the ignorance and caprice of managers at present allow him, and for closer association than he enjoys now in the work of framing the

Matriculation syllabus and conducting the Matriculation Examination. But how little he is cared for even in matters closely concerning him is shown by his being absolutely shut out of the new Senate, by his exclusion from the list of examiners, and by the refusal of Government to sanction the re-introduction of the English Text-book for the Matriculation examination. With some amelioration in these matters and with smaller numbers in his classes, the high school teacher can do much better work than he does, and the quality of the Matriculate of the future will sensibly improve. Another misconception must also be cleared. It is supposed by some that the large number of failures at the Matriculation Examination is by itself a proof of the deterioration of its standard. That many fail is no disparagement to the few that pass. On the contrary it may be held to raise a presumption that the standard is too high. Even this presumption, however, is not justified by the facts. The real causes of the evil lie deep and must be sought in the whole organisation and management of secondary education.

That the examination is rendered unmanageable owing to the large number of candidates is a reasonable objection. The institution of the School Final Examination promised by the Government of India in its Educational Policy of last year will greatly reduce the magnitude of the University test by drawing away those—at present the majority of Matriculation candidates—that have no idea of entering college.

Nothing is definitely known about this examination except that it will be instituted, that it will supersede the Matriculation as a qualifying test for Government

service, and that it will be conducted by Government. What will be its relation to the Matriculation? The author of the 'principles of University reform' seems to require that even students intended for the University should first pass it before seeking admission to a 'pre-collegiate' class. This would impose two examinations on such students, the School Final in one year and the Matriculation in the next year. If the F.A. examination be retained, as is likely, these unlucky students will have to pass that also before they face the final ordeal of the B.A. degree examination. This is certainly not lightening the examination burden, which is claimed to be one of the merits of the proposed principles of reform. Besides, if every student in a high school, he that intends to enter the University as well as he that intends to enter service, must appear for the School Final examination, is it not merely transferring all the evils of the present Matriculation to the new examination? Has Government any extraordinary powers of averting these evils? So far from this being the case, the public will sooner trust a large examination in the hands of the University than in those of Government. Again, one of the reasons for instituting the new School Final examination is that a different kind of training is required for the student who desires to enter service from that required for the student who desires to enter upon higher study. It was with this end in view that the Education Commission of 1882 recommended the bifurcation of the Upper Secondary course, one side leading up to the University, and the other leading up to the School Final and corresponding to the 'modern' side of English schools. This bifurcation, unfortunately, has nowhere been successfully adopted, even the recent attempt of the Bengal Government in

that direction having come to nothing. Preparation for industrial and commercial pursuits must be different from preparation for the University course, and the Government of India has resolved not to abandon its aim of bifurcation in secondary education, it being "essential to promote diversified types of secondary education, corresponding with the varying needs of practical life." In pursuance of this aim the School Final is to be instituted. It is clear therefore that it is to be the end of a course of study alternative, and not preparatory, to the Matriculation Examination. The 'principles of reform' then are apparently at fault here. This is not all. Which is to be of the higher standard, the Matriculation or the School Final? Taking only proficiency in English, is it those who have four or six additional years of study before them or those who have to enter life at once that ought to be better equipped? Let us remember that the bulk of the intelligent work of the country has to be done by those who enter life after the secondary course. Industry and Commerce, the Railway and the Police services, the Medical and Engineering departments, and the numerous grades of private service absorb the young men that are the products of our secondary schools. These form therefore "a valuable asset, making for the industrial progress and stability of the nation." University men may supply the highest brain power, and the most efficient control; but the main share of the intelligent labour, the organisation and management of multitudinous details, must devolve on the men who, after passing through the secondary schools, have entered upon a course of apprenticeship or technical education. Is it not essential that the School Final which is to be the highest general education test for these should be a sufficient guarantee of capacity to sustain the responsible nature of

their future work? That it ought to be of a higher standard than the Matriculation would appear to have been the view of the Madras Government when they instituted the Upper Secondary Examination; and that seems to be the view of the Government of India, if one may judge from the words of the Educational Policy of last year; "they (the school final examinations) would be of a more searching character than the present Entrance test." Surely this is the sounder policy. But the 'principles' not only confound the different functions of the two examinations, but reverse their relative standards. Sooner or later this bifurcation must come to pass. Just as the 'classical' side leads to the University through the Matriculation, so the 'modern' side must lead to the technical schools through the School Final Examination. The lack of these technical schools is one of the most glaring defects of the present Indian system of education. But as fast as these schools develop the School Final and the 'modern' side will become popular. The degree of differentiation between the Matriculation and the School Final Examinations will decide the stage at which the bifurcation should begin. If the difference is slight, the bifurcation may be confined to the last year; if it is more deep-seated, it will have to begin earlier. But if an extra year is to be given to either side, it should be to the one that leads to the School Final Examination.

The Supreme Government has ruled that The Matriculation age limit of 16 should be adopted by all Indian Universities for the Matriculation Examination. The matter is therefore taken out of the range of controversy. We are not averse to the principle of an age limit, knowing that it is adopted in most Universities. But we

think that 16 is too high for India and should have greatly preferred the Universities Commission's limit of 15. Objection has been taken to the Government of India's interference with the discretion of the reformed Universities, and certainly the reasons urged in defence of this extraordinary procedure do not carry conviction. So long as an age limit not ridiculously low was adopted by each University, it should have been left alone. The hardship that might be caused to the few students who left the jurisdiction of one University and came under that of another should not have swayed the Government of India so far as to infringe the autonomy of the Universities so recently reconstituted for the express purpose of exercising such autonomy.

Then comes the recommendation to reduce the existing Second Grade Colleges practically to the position of preparatory schools for colleges proper. The question to consider is whether the change will effect the desired improvement. There is discontent with the present attainments of University candidates. A year's additional course for the ill-equipped Matriculate, in the pre-collegiate class or the pre-collegiate department of the college proper, is to make him an apt scholar for the B.A. course. As the ordinary Pass B.A. course extends to three years, and as the pre-collegiate class is to be for a year, there is not any substantial change with regard to the period of time devoted to work in the college. The change may be looked at from the point of view of the boys, of the Second Grade Colleges that are in large of them now, and of the First Grade Examinations that would take charge of them.

ulation as a qualification half the number of

students going up for the F.A. examination studying in the Second Grade Colleges; and the First Grade Colleges educate the other half. The University reformer says in effect to the half study only one year and proceed then to the First Grade College. Instead of your B.A. course being split up half and half between the Second Grade and First Grade Colleges, it will be split up into a fourth and a three-fourths course. For a good many of these it would mean leaving their parents' homes and spending an additional year in a strange place, in new surroundings. It would thus have a deterrent effect on a large number of these youths in pursuing their studies.

Suppose the change is resolved on and the Second Grade College students are sent out to the First Grade Colleges earlier by a year, the question of accommodating these students must be considered. Will the existing First Grade Colleges be able to take in those that seek admission? We should think not. Even supposing that they expand to the full limit of their capacity they will be not be able to absorb the whole of these students. This would mean an appreciable number stopping after a year's further study after the present Matriculation stage.

As against the disadvantage of leaving the parental home and residing in a strange place, there is the advantage of coming under the influence of presumably superior teachers. We are afraid the influence of the superior teacher will be reserved more for the higher class students, and the students from the Second Grade Colleges will come oftener under the influence of teachers who would be on a par with their earlier teachers. If we confine ourselves to the existing arrangements in this University, there is not much to

choose between the teaching staff of the F.A. classes in the First Grade Colleges and that in the corresponding classes in the Second Grade Colleges. As for personal influence and individual attention, there is naturally more of it in the Second Grade Colleges,—the F.A. being their highest classes causing them to exult over the successes or grieve over the failures of these.

Again, the winnowing done by the F.A. examination after two years of study in the College classes seems to be more satisfactory than the rough sifting after a year, as now suggested. The B.A. classes will have less hopeful material to work up; and even the additional year will not avail because of the larger number of the less hopeful kind acting as a dead weight on progress.

The present F.A. is a minimum qualification for the B. E. and the M. B. and C. M. courses. Will the pre-collegiate course serve this purpose?

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We do not suggest that the F. A. Colleges are incapable of further improvement; and that the F. A. Course is quite admirable. There are various improvements the Colleges can effect, or must be made to effect. We expect that the University Inspection Commission would have something to say with regard to these colleges, specially in what directions they must severally improve. The Boards of Studies may surely make the F. A. course a part of the whole course, dovetailing the studies with the studies in the B. A., and making of the two a properly co-ordinated whole. It would be surely not consistent with zeal for improvement to take up the self-complacent attitude of the statu quoite. But the zeal for improvement must not commit us to measures which will have the effect of restricting the activities of institutions that have been doing on the whole good work, and lessening the opportunities of culture of people none too lavishly endowed with the world's goods.

It has been felt that the institution of a new Honours Course will make for the advancement of real culture among the

think that 16 is too high for India and should have greatly preferred the Universities Commission's limit of 15. Objection has been taken to the Government of India's interference with the discretion of the reformed Universities, and certainly the reasons urged in defence of this extraordinary procedure do not carry conviction. So long as an age limit not ridiculously low was adopted by each University, it should have been left alone. The hardship that might be caused to the few students who left the jurisdiction of one University and came under that of another should not have swayed the Government of India so far as to infringe the autonomy of the Universities so recently reconstituted for the express purpose of exercising such autonomy.

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students, and there will no longer be a sacrifice of the interest of those capable of advanced courses of study for the sake of the indifferent student. That such a differentiation is desirable, that there must be no 'frashing' of the quicker hunters in the field of knowledge will be admitted by all. But will lengthening the Honours Course to 5 years be a service to those that take it up? Those that go in for the professions of Law, Medicine and Engineering will find it to their advantage to get through the Pass Course and qualify for the professional studies. The only men that may be expected to take the Honours Course will be those that enter the teaching profession and the leisured, monied classes. In view of the possibly small number that may take up the course, will it be worth the while of the colleges to have the staff and equipment added to for the additional classes? If the Honours Course is to be an additional course to come after the Pass B.A., it means only the old M.A. Without the details which form the essence of the change suggested, we are not able to decide on the merits of the reform.

The suggestion that the candidates for the new Entrance Examination should make up their minds before passing is as to what colleges they desire to pursue their further studies in and that they should join the chosen colleges alone after they are declared qualified for college studies, introduces a speculative element in matters of college arrangements. If a college has accommodation for fifty students, it will have to admit provisionally twice the number, if from the standard of the Examinations and the average attainments of the candidates only fifty per cent. may be expected to pass. If the Examination results disappoint either way, either by a 75 p. c. or

a 25 p. c. pass, the college that has thus trafficked with regard to its students *in posse* will suffer either from shortage of accommodation or shortage of finance. If there are a number of competing colleges, as there are, there will be a race to secure the most promising material; a sly coarting of the second grade colleges by the First, with undesirable results.

As regards transfers of students, we have not heard complaints that the present rules are not strict enough. We believe they are well observed. The students know their own good; if not, their parents do; and there are no wanton changes from one college to another. The passing of the rule that the previous permission of the Senate should be obtained in all cases of transfer is putting a needless obstacle in the way of college students pursuing their studies. A parent or guardian gets transferred from one place to another. The pupil naturally seeks to change his college. A family is in flourishing circumstances and a boy of the family studies in a tip-top college; having of the best and moving with the best of the land. An earning member of the family dies and it is brought to reduced circumstances in consequence. The boy can study only in a much cheaper place and an out-of-the-way college, possibly one in a rative state, may be chosen. Why should the Senate be moved in such cases? The present provisions about leaving certificates seem to be sufficient deterrents against undesirable transfers from one college to another.

The certificates granted by Colleges to students for admission to Degree Examinations are to fix on the colleges granting them the responsibility of guaranteeing that the certificate-holders are qualified for the degree. One

ostensible object of educational reforms, of the change of nomenclature from the F. A. and B. A. classes to 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th year College classes is to make the passing of examinations less prominently synonymous with education. But this fixing of the responsibility about granting certificates to students, is not this likely to bring the cramming system again to the forefront?

The attention of our readers and that of the authorities of our University is drawn to an excellent suggestion by the Hon. Mr. Justice Mitra of Calcutta as to the mode of appointing Examiners. A similar suggestion has been made in Madras, but it has yet to be taken up by an influential Senator. The whole of Mr. Justice Mitra's note is reprinted elsewhere in this number, but parts of it deserve prominent notice, and will be reproduced here also.

"It seems to me to be very necessary that an examiner should have a correct appreciation of the proper standard, and such appreciation can only be attained by experience in teaching and thorough knowledge of the average capacity of pupils who prepare themselves for a particular examination. He who has often attempted to convey knowledge up to a certain standard and received responses from the pupils is the best judge of the standard, provided he has also a grip of the requirements of the Senate and a fair knowledge of the subject-matter."

"Now, the persons best fitted to be examiners of candidates for the Entrance Examination cannot be raw young men from the University with however high degrees as to proficiency in learning. The men who fulfil the requirements indicated above are the teachers themselves, experienced headmasters and other teachers of high schools, and lecturers and professors of colleges who have served, at least for some time, as headmasters and teachers of high schools. It is curious that we have up to this practically ignored the claims of school teachers to be examiners. We have considered them

to be unworthy of being examined and have thus given them a status in the training line far inferior to headmasters and teachers in European countries. The duties and responsibilities of headmasters are far more onerous than those of professors."

"I fear the Senate of the University is considerably to blame for the present state of things and it is time that we should mend our ways. I would, therefore, suggest that out of 100 examiners that may be required for the Entrance Examination in 1906, 20 per cent, to begin with, should be headmasters or other teachers in the Entrance Classes of schools. I think we may easily get 20 men from school teachers who will fulfil the necessary requirements of good examiners. The remaining 80 should be selected from lecturers and professors of colleges, preference being given to those who have a fair amount of school experience."

This is surely a modest demand. In our own columns we asked for nothing more than the inclusion in the Board of Examiners for each subject of a high school teacher or two. If the principle be once recognised, its extension is bound to follow. Is it too much to expect that some enterprising Senator, whose anxiety for justice is stronger than his desire to avoid offence, will bring the matter before the Syndicate, and, if necessary, before the Senate as well?

We cannot pass over in silence the remark made by a distinguished English Teaching Indian that he should like to see English taught in high schools by those to whom it is the mother-tongue. Intended merely to enforce the statement that English is a difficult language to learn, it ought not perhaps to be considered a deliberate statement of policy or a definite step in a programme of reform. Also the generous nature of the gentleman, we know, often leads him to 'make mountains' of his own shortcomings as well as of other people's virtues. But such a remark is often made with more serious significance by a

certain sort of persons, and it becomes necessary to combat it. The financial difficulty is of course insuperable, even the Second Grade Colleges that have European or Eurasian Principals having to starve the lower staff and abandon improvements to make both ends meet. But is it quite so necessary to have an Englishman to teach English to high school classes? No doubt pronunciation and idiom would be better taught by him than by an Indian teacher. But can he always make himself understood? Every now and then there occur ideas and sentiments, general observations on human nature, truths of morality, exhortations and appeals to the inner feelings of pupils which it is absolutely necessary to convey in their vernacular. Would an Englishman attempt the task? and if he would, could he? The benefit would be trifling, though real, and must be bought at an extravagant price. Besides as time goes on, Indians learn to pronounce better, and in Madras particularly English is spoken with a degree of correctness which is the envy of other parts of India. Even in England the desire to appoint Frenchmen to teach French is disappearing, and the improved methods of teaching modern languages are rapidly obviating the necessity of appointing foreigners to teach their languages. Of course Englishmen can perfect their mastery of a foreign tongue by a sojourn in the land where it is spoken; and holiday excursions both by teachers and pupils are very common. We have no such facilities as regards English, and that makes it the more necessary for a teacher to take special pains to learn English properly. But for the ordinary work of the world let us remember that it is sufficient to make oneself understood without straining after an unattainable finish.

An ex-student contributes to this number a short article on the Selection Examination as it appears to the student. There can be no doubt he has laid his finger on certain weaknesses of the examination; but he does not take, as indeed he cannot be expected to take, the teacher's point of view. On the whole the article is a moderate statement of a grievance which must be acknowledged to be genuine; and it is hoped that it will be helpful to the teacher in the performance of one of his most distressing duties. Various opinions are held of this examination. Some consider it necessary and proper, some call it a necessary evil, while others, our contributor among them, condemn it as a piece of tyranny indulged in for the selfish purpose of showing a fictitious percentage of passes. This last charge is doubtless true in most cases, and for the good name of manager and teacher it would be well to give up the examination altogether. But the University does not want any to appear who have no reasonable chance of passing, and notwithstanding the statistics which our contributor professes to be able to produce, we venture to assert that in the great majority of cases the pupils kept back from the examination are without the slightest chance of passing. Nevertheless there is something very like bad faith when a headmaster takes one hundred boys into the sixth form in January, knowing that only sixty of these will be sent up by him for the examination, and that even of these sixty only twenty will pass finally. He may be the victim of circumstances, but it is worth considering whether moral persuasion (or dissuasion) in the case of the unworthy pupils is not preferable to forcible detention. So the Swadesi movement in Bengal, from being economic and political, has become educational

also. The students of Bengal (Western and Eastern) have raised the cry of a National University. It is difficult to say anything about it in the absence of intimate knowledge of the actual state of affairs. Violent political feeling appears to have convulsed the educational machinery of the province (or provinces?) and one cannot say when matters will settle down or in what form. The view has already been expressed in these columns that it is undesirable for students to take active part in politics. But we strongly disapprove of the steps taken by the authorities of the Bengal Government to enforce the view and to check this undesirable political activity of students. It is a temporary aberration that would have died with the cause that gave it birth. Advice and gentle admonition from teachers might have hastened its disappearance, and if teachers were averse to exercise their influence in that direction, they might have been addressed in a friendly unoffending manner. If even that did not avail, the wisest thing would have been to let the storm blow over, trusting the law to take due account of breaches of the peace or encroachments upon the liberty of individuals. Sir Andrew Fraser's action in respect of the Harrison Road disturbance was ill-advised mainly for the reason that it is difficult to believe the underlying motive to have been the desire to save the offending student from the rigour of the ordinary law. His Honour's circular too to the heads of colleges in the mofussil was unhappily conceived and unhappily worded. But the Magistrate of Rungpore in the new Province has, by his astounding indiscretion, brought the administration into contempt and imperilled the local schools. If the students sang *Bande Mataram* and attended a Swadesi

meeting of the elders, they did no great wrong unless it was school-time, and then the heads of the institutions concerned would have vindicated their own discipline. The interference of external authority in school matters is to be strongly deprecated, and it would not have surprised us in the least if the principals of the schools had resented the action of the District Magistrate and told him to mind his business. His subsequent promise to excuse the fines if the parents would guarantee their boys not attending public meetings was another blunder. Who would ever have thought of punishing boys for attending a public meeting? This is simply intolerable. No prestige in the world should prevent the Government from immediately undoing the mischief caused by the ill-considered action of its Rungpore agent. The unhappy parents are to be deeply commiserated. The Heads of the Schools are in a most critical situation, but it is hoped that in the event they will find it possible to maintain their supremacy within the school-walls and avert the disgrace that would fall on the teaching profession if they should become the pliant tools of external authority. As for the students of Rungpore, they have had martyrdom thrust upon them too early, and we only trust that they will resort to the most thoughtful and sober patriots in Bengal for guidance in this trying time, and will not hastily take up any uncompromising attitude. The authorities must also remember that they stand to lose heavily in the matter. Supposing they saved their face and scored a triumph in the immediate present, they would yet leave an amount of sullen discontent in the hearts of a whole generation which must inevitably embitter public life and harass the administration for many years to come.

As we learn more and more of the oneness of society and realise fully our social obligations, we shall hear less and less of repudiation of claims on us with the words, "Am I my brother's keeper?" Education is one of the claims. The obligation for all of us to see that every one receives the kind of education best fitted for him will be more thoroughly realised. Till such a period should arrive, the farther-seeing, the keener-feeling brother would lay on himself the task neglected by the community and do the best he could to make up for the com-

munity's shortcomings. Such a brother of man was Dr. Barnardo who died on the 19th of September last. Of him O. S. most beautifully says in *Punch* (quoted in *National Waifs Magazine*, Oct.)

By birthright pledged to misery, crime and shame,

Jetson of London streets, her 'Waifs and Strays,'
Whom she the Mother, bore without a name,

And left and went her ways—

He stopped to save them, set them by his side,

Breathed conscious life into the still-born soul,

Taught truth and honour, love and loyal pride,

Courage and self-control.

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B. A. Examination.

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DIFFERENT KINDS OF SCHOOLS: THEIR MANAGEMENT.

IF an impartial reader were to go through the annual reports of the Department of Public Instruction, he would observe that in point of efficiency of teaching, schools managed by the Government are the best, Mission schools come next, and indigenous schools come last. Year after year the same fact is repeated in the reports, but neither the Department nor any one interested in education has pointed out the causes for the marked inefficiency of aided schools and of indigenous schools in particular. None the less it is very important that the defects must be exposed and rectified; for it is the declared policy of the Government of India to encourage as much as possible the growth of indigenous educational enterprise and retire completely from the field leaving the education of the people in their own hands. But if there should be a marked inefficiency in teaching in aided institutions, will Government be justified in withdrawing itself from the direct management of its own schools or winking at the defects of the aided schools? Let us therefore examine the causes that are at work for the efficiency of the one and the want of it in others.

First. As regards Government schools,

XI

high or low; these have in all cases a suitable building with a sufficient compound, a complete set of furniture and apparatus and an adequate supply of staff. The tenure of office of teachers is not uncertain, their pay is decent, the prospects are encouraging, and there is ample provision for the overworked teachers availing themselves of long leave or even retiring with an allowance. Under such a system the teachers look bright and healthy and work with vigour and enthusiasm. Again there is no anxiety on the part of the Department to swell the classes overmuch. The fees of students cannot be bargained for, nor promotions from class to class obtainable for the mere asking. Again there is neither political nor religious propaganda to distract the attention of the teachers and the scholars. Certainly it is no surprise that in such schools the results are as they should be—better than in other schools, although it is sometimes the boast of the latter that there is the wholesome influence of the personal element of a permanent teacher or teachers.

Secondly: As regards Mission schools:—Almost all of them have buildings of their own, have a pretty fair supply of the necessary apparatus, a fair number of teachers and some nucleus fund to fall back on. The Home contribution to the Missionary bodies here just covers in many cases only the

salaries of the managing missionaries, and the rest of the staff has to be maintained only with the fees and Government aid with the result that the tenure of office is uncertain, pay low, prospects almost nothing, no provision for old age, or for sickness. To keep a school going, money is wanted. And to catch boys and fees is the one problem for which the school doors are kept wide open. Cheap fees and indiscriminate promotions become the temptation and thoroughly demoralise the students and their parents. Add to this the one leading idea of all missions—that of evangelisation for which the young ones with their immature minds are wanted in large numbers. The classes get overcrowded, efforts at evangelisation breed an excessive familiarity in the relations of a teacher with his pupils, and there is always a laxity in discipline. Further, secular education is subordinated to religious propaganda, with very bad results: manliness, self-reliance, and the patience to bear the ills of life give place to self-distrust and a depending more and more upon the bounty of the missionary given away freely on the chance of the recipient embracing the foreign religion. Sometimes student-impostors cheat the missionaries, and in other cases the teaching of the Bible or a common prayer leads to a dissembling or a bitter animosity on the part of the students. Thus such religious teaching not answering to the aspirations of the students, has always the opposite effect. They become sceptics, restless and denationalized.

Again, non-Christian teachers who are always indispensable in Mission schools in spite of the repeated open protests in Missionary Conferences, are at a great disadvantage. They cannot talk freely with students of their own denomination on their religion

within school premises or take active part in any public religious demonstrations outside. Whatever may be the length of their efficient service, they may be sent away at any time as soon as Christian teachers are available for their places. Insecurity, want of freedom in teaching, lack of provision for rest, these are the serious defects in Mission schools which affect the efficiency of teaching and the character of the scholars and the non-Christian teachers.

Lastly as regards indigenous schools.—The evolution of these schools is a very curious phenomenon. When large grants were first promised and given as the result of the various despatches of the Secretary of State, many indigenous schools transformed themselves into aided schools. Almost all village schools managed only by one man with an usher are of this description even to-day.

Again, when the Government closed many of its secondary schools and colleges, it handed over its buildings and appliances to committees of Indian gentlemen to manage the schools of themselves in the several localities, securing sufficient guarantees for the proper maintenance of the same. Further, owing to the difficulty of entering Government service and owing also to want of prospects in Mission schools, many adventure schools have been established by discontented men, managed at first by the founders and afterwards passing into the hands of committees created by them.

Excepting in the case of those schools handed over to a committee by the Government, all others are mostly without suitable buildings of their own and lack a fair supply of furniture and apparatus.

As regards management, they may be divided into two classes:—those managed by a

single proprietor-manager and those managed by a committee. Here also all the evils of cheap fees and indiscriminate promotions exist. And invariably all the Indian schools have no subscribed fund at their back so that they have to depend entirely on fees and grants-in-aid. The staff is always miserably recruited, low paid and that irregularly and constantly changed. Where a single proprietor is the head of a school, he takes the lion's share of the income, just running the school on a starvation allowance. It is often a common thing that a vacancy in the staff will not be filled up for months, until the time for inspection by Government, and teachers are appointed only for the working months in a session and discharged for the holidays, enabling the manager to pocket the savings thus effected.

In schools which were first started by adventurers and then placed under the nominal control of a committee to obtain support from the people, collisions always take place between the founders and the committee and the result is inefficiency of work and laxity of discipline. The appointment of teachers is made on the principle of class interests whether they are Brahmins, or non-Brahmins, Vaishnavites or Saivites and so on according to the class to which the man in power at the time belongs. Sectarian and caste prejudices sway the selections of men for offices, not intrinsic merit.

One of the unwritten but nevertheless understood rules of conduct on the part of the staff is that they must often pay visits to the trustees as the members of the committee are known in these parts, report to them seen and unseen events of importance in the school, notably any thing particular in the conduct of the Principal. Curious are the ways in which

the trustees deal with the Principal or Headmaster. Appointments or dismissals are made without his consent or recommendation. Leave to members of the staff cannot be granted by him for more than a very limited period. The distribution of work among the staff must be done by the committee against all the principles of education.

Again, every trustee has got the privilege of granting a certain number of free scholarships to his near relations—a privilege which is very much valued and for which alone he is on the committee. This is enjoyed in perpetuity by the student, however undeserving he may prove to be and the Headmaster dare not molest these favoured students.

Even in committee schools, unqualified men, men who keep terms at law, half-time workers are engaged to effect saving of money.

To judge of the efficiency of any teacher or even of the Headmaster, the boys are often appealed to and their verdict good or bad is accepted and acted upon.

The outside public are unfortunately ignorant of the sorrows of a Headmaster or Principal in a school under a committee of Indians, since their sufferings do not come to light. But all the same the bad state of things does exist, and if only a Conference of Headmasters be summoned and confessions recorded, they will certainly confirm the difficulties and sufferings pointed out above.

Many of these committees are not registered bodies, and they are answerable to none outside themselves. The members are appointed for life and they have no vested interest in the school. The system is self-elective, there being no regular rules published to go by. Accounts are never audited by outsiders and they are never published. Following on the lines of

salaries of the managing missionaries, and the rest of the staff has to be maintained only with the fees and Government aid with the result that the tenure of office is uncertain, pay low, prospects almost nothing, no provision for old age, or for sickness. To keep a school going, money is wanted. And to catch boys and fees is the one problem for which the school doors are kept wide open. Cheap fees and indiscriminate promotions become the temptation and thoroughly demoralise the students and their parents. Add to this the one leading idea of all missions—that of evangelisation for which the young ones with their immature minds are wanted in large numbers. The classes get overcrowded, efforts at evangelisation breed an excessive familiarity in the relations of a teacher with his pupils, and there is always a laxity in discipline. Further, secular education is subordinated to religious propaganda, with very bad results: manliness, self-reliance, and the patience to bear the ills of life give place to self-distrust and a depending more and more upon the bounty of the missionary given away freely on the chance of the recipient embracing the foreign religion. Sometimes student-imposters cheat the missionaries, and in other cases the teaching of the Bible or a common prayer leads to a dissembling or a bitter animosity on the part of the students. Thus such religious teaching not answering to the aspirations of the students, has always the opposite effect. They become sceptics, restless and denationalized.

Again, non-Christian teachers who are always indispensable in Mission schools in spite of the repeated open protests in Missionary Conferences, are at a great disadvantage. They cannot talk freely with students of their own denomination on their religion

within school premises or take active part in any public religious demonstrations outside. Whatever may be the length of their efficient service, they may be sent away at any time as soon as Christian teachers are available for their places. Insecurity, want of freedom in teaching, lack of provision for rest, these are the serious defects in Mission schools which affect the efficiency of teaching and the character of the scholars and the non-Christian teachers.

Lastly as regards indigenous schools:—The evolution of these schools is a very curious phenomenon. When large grants were first promised and given as the result of the various despatches of the Secretary of State, many indigenous schools transformed themselves into aided schools. Almost all village schools managed only by one man with an usher are of this description even to-day.

Again, when the Government closed many of its secondary schools and colleges, it handed over its buildings and appliances to committees of Indian gentlemen to manage the schools of themselves in the several localities, securing sufficient guarantees for the proper maintenance of the same. Further, owing to the difficulty of entering Government service and owing also to want of prospects in Mission schools, many adventure schools have been established by discontented men, managed at first by the founders and afterwards passing into the hands of committees created by them.

Excepting in the case of those schools handed over to a committee by the Government, all others are mostly without suitable buildings of their own and lack a fair supply of furniture and apparatus.

As regards management, they may be divided into two classes:—those managed by a

single proprietor-manager and those managed by a committee. Here also all the evils of cheap fees and indiscriminate promotions exist. And invariably all the Indian schools have no subscribed fund at their back so that they have to depend entirely on fees and grants-in-aid. The staff is always miserably recruited, low paid and that irregularly and constantly changed. Where a single proprietor is the head of a school, he takes the lion's share of the income, just running the school on a starvation allowance. It is often a common thing that a vacancy in the staff will not be filled up for months, until the time for inspection by Government, and teachers are appointed only for the working months in a session and discharged for the holidays, enabling the manager to pocket the savings thus effected.

In schools which were first started by adventurers and then placed under the nominal control of a committee to obtain support from the people, collisions always take place between the founders and the committee and the result is inefficiency of work and laxity of discipline. The appointment of teachers is made on the principle of class interests whether they are Brahmins, or non-Brahmins, Vaishnavites or Saivites and so on according to the class to which the man in power at the time belongs. Sectarian and caste prejudices sway the selections of men for offices, not intrinsic merit.

One of the unwritten but nevertheless understood rules of conduct on the part of the staff is that they must often pay visits to the trustees, as the members of the committee are known in these parts, report to them seen and unseen events of importance in the school, notably any thing particular in the conduct of the Principal. Curious are the ways in which

the trustees deal with the Principal or Headmaster. Appointments or dismissals are made without his consent or recommendation. Leave to members of the staff cannot be granted by him for more than a very limited period. The distribution of work among the staff must be done by the committee against all the principles of education.

Again, every trustee has got the privilege of granting a certain number of free scholarships to his near relations—a privilege which is very much valued and for which alone he is on the committee. This is enjoyed in perpetuity by the student, however undeserving he may prove to be and the Headmaster dare not molest these favoured students.

Even in committee schools, unqualified men, men who keep terms at law, half-time workers are engaged to effect saving of money.

To judge of the efficiency of any teacher or even of the Headmaster, the boys are often appealed to and their verdict good or bad is accepted and acted upon.

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some of the union bodies, some of these committees, to earn more grants, keep a duplicate system of accounts.

While there is much wrangling in the Senate, Conferences and newspapers about ideals, syllabuses, systems and examinations, the crying defects of school management which alone count for 90 per cent. of the existing defects are overlooked. It is certainly possible for the Government, if it only will, to insist on a more efficient system of management and thus safeguard the interests of the scholars and make the noble profession more attractive to those desirous of teaching the young and serving the country.

PLAIN SPEECH.

RECRUITMENT OF PRIMARY TEACHERS.

It has been shown in the July number of the *Review* that a very large number of young men, more than 12,000, pass out of the highest classes of Primary and Lower Secondary schools or departments every year, without the means to enable them to continue their studies to higher stages. Of these, only less than a fifth become primary schoolmasters. Of the remainder, those who have nearly completed their period of youth are applicants for minor offices under Government or public bodies. What their number exactly is we have no means of judging. But making due allowance for a large number that may thus be provided for, a very large number, perhaps more than half, leave school at an age too early to commence life. These do little or no useful work and merely await advancing years to discover the want of subsistence. A very large class, in fact, are of no use to the country at a later period of life. If, however, they were to volunteer their unpaid services,

sometimes in offices, and often even for the domestic service of public officers, who, they expect, will be able to advance their cause when opportunity arrives. Many are just able to command their maintenance from their family resources. But having nothing to put their hands to, they spend their time in enforced inactivity or worse. The period thus spent militates against their utility in later life, and the desultory habits of a more or less barren youth scare them away at a later period from such work as requires strenuous energy and continued application. Some steps could be taken to attract this large class of youths into the teaching profession. They and their guardians would very gladly avail themselves of any opportunities that may be afforded to keep them usefully employed, to improve them, and provide them with some definite object in late life to work towards. To secure in anticipation their services in later life in the cause of primary education, a number of free-scholarships may be provided in Lower and Upper Secondary schools under public management. Even private managers may be asked to co-operate with the Government and public bodies in providing such free-scholarships. The guardians of these youths may be asked to enter into an undertaking on their behalf, that in consideration of such free-scholarships, on the completion of their higher courses of study, they will take up the work of primary schoolmasters. This would not at all involve any additional expenditure. Most secondary schools are capable of affording the additional accommodation required for such free-scholars. Considering the very small percentage of the present paying scholars of these institutions who have any idea of entering this profession, this system would not seriously diminish the existing income from fees. A small number of very poor boys, that now

continue their education with difficulty, may also be tempted to take advantage of the opportunity that may thus be offered of seeking their education at no cost to themselves. But considering the responsibility involved in later life, the proportion of the present paying scholars that may thus seek free-scholarships would be very low indeed. The gain that would thus accrue to the community, in the shape of the bespoken services of the young men in the cause of primary education, being a very substantial one, any slight decrease in the fee income may be submitted to without complaint, and this would sooner or later be compensated by the normal increase in the number of youths seeking secondary education. Great care will have to be taken to see that the youths selected for such free-scholarships are really qualified, physically and mentally, for the work they shall have to engage in later on. Under such a system, not only shall we have a much larger number of young men entering the profession, but a considerable improvement in the quality of the profession may also be secured.

Provision may also be made in the existing Upper Secondary schools to afford some professional training for such youths. The stringent and onerous regulations now promulgated for the conduct of training institutions are not likely to attract private agencies in future to this kind of work. But there can be no possible objection to utilising existing high schools for doing some work of this kind. A primary department may, with ease and considerable advantage, be added to such of these high schools as do not already possess it. The staff of most of these institutions already possess the educational and professional qualifications requisite for

the task. The free scholar destined for an educational career may be excused from attending the teaching in those subjects of secondary school instruction a knowledge of which may not be urgently required for a primary schoolmaster. The time thus available might be employed in affording theoretical and practical instruction. Object lessons in elementary science may be made compulsory in Lower Secondary classes of high schools; or at least such lessons may be easily provided for these youths. They would thus obtain some knowledge of elementary science which is of such absolute importance to the primary teacher. Thus with little or no extra outlay, a great deal of work in the direction of training primary teachers may be done in high schools. No doubt such work cannot come up to the level of the work that can be turned out by institutions specially maintained for the purpose. But such training as may be afforded under the system sketched out may be accepted as the second best. In the case of those institutions where the number of such free-scholars are few, the existing staff may be found willing to undertake the slightly extra work that may devolve on them. If necessary the Government may make a small grant to such teachers to encourage the system. In places where the number of such scholars may be large, the addition to the staff of a single qualified teacher may be quite sufficient to enable the work to be carried on without any strain. Public bodies may be charged with the slight increase of expenditure that may thus be involved in schools under their management. And in case of schools under private management, a Government grant-in-aid of the salary of the additional teacher required may be made. The charge to the state of such a system

would be very very small, compared with the cost of the direct maintenance of training schools. An examination at the end of their lower secondary or upper secondary course in the subjects of general instruction as well as in professional subjects may test the professional fitness of the youths. This system will not in any way seriously compete with the work of training schools, as no scholarships in aid of maintenance are to be provided. The fact that pupil teachers may secure their training in or near about their native places will encourage a large number to seek this method of improving their general education as well as of securing a professional footing in later life. If the system be adopted, the recognition of untrained teachers may in course of time be done away with, and the teachers who have passed through this course may be recognised as trained teachers of the second class. Such a course appears the only one that may be easily adopted to secure a considerable increase in the existing supply of primary teachers, without a corresponding increase in the expenditure of the State for the purpose.

K. SESHU AIYAR.

MEN OF ACTION ON EDUCATION.

OF late attention has been drawn to what men of worldly success have to say upon the little-discussed question of the efficacy of 'specialised' learning in turning out prudent men of business. Opinion has been expressed to the effect that after all specialised learning or "book-learning" is of no good unless it gives room to plenty of practical training. From the studied observation of men of business—among the commercial, engineering and lawyer classes—it has been taken as a general dictum that book learning, theoretical knowledge, in other words, is after all a failure in

producing intelligent men of practical and sound common sense. For, is it not true that pure theoretical knowledge stifles "creative genius"? Is it not also a psychological truth that "the acceptance of ready-made opinion 'kills' the original thinking powers and unbiassed resourcefulness of the mind"? Hence the problem before us is how best we may combine practical training with theoretical knowledge in all our educational system. Without necessarily turning our educational institutions into so many technical schools, the question is how we may make our pupils learn to use their practical common sense and manifest their resourcefulness of the mind. The importance of the question widens if we turn our eyes to the several educational commissions that have been set up on inquiry in several parts of the world. One such commission was organised soon after the South African war. The unlimited resourcefulness of the Boer intellect was an object of wonder and admiration, and it contrasted very favorably with the 'learned' officers of the British army. The facts that were adduced by the commission were startling. For example, men trained in the Military-Staff-College were expected to turn the tide of affairs during the South African campaign at a critical moment. But in many cases the highly educated British officers proved no match to the uncultured but yet intelligent Boer officers. Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener had not been trained in any institution. They rose to such positions as they now occupy purely by their own unrestrained powers of intellect and superior abilities of applied intelligence. I need not weary the readers with many instances, but I will only mention Cromwell, who was only a farmer, Warren Hastings (?) and Olive who were ordinary clerks, Mr. Chamberlain who began life as a trader, and

Lord Cromer who began as an ordinary soldier. These I mention as splendid examples of men who were not hampered by the pedantry of book-knowledge or by the 'stuffing-process' of school-masters.

Before we venture to propose any reformation in the method of teaching it is necessary to have a clear idea of what it is that we should strive for. We must give up dull memorising. The teacher of physical science, or, for that matter, of Roscoe's Elements of Chemistry, has no other aim but to stuff the pupils' brains with a lot of information. The teacher of Geometry has no other aim but to get his pupils to repeat *verbatim* Euclid's elements, with or without sense. The teacher of Geography insists upon the IIIrd Form pupil repeating the exports and imports though he knows the meaning neither of exports and imports nor of hemp, jute and the like. This process of memorising is carried even to the collegiate course to some extent. The result in the long run is:—"Intelligence is rarely awakened, and independent judgment is not encouraged. Instead of concentrating one's intelligence upon the solution of a problem, and instead of exercising one's judgment in taking the initiative in the practical world, the schooled man tries to argue from certain theories which he might have learned about in books". (*The Nineteenth Century and After-March, 1903.*) This in the words of the great German writer is the result in the long run of the modern system of education. The fruits of education are to be seen in the amount of originality manifested by the recipients; not merely in the amount of knowledge possessed, but in the right and intelligent application of knowledge. We have always to fix before our eyes the need for awakening the mental initiative of the pupils, invigorating their thinking

powers, and encouraging them to use their common sense.

I have been expatiating on the general principles of education, for they are the results of the experience of worldly men of great success which have with some unwillingness come to be accepted by even the conservative self-contained class of teachers. If then the right principles are understood, those on which our teaching should be based, it is not difficult to perceive what improvements may be effected in our methods. Let us take Geography to begin with. What is systematic memorising is carried on! Having shown or asked to be shown the boundaries of England, cannot the student be asked to point out by a little exercising of common sense what the nature of the climate will be, if we have taught them the ocean currents, the effects of mountains on the clouds, the insular condition of the country, the zone in which it lies, etc.? Cannot we then, instead of stuffing their brains with the animal and mineral products of the country in accordance with our dull routine, extract from them the probable answers if we have already taught them in previous discourses the general effects of climate on the breed of animals, and those of the physical features of a country on the industries of a nation? Thus by a process of suggestions, hints and intelligent manipulation of school materials, e.g., maps, globes, and pictures the intelligence of the pupils can be awakened. We shall on a future occasion dwell in more detail on the teaching of this and other subjects.

P.

* DISTRESSED PARENTS, A PUBLIC SCHOOL-BOY, AND SOME REFLECTIONS.
I.

All the readers of the *Westminster Gazette* know of "Kappa's" trouble. He is hugely disappointed in the public school boy—and more particularly in one typical specimen. He is—if one might hazard a guess—an uncle, returning with great expectations. We have all read his excellent and earnest papers, and given him our sympathy. He finds an echo in thousands of other disappointed uncles and distressed parents. They use the most divergent and inadequate forms of expression for this vague sense that the result has not come out good enough; they put it contradictorily and often wrongly, but the sense is widespread and real and justifiable, and we owe a great debt to "Kappa" for an accurate diagnosis of what in the aggregate amounts to a grave national and social evil.

The trouble with "Kappa's" particular public-school boy is his unfit imagination, the apathetic commonness of his attitude to life at large. He is almost stupidly not interested in the mysteries of material fact, nor in the ridules and great dramatic movements of history, indifferent to any form of beauty, and pedantically devoted to the pettiness of games and clothing and social conduct. It is, in fact, chiefly by his style in these latter things, his extensive unilluminated knowledge of Greek and Latin, and his greater costliness, that he differs from a young carpenter or clerk. A young carpenter or clerk of the same temperament would have no narrower prejudices nor outlook, no less capacity for the discussions of broad questions and for imaginative thinking. And it has come to the mind of "Kappa" as a discovery, as an exceedingly remarkable and moving thing, a thing to cry aloud about, that this should be so, that this is all that the best possible modern education has achieved. He makes it more than a personal issue. He has come to the conclusion that this is not an exceptional case at all, but a fair sample of what our upper class education does for

the imagination of those who must presently take the lead among us. He declares plainly that we are raising a generation of rulers and of those with whom the duty of initiative should chiefly reside, with minds deadened by dull studies and deadening suggestions, and he thinks that this is a matter of the gravest concern for the future of this land and Empire. It is difficult to avoid agreeing with him either in his observation or in his conclusion. Any one who has seen much of undergraduates, or medical students, or Army candidates, and also of their social subordinates, must be disposed to agree that the difference between the two classes is mainly in unimportant things—in polish, in manner, in superficialities of accent and vocabulary and social habit—and that their minds, in range and power, are very much on a level. With an invincibly aristocratic political tradition we are failing altogether to produce a leader class adequate to modern needs. The State is light-headed.

But while one agrees with "Kappa" and shares his alarm, one must confess the remedies he considers indicated do not seem quite so satisfactory as his diagnosis of the disease. He attacks the curriculum and tells us we must reduce or revolutionise instruction and exercise in the dead languages, introduce a broader handling of history, a more inspiring arrangement of scientific courses, and so forth. I wish, indeed, it were possible to believe that substituting biology for Greek prose composition, or history with models and photographs and diagrams for Latin versification, would make any considerable difference in this matter. For so one might discuss this question and still give no offence to a most amiable and influential class of men. But the root of the evil, the ultimate cause of that typical young man's deadness, lies not at all in that direction. To indicate the direction in which it does lie is quite unavoidably to give offence to an indiscriminately sensitive class. Yet there is need to speak plainly. This deaden-

* By H. G. Wells in *The Westminster Gazette*.

seem merely a personal attack. It is called "English Ideas on Education," and it begins—trite, imitative, undistinguished—thus:

"The most important question in a country is that of education, and the most important people in a country are those who educate its inhabitants. Others have most of the present in their hands; those who educate have all the future. With the present is bound up all the happiness only of the utterly selfish and the thoughtless among mankind; on the future rest all the thoughts of every parent, and every wise man, and every patriot."

It is the opening of a boy's essay. And from first to last this remarkable composition is at or below that level. It is an entirely inconclusive paper, it is impossible to understand why it was written: it quotes nothing, it says nothing about and was probably written in ignorance of "Kappa" or any other modern contributor to English ideas, and it occupies about six and a quarter of the large-type pages of the *Independent Review*. "English Ideas on Education!"—this very brevity is eloquent, the more so since the style is by no means succinct. It must be read to be believed. It is quite extraordinarily non-prehensible in quality and substance, nothing is gripped and maintained and developed; it is like the passing of a lax hand over the surfaces of disarranged things. It is difficult to read, because one's mind slips over it and emerges too soon at the end, mildly puzzled though incurious still as to what it is all about. One perceives Mr. Gilkes through a fog dimly thinking that Greek has something vital to do with "a knowledge of language and Man," that the classical master is in some mysterious way superior to the science man and more imaginative, and that science men ought not to be worried with the Greek that is too high for them; and he seems, too, to be under the odd illusion that "on all this" Englishmen "seem now to be nearly in agreement," and also on the opinion that games are a little overdone and that civic duties and the use of the rifle ought to be taught. Statements are made—the sort of statements that

are suffered in an atmosphere where there is no swift, fierce opposition to be feared; they frill out into vague qualifications and butt gently against other partially contradictory statements. There is a classification of minds—the sort of classification dear to the Y. M. C. A. essayist, made for the purposes of the essay and unknown to psychology. There are accurate, unimaginative, ingenious minds capable of science and such-like vulgar things (such was Archimedes), and vague, imaginative minds, with the gift for language and for the treatment of passion and the higher indefinable things (such as Homer and Mr. Gilkes), and, somehow, this justifies those who are destined for "science" in dropping Greek. Certain "considerations," however, loom inconclusively upon this issue—rather like interested spectators of a street fight in a fog. For example, to learn a language is valuable "in proportion as the nation speaking it is great"—a most empty assertion; and "no languages are so good," for the purpose of improving style, "as the exact and beautiful languages of Rome and Greece."

Is it not time at least that this last, this favourite but now threadbare article of the schoolmaster's creed was put away for good? Everyone who has given any attention to this question must be aware that the intellectual gesture is entirely different in highly inflected languages such as Greek and Latin and in so uninflected a language as English, that learning Greek to improve one's English style is like learning to swim in order to fence better, and that familiarity with Greek seems only too often to render a man incapable of clear strong expression in English at all. Yet Mr. Gilkes can permit this old assertion, so dear to country rectors and the classical scholar, to appear within a column's distance of such style as this:

It is now understood that every subject is valuable, if it is properly taught: it will perform that which, as follows from the account given above of the aim of education, is the work most impor-

Nov. 1905.]

tant in the case of boys—that is, it will draw out their faculties, and make them useful in the world, alert, trained in industry, and able to understand, so far as their school lessons educated them, and make themselves master of any subject set before them.

Surely this instance is conclusive.

III.

I am haunted by a fear that the careless reader will think I am writing against upper-class schoolmasters. I am, it is undeniable, writing against their dullness, but it is, I hold, a dullness that is imposed upon them by the conditions under which they live. Indeed, I believe, could I put the thing directly to the profession, "Do you not yourselves feel needlessly limited and dull?" I should receive a majority of affirmative responses. We have, as a nation, a certain ideal of what a schoolmaster must be; to that he must by art or nature approximate, and there is no help for it but to alter our ideal. Nothing else of any wide value can be done until that is done.

In the first place, the received ideal omits a most necessary condition. We do not insist upon a headmaster, or, indeed, any of our academic leaders and dignitaries, being a man of marked intellectual character, a man of intellectual distinction. It is assumed, rather lightly in many cases, that he has done "good work," as they say—the sort of good work that is usually no good at all, that increases nothing, changes nothing, stimulates no one, leads nowhere. That, surely, must be altered. We must see to it that our leading schoolmasters at any rate must be men of insight and creative intelligence, men who could at a pinch write a good novel, or produce illuminating criticism, or take an original part in theological or philosophical discussion, or do any of these minor things. They must be authentic men, taking a line of their own and capable of intellectual passion. They should be able to make their mark outside the school, if only to show they carry a living soul into it. As things are,

nothing is so fatal to a schoolmaster's career as to do that.

And closely related to this omission is our extreme insistence upon what we call high moral character, meaning, really, something very like an entire absence of moral character. We insist upon tact, conformity, and an unblemished record. Now in these days of warring opinion, these days of gigantic, strange issues that cannot possibly be expressed in the formulæ of the smaller times that have gone before, tact is evasion, conformity formality and silence, an unblemished record mere evidence of the damping burial of a talent of life. The sort of man into whose hands we give our sons' minds must never have experimented morally or thought at all freely or vigorously about, for example, God, Socialism, the Mosaic account of the Creation, social procedure, republicanism, beauty, or love, or indeed, about anything likely to interest an intelligent adolescent. At the approach of all such things he must have acquired the habit of the modest cough, the infectious habit of the nice evasion. How can "Kappa" expect inspiration from the decorous resultants who satisfy these conditions? What brand can ever be lit at altars that have borne no fire?

And you find the secondary schoolmaster who complies with these restrictions becoming the zealous and grateful agent of the tendencies that have made him what he is, converting into a practice those vague dreads of idiosyncrasies of positive acts and new ideas, that dictated the choice of him and his rule of life. His moral teaching amounts to this: to inculcate truth-telling about small matters and evasion about large, and to cultivate a morbid obsession in the necessary dawn of sexual consciousness. So far from wanting to stimulate the imagination, he hates and dreads it. I find him perpetually haunted by a ridiculous dread that boys will "do something," and in his terror seeking whatever is dull and unstimulating and tiring in intel-

lectural work, clipping the reading, censoring their periodicals, expurgating their classes, substituting the stupid grind of organised "games" for natural, imaginative play, persecuting loafers—and so achieving his end and turning out at last clean-looking, passively well-behaved, apathetic, obliterated young men, with the nicest manners and no spark of initiative at all, quite safe not to "do anything" for ever.

I submit this may be a very good^L training for polite servants, but it is not the way to make masters in the world. If we English believe we are indeed a masterful people we must be prepared to expose our children to more and more various stimulations than we do; they must grow up free, bold, adventurous, initiated even if they have to take more risks in the doing of that. An able and stimulating teacher is as rare as a fine artist, and is a thing worth having for your son, even at the price of his shocking your wife by his lack of respect for that magnificent compromise, the Establishment, or you by his Socialism, Catholicism or Darwinism, or even by his erroneous choice of ties and collars. Boys who are to be free masterly men must hear free men taking freely of religion, of philosophy, of conduct. They must have heard men of this opinion and that, putting what they believe before them with all the courage of conviction. They must have an idea of will prevailing over form. It is far more important that boys should learn from original, intellectually keen men than that they should learn from perfectly respectable men, or perfectly orthodox men, or perfectly nice men. The vital thing to consider about your son's schoolmaster is whether he talked lifeless twaddle yesterday by way of a lesson, and not whether he loved unwisely, or was born of poor parents, or was seen wearing a frock-coat in combination with a bowler, or confessed he doubted the Apostles' Creed, or called himself a Socialist, or any disgraceful thing like that, so many years ago. It is that sort of thing "Kappa" must invert if he wants a change in our public schools. You may arrange and rearrange

curricula, abolish Greek, substitute "science"—it will not matter a rap. Even those model canoes of yours, "Kappa," will be wasted if you still insist upon model schoolmasters. So long as we require our schoolmasters to be polite, conforming, undisturbing men, setting up Polonius as an ideal for them, so long will their influence deaden the souls of our sons.

THE MAP IN THE CLASS-ROOM.

At the Evening Meeting of the members of the College of Preceptors on October 18, Mr. JAMES WILSON, M.A., in the Chair, Prof. J. W. ADAMSON, B.A., read a paper on "The Map in the Class-Room." He said:—

A well-known book on teaching asserts that "in reading and writing there is at least a sequence of difficulty, in grammar and arithmetic a philosophical sequence, and in history the sequence of chronology; but in geography there is no sequence at all." With this dictum of a popular authority may be compared the belief, sometimes expressed and very frequently acted upon, that geography is taught to assist learners in the reading of newspapers. Views such as these sanction a casual sort of instruction not quite destitute of value, but where they direct practice there can be no real teaching of geography.

The proper place for this desultory kind of work is in a stage preliminary to geographical teaching, and its purpose is to touch imagination and to arouse a sympathetic curiosity concerning the men and the lands "beyond the mountains." The staple of it will be made of stories of travel, descriptions of foreign customs, of striking examples of the operation of natural forces; everything being vivified by pictures and the like illustrations. Whether this is work for the school depends on circumstances. Obviously it is best done *abiter* and in the home. But none homes just as obviously afford neither inaspor-

How best to attain this consciousness of relief is one of the difficult problems of the school map-maker. Experiment seems to show that the most satisfactory solution is found in the adoption of different devices for different classes of map. Taking the three great classes just enumerated for the earlier stage of geographical teaching the map is best when it most nearly resembles a model in relief. This form may be secured either by means of a photograph of an actual relief, or by colour arranged to show average elevation, all ground whose height is, for example, between 1,000 and 1,500 ft. being painted one colour, and so on. Both plans are now fairly familiar in our class-rooms. But such representations of contour are not sufficiently accurate nor detailed for the more advanced work which has been called "dissection." The maps required at this later stage should convey the impression of relief by means of contour lines, as is done in the maps of the Ordnance Survey. It is possible, of course, to combine in the same map the use of contour lines and of light and shade representing configuration. The fine Federal map of Switzerland by Kümmerly is a triumphant example of this combination, which is also a feature of the Siegfried atlas so popular amongst Alpine climbers. Some of the maps recently issued by the Ordnance Survey for school use show the same combination.

Sir Archibald Geikie has condemned the use in junior classes of maps which mark differences of elevation by change of tint, on the ground that they are "so glaringly diagrammatic;" on the other hand, he thinks that they "are useful in teaching more advanced pupils who have already learnt the meaning and use of the map." Whoever ventures to differ from Sir Archibald on such a point must do so with great diffidence. But it is important to regard the matter from the boy's standpoint. His eye must be trained from the first to see in the map not only length and breadth, but height or depth also; and this is so important that it should be secured even at the cost of some early mistakes consequent on

exaggerations of uniformity in level inseparable from the diagrammatic coloured map. The severe method of contour lines is in itself too abstract in its conventions to appeal to the younger pupil, in spite of the fact that it is truer to Nature than is the other method. Here, as always, the teacher does well to be content with a stage of less precision at the outset, provided no glaring perversions follow. On the other hand, it would seem superfluous to engage the attention of the pupil who has "already learnt the meaning and use of the map" with the less exact coloured type.

The two classes of map so far described are wall maps, the work of professional cartographers. In such maps the use of thick black lines to indicate mountain-ranges is greatly to be deprecated, as these hard lines only confirm the erroneous notions of those who are unfamiliar with regions of great altitude. But in the third class of map, the sketch by teacher or pupil on blackboard or paper, the thick line may be employed to represent the watershed, when the pupils are advanced enough to appreciate its abstract character. Caterpillars or herring-bones masquerading as *hachures* only confuse when used in sketch maps.

SKETCH MAPS.

Not everything which belongs to the geography of a region should be crowded into one and the same map. A map of Germany, published in Berlin, employs thirty-five colours, or arrangements of colour, and thirty-eight different marks showing differences in towns, rivers, &c. The intention is to convey information concerning the agriculture, industry, and commerce of the country: the effect must, in many cases, be bewilderment only. Thus, each of the classes of map enumerated must have its sub-classes, and the sketch map, highly diagrammatic and, therefore, unsuited to young learners, is justified as a means of emphasizing a particular group of facts for older pupils. But, inasmuch as physical features are the basis of the study, all varieties

map should at least indicate configuration, even though roughly. A railway map which omits every token of rising ground belongs to a type radically bad for the class-room. Adherence to this rule will limit the employment of improvised blackboard maps. What is needed is a supply of prepared outline and configuration maps, the work of teachers and pupils, or of publishers, in which the sketch can be drawn in chalk and kept or erased as occasion may require.

COLOURING.

It should be the aim of the colouring to bring out the physical rather than the political facts: the contrary is a peculiarity of British practice. The true map of our islands is unfamiliar to English school-children, because it lies concealed beneath the elaborate tinting of the county divisions, whose boundaries are often of more historical than geographical significance. A complete contrast to this kind of map is the Federal map of Kümmerly already mentioned.

To these *desiderata* of a good map may be added this, that every published map should bear the date of the survey on which it is founded, as well as the date of its publication or reprint. The maps of the Ordnance Survey now carefully supply such details.

It will be objected that maps such as have been described are not supplied by the publishers, and that the Ordnance Survey maps do not include foreign lands. But whose fault is it that publishers do not furnish the best apparatus for geographical teaching? A country, we are often told, has the government, or the system of education, or the newspaper press, which it deserves: teachers get from publishers the maps which they demand. Once convince the publishers that such and such maps are really required in schools, and the maps will be produced. The extraordinary improvement in road maps to meet the demands of cyclists is sufficient proof of this; how great the improvement which will follow the demands of the motor driver can scarcely be guessed. The truth is that teachers themselves must accept

the responsibility for the badness of the average school map.

What have been named above as two great classes of school maps correspond with two great stages in the pupil's progress. In the first the aim is to get boys and girls to understand maps; in the more advanced stage, or geography proper, maps are dissected. The elementary stage begins in home geography, it being understood that the preliminary appeal to sympathy and imagination is also maintained. What should form the material of the lessons in home geography is, of course, a very familiar consideration. The local configuration, with its dependent water-system, elementary notions concerning the measurement of time (day, month, season), of weather and climate; according to circumstances, the distribution of inhabitants, buildings, vegetation, fauna; the local occupations, means of communication by river, canal, road, rail. Throughout the course, the employment of direct observation of Nature is the cardinal principle, and many geographical ideas are thus gained at first-hand.

HOME GEOGRAPHY AND ANALYSIS OF MAPS.

The making of plans, always with an eye on the locale, is the beginning of the pupil's study of maps, and of plan-making the three chief notions to be acquired by the school-boy are the difference between a plan and a picture, the ideas of scale and of direction. Some out-of-doors work is essential, not only to note changes in surface-level, but also to observe the sun's apparent movement and to practise the use of the compass. The narrow range of the play-ground scarcely gives scope enough; the open country is the best field of operation. Most Londoners are within reach of Hampstead Heath or Epping Forest or the Surrey or Kentish Commons, and it is the town-bred child whose attention most requires to be fixed upon the sun's movements, or to be shown what a serviceable thing a pocket compass is.

The general practice seems to be to commence with plans so-called, of the school-room and

school premises, painting on the immediate surroundings of the school-house. The practice may be defended as one which assists children in grasping the notion of a plan; but, since neither class-room nor school-house is a geographical fact, no more time than is absolutely necessary for this purpose, should be expended upon their representation, and the approach to the map form should be hastened. The true benefit of this kind of work is only secured when the ground covered by the plan extends some little distance from the school as centre, but not so far as to lie beyond easy walking distance. Much of the early plan making will be done upon the blackboard, teacher and pupils collaborating in setting down the results of their observations out of doors. Drawing by the scholars will be less frequent. These exercises will provide opportunities for learning the meaning of the conventional signs most commonly used in maps.

As the ground represented becomes more extensive, these blackboard drawings become rough maps of the district; they will be the better adapted to the purpose of this stage of the teaching if they delineate not a mere administrative area, but a miniature geographical region. A rough map of the basin of a small stream and its affluents will teach a great deal more geography than can one of a local government district, which either exhibits the minimum of topographical change or is made up of scraps of several different geographical "units."

This would seem to be the point at which children may with profit first be introduced to the rough model in relief which sometimes makes a premature appearance in the class-room. The knowledge of the topography which they have acquired out of doors, and the practice in delineating it in their plans, will give an actuality to the relief, provided the disparity between its horizontal and vertical scales be not too great; on the other hand, the making of a model, or watching its making, will, in these circumstances, prove helpful to the scholar in his attempts to

understand the meaning of a map. But moulding little sugar-loaves and making a mess with watering-pot and sand-tray without reference to anything outside the school-room never yet conveyed a geographical idea to any one, though they have, no doubt, hindered many.

So soon as the pupils can appreciate the rough map, the time is ripe for the introduction of the Ordnance map of the district, which should thenceforth largely replace the less accurate representation. Sir Archibald Geikie suggests that the teacher whose scholars are ready to make the transition from plan to map should bring before them in succession the 25-inch parish map, the 6-inch county map, and the 1-inch general map, attention being fixed upon the shrinkage of the parish area as the scale gets smaller. The suggestion is realized in an atlas, very popular in Swiss schools, which by means of a dozen drawings on one page shows this particular effect of the diminution of the scale. First is shown the immediate neighbourhood of a well known Zurich school on a scale of 1 in 2,500, then follow town plans on scales of 1 in 10,000, 1 in 25,000, 1 in 50,000, in the last of which the school and its environment cease to be separable. Then come eight small maps whose scales run from 1 in 100,000, where we have Zurich and the lower end of its lake, with roads in the country and the main arteries of the city, up to 1 in 40,000,000, where Zurich is but a dot in Central Europe.

In the earlier steps it will be advisable occasionally to place the class-room map in a horizontal position, and it is a good thing to orient it by the compass; both devices are matters of course in the open-air lessons which, it is assumed, are still continued. The close conning of the map in association with observation of the country mapped is the fruitful soil of later geographical study.

With the county Ordnance map, or some of its sheets, or with the Ordnance general map, the pupils should become thoroughly acquainted, learning the import of such of the more generally employed signs as they did not learn from their

plan-making, giving particular attention to the manner in which differences of altitude are shown, working simple exercises and little problems, involving a knowledge of the meaning of the scale and other conventions. For variety's sake, such exercises as these may be used with maps on smaller scales and with maps of foreign lands.

Supposing that the pupils begin their lessons on home geography about the age of seven, and continue those lessons for some two years, the stage thus described, in which they learn to read a map, will occupy them between the ages of nine and eleven, or later. The more advanced stage, in which maps are dissected with the aim of discovering the geography of the region mapped, is best taken after the age of twelve, and work of this sort may be prolonged beyond the school-room to the studies of the university. Still, the getting to understand a map and the application of that understanding to the dissection of maps are stages which easily coalesce, and it is, therefore, inadvisable to attempt a strict demarcation. It is assumed that map reading and the analysis of maps are supplemented by lessons in descriptive geography, the use of reference books and, in the advanced stage, the study of physiography or, at least, of so much physics and chemistry as will make physical geography intelligible.

DISSECTION OF MAPS.

To pass to the more advanced stage at which the map becomes a true geographical text. The pupil who has learned to read his map will readily recognize so striking a feature of a region's relief as the direction and steepness of its chief slopes. Knowing the latitude and altitude, the general character of the crops under cultivation becomes largely a question of the aspect, north or south, or a point between, of these chief slopes; and around the staple cultivation of a region clusters a congeries of facts, social and economic as well as physical. With the slopes

the water-systems are necessarily associated, from a good topographical map the pupil may learn the character of the rivers, the rapidity of their descent, their freedom, or otherwise, from falls and cataracts, their volume, and navigability; in favourable circumstances, he may even hazard a guess as to the clearness or foulness of the water, and the chances of good fishing in the streams. In noting the varying altitudes of the relief, he will have an eye for the engineering possibilities of the country; the position of its roads, railways, canals, and bridges will be perceived as determined by the configuration. Only those who have tried them can believe how surprised uninstructed children are to learn that a map can exhibit so much good sense. The same consideration of cause and effect will lead the pupil to study the distribution of population as indicated by the conventional signs upon his map, where he will also discover the facts which determine the situation of great seaports, or forbid their creation, with other similar illustrations of the dependence of man upon geographical conditions.

Necessarily there will be much use of the scale to realize horizontal distance if the relief is to be duly appreciated. Special scale exercises are scarcely needed at this stage. Neither are these pupils likely to lose the significance of latitude and longitude, since they will be expected to make inferences as to climate and to work exercises in the variation of local time and problems arising out of astronomical phenomena. Both these last belong to that wrongly neglected art of the old-fashioned ladies' school—"the use of the globes."

PROFILES.

The older and adler of the pupils here in question will require maps which set forth topography in greater detail; for them relief is, perhaps, best signified by means of contour lines, which their previous experience has helped them to apprehend more thoroughly. The drawing of vertical sections of country—"profiles" as they are sometimes

called—is a mode of dissecting such a map which compels close attention to the relief and gives greater exactness to all the details previously studied. Two points in a map being selected, the straight line joining them is the range of the profile; the map indicates the varying heights of the surface along this straight line. A piece of paper ruled with parallel straight lines, the distance between any two of which represents a given vertical height of so many hundred or thousand feet, furnishes the ground of the profile. Reading from the map the heights marked along the course of the straight line, these heights are inserted, according to scale, as points on or between the parallel lines of the prepared paper. By joining the points, a vertical section of the country is made, which is the more exact the greater the number of points inserted—that is, the greater the detail as to contour furnished by the map—and the closer the identity of the vertical and horizontal scales of the profile itself. Where the region delineated has great differences of elevation within a short range, it is possible to make use of one scale for both dimensions. The Swiss school atlas already mentioned shows a profile having a range of about 35 kilometers (say 21 miles) from a point N.-W. of Interlaken to the other side of the Bernese Alps, and including the summit of the Wetterhorn and the bottom of the Lake of Brienz; the same scale (1 in 200,000) measures the vertical and the horizontal distances. Where the elevations are not so considerable a compromise is necessary. Sometimes the horizontal is to the vertical scale as 1 to 3, sometimes as 2 to 5. Where the gradients are trifling over a long stretch of country the "profile" is indistinguishable from a horizontal line; but nothing is gained by attempting a vertical section of such a region.

It is obvious that the drawing of these profiles very materially assists a boy to realize the three dimensions portrayed in a good map, and makes more actual his grip over the topographical details of the region he is studying. Where there is great disparity between the vertical

and horizontal scales, and consequent exaggeration of height, there is, of course, a limit to these advantages and a risk that the pupil may forget the diagrammatic character of his profile. To many parts of the Earth's surface profile-drawing may be applied with confidence, and the advantages are so many that it seems worth while to trust, in other cases, to the correcting power of the pupil's "map sense," whose establishment is the aim of this kind of instruction.

It is a far cry from the bald relief of the map to the rich detail of a landscape. But a study of the topographical and geological maps in close association will prepare pupils to whom the leading conceptions of physiography are known for the appreciation of such books as Lord Avebury's "The Scenery of England and the Causes to which it is due," or Mr. Marr's "Scientific Study of Scenery." Their later study of maps must necessarily be enriched by such reading.

MAPS AND HISTORY.

But neither at this advanced stage nor at any other need the analysis of maps be confined to purely physical considerations, to the neglect of the human aspect of geography. The connexion between these two sides is necessarily close and continuous, and there will, therefore, be very many opportunities in the course of map reading for suggesting new and fruitful lines of thought. For example, the teaching which began in tracing the directions of existing engineered roads as determined by relief will, in due course, reveal to the boy who is reading history the fact that the great migrations of men have followed the lines of least resistance which might be styled "natural roads," and that along them the invading armies have marched to victory or defeat. The study of a river basin as shown on the map explains, in striking fashion, the existence of towns of ancient foundation at the confluence of a tributary with the main stream, or near the tidal limit of the latter; topographical study gives the best explanation of the

strength of a natural fortress and its consequent occupation from early times, just as the map best demonstrates the accessibility of a sea-coast and accounts for the long history of the settlements made upon it. In similar fashion, close attention to a good map give the reasons for the distribution of population in a particular region, whether the explanation be safety from attack, facility for trading or for manufacture, and so on. There is a well known passage in Geikie's "Geography of the British Isles" showing the extremely advantageous position for commerce on the great scale of Great Britain, and of London particularly; others than school-boys and schoolmasters might reflect that it is possible to read "Antwerp" for "London" in that passage without greatly damaging the argument. Practical consequences of a kind very important to London might be expected to follow if that reflection were carried from the geographical to the historical sphere, so actual and serviceable a thing is the analysis of a map. Our supposed thinker would remember that Antwerp was once London's superior as a trading centre, and that it then suffered for some three centuries from political disabilities which have been removed within the last fifty years: these thoughts would give a new meaning to the fact that to-day Antwerp is outdoing London in its accommodation for the berthing of modern ships of great draught. The union by canal of Bruges with the sea is another recrudescence which the geographer, at least, is not likely to pooh-pooh because all the guide-books say that ancient city is dead.

The connexion between history and geography is vital, and the invariable presence of a map or maps in the history lesson should be a sign of that fact. History can only be taught where maps are used. But the studies are not everywhere coterminous. Those who most strongly insist that history and geography should be taught in association are apt to sacrifice the latter study altogether as a distinct entity: the

"assimilation" is so complete that, as in the case of the lion and the tiger, one traveller only is seen to return. The independent study of good maps makes impossible this as well as other forms of desultoriness.

"REGIONS" AS GEOGRAPHICAL UNITS.

Another safeguard of the independence of the study lies in the selection of a true geographical region, rather than a purely political division, as the unit, so to say; the configuration, hydrography, climate, soil, industries, and lines of internal and external communication of a region throw mutual light one upon another which is obscured or lost when the area is taken as a whole "country," or other politically determined portion of territory which may contain more than one geographical region or parts of such. From the map teacher and pupils work out at blackboard and desk the several details of the region as the result of analysis. It is not always advisable, or even possible, to keep political divisions in the background; but there is no doubt of the need of keeping them in due perspective. Many of us find it exceedingly difficult to marshal the geography of Germany before our minds because of the prominence which was given to the complicated political divisions in the years before the German Empire of to-day was constituted. The chaos of principalities, duchies, kingdoms, &c., may or may not have remained with us; but a clear picture of Germany as Nature made it is wanting.

PUPILS' MAP DRAWING.

Nothing has been said so far about the maps drawn by the pupils, although it has been assumed that profiles, sketch-maps, and other geographical diagrams will be made by them as well as by their teacher. The barrenness, viewed as geographical study, of the full-dress maps executed by scholars is now pretty generally recognized, and boys and girls no longer waste time in elaborating them. It may be expected that in due course it will also be agreed that the

"outline" is not the sole nor even the chief thing in a map which calls for accuracy in drawing. Again, in a geography lesson of any kind whether it be map drawing or not, the first consideration is geography, and it must not be displaced by inopportune aesthetic considerations, or regard for that fetish of the school-room neatness. No time should be wasted in the selection and working up of harmonious tints, nor on "tinting" or "framing," since these are not geographical phenomena. Maps need not, as a proflary to this argument, be hideous, though the colouring of some foreign maps of recent date deserves that reproach, so crude and sharply contrasted are the colours used to indicate relief.

The practice of requiring pupils to draw maps from memory has suggested several devices intended to serve both as construction lines when the pupil is copying the map, and also as a scheme of associations by whose help he may recall its features when attempting to reproduce it from memory. The lines of latitude and longitude would seem to be, by virtue of their proper function, the natural construction lines; but the exaggerated importance attached to accuracy of mere outline and harmony of colour has thrust purely geographical merits into the background, and latitude and longitude are very frequently ignored in pupils' own maps. The fact is also to be accounted for by the difficulty of accurately drawing the curves which these lines take in some maps and on some projections. It has been recommended that all maps reproduced by pupils should follow Mercator's projection, in which the lines of latitude and longitude become straight the Others would discard these co-ordinates in favour of a different system; while ing a vertical one meridian and one parallel in each. It is obvious all positions to these. The last very material compromise with much in its dimension more and teachers cover a map with a more or details of a network intended to serve as con- there is gro- es, the outline of each country thus

being made to approximate to a particular geometrical figure, or to some other definite shape. The form is associated in the pupil's mind with one map only; when he is asked to draw that map, he begins by drawing the figure, by whose suggestions he recalls the different features to be reproduced. Of all devices which dispense with lines of latitude and longitude, the most accurate is that associated with the name of Matzat. He argues that the astronomical and mathematical conceptions involved in the system of meridians and parallels are too difficult for all but the most advanced pupils to use intelligently, and he would substitute a system which arises naturally from the first exercises in plan-making during the study of home geography. That is, he bases his map upon the ideas of direction and relative distance, just as the plans or first rough maps were constructed by teacher and pupils with the help of a compass and the knowledge of the distances of places from the school or other fixed point. The pupil associates such a point with all maps which he is required to draw, and, taking that point as a centre, he draws several concentric circles, whose radii stand for ascertained distances. On these circles he notches such landmarks as coincide with points on their circumferences orienting them by reference to their compass-bearings; from these standards of reference he gradually builds his map.

These various modes of teaching pupils to draw maps bring out the fact that, for due understanding, lessons in cartography are needed. Of course, all attempts to read or otherwise to interpret a map involve something of the art, and much of it would be picked up casually by scholars taught in the fashion which has been described. But mere teaching, by the way, will not do much to make a boy comprehend the difficult subject of projection, in which systematic lessons are necessary. Such lessons must naturally be postponed till he has mathematical equipment to follow them.

The Annual Valedictory Meeting of the Associated Societies of the Madras Christian College was held on the 10th instant, in the Anderson Memorial Hall, with the Rev. Dr. Miller, C.I.M. in the chair. The proceedings began, by the Secretary reading the Report of the Societies for the current year.

MR. V. KRISHNASWAMY IYER'S SPEECH.

The Chairman then called upon Mr. V. Krishnaswamy Iyer, a leading Vakil of the Madras High Court, to deliver the Valedictory Address. Mr. V. Krishnaswamy Iyer, who was well received, addressed the very large gathering of students present on "Indian Student-life: Ancient and Modern."

He said that he wished to address a few words to the younger generation of his countrymen on questions which must interest them deeply and were calculated to produce a great influence on the future of this country. They were on the threshold of very considerable changes in the Madras University and its curricula of studies which were expected to result in great and lasting benefits to the youths of this land. Whether the carrying out of the several changes now being discussed in the Senate would be productive of real benefit, was a problem that was seriously agitating the public mind. It seemed to him that it was a proper occasion to look back over the student-life of the people of this country in the past and to take stock of what had been done then and compare it with the situation as they found it around them at present.

This country, had always been devoted to the cultivation of knowledge which had been esteemed the great privilege of every young man. It was, therefore, not without interest, to go back to the ancient history of the land and find whether that had any lessons for the present and the future. Student-life in Ancient India began with the initiation of the individual into the sacred

"WALL" MAPS.

In conclusion, it may be said that one of the correct uses of the map in the class-room is in due course to take it out of the class-room. The name, "wall map," must not be suffered to mislead. A map is not necessarily decorative; very few are so, and all lose whatever comeliness they once possessed after the wear and tear of use or the dust accumulated in idleness. There does not seem much ground for the belief that they will be impressed upon the pupil's memory if they are always before his eyes, much less if they are hanging at his back. He remembers that to which he attends. A wall map to which he gives no geographical attention is almost geographically non-existent, though it may be a great eyesore. Therefore a map not in use is best enclosed in a map-stand or rolled up carefully in a cupboard, and a bare wall, if clean, is a more engaging prospect than a tatterdemalion company of maps and diagrams. One exception should be made on the score of its perennial usefulness: the Ordnance map of the district ought always to be accessible to members of the school, even though the consequent wear and tear and cost of renewal be noticeable.—*The Educational Times.*

lore; in other words, began with the investiture of the sacred thread. He was speaking then only of the twice-born castes and also only of their literary education. Physical education and education in the industrial arts were over looked as part of essential education in Ancient India. Industrial education had been practically confined to those that followed the hereditary occupations and it had been only a matter of apprenticeship. The literary education began in the eighth, tenth, or twelfth year according as a youth was a Brahmin, Kshatriya, a Vaisya and extended over twelve, twenty-four, or thirty-six years respectively. A student in ancient India was expected to reside with the teacher under his roof to acquire the knowledge he was in a position to impart. He was to regard his teacher as his God. He was not to contradict him and was to yield obedience to the teacher. The student was enjoined to beg his daily bread. He had to deny himself of all comforts and was to lead the life of a bachelor. Matrimony he could not think of so long as he confined himself to study. Much of the teaching was done by memorising. At the close of the period of studentship, it was open to a student to marry and set up a house. A student paid no fee to the teacher in those days, nor was there any organisation which endowed teachers and enabled them to earn a living. A student at the completion of his studies had to give his teacher what he asked of him; which often times took the shape of most eccentric demands. Whatever knowledge was available in those days had to be acquired from a teacher. They had no writings, books, nor libraries; and it was impossible for any person to acquire knowledge beyond that communicated by the teacher. Such was student-life in Ancient India.

What was the state of things in modern India? A student beginning the three R's when he was about five years of age at a pial school went through the standards and forms of English schools. He mingled in company of boys of his own age in the school and picked up there whatever knowledge his teacher was competent to impart. He passed from teacher to teacher without that personal contact, that personal influence, and personal magnetism which any teacher, rightly so called, was in a position to exercise over his pupils. His hours with the teacher were spent in company with a number of other pupils. Next a student entered upon the University course. Here he came under better influences. He did not merely commit to memory; he was able to add to his capacity to acquire knowledge. There were numerous differences between ancient and modern Indian

student-life. There was no such thing in those days as a student begging for his food every day. Students now-a-days enjoyed greater comfort probably than they could expect at their homes. They were thrown in the company of other boys as members of Debating and Literary Societies, and there was clash of mind with mind. They were in a position to instruct themselves from books and libraries at their disposal. Whereas an Indian student in the past had the opportunity of learning and committing to memory what his teacher taught, a modern Indian student had far greater opportunities and facilities. The latter was not merely confined to the walls of his school or college but learnt a great deal from what passed outside the school building. A modern Indian student considered himself as possessing rights and privileges. There were some matters on which it was the duty of every student to calmly reflect. The speaker said that he had forgotten to add that a student in Ancient India was not to mix himself in crowds and assemblies and not to take part in festivals. He was simply to learn, to acquire habits of moderation, self-reliance and self-command, which qualities acquired during studentship he would be in a position to place at the service of his country when he entered on his life. There was a prevailing impression that students had a legitimate share in the party politics of their country. He did not for a moment say that students should shut their eyes and ears to all that passed around them and shut themselves from knowledge of what passed around which afterwards was to fit them for their future careers. It seemed to him that there was something in the conception of student-life which militated against his participating in what was known as active political agitation. He was sure that he differed in that respect from others whose opinions were entitled to weight. It was necessary that students should deeply consider whether it was their lot or part in life that they should confine themselves to what was the legitimate province of students, or to take active part in political agitation. He was of opinion that they should adopt the former role. His opinion might be unpopular, but he was strongly of that opinion.

Dealing with students of the present day, many of them were married and had the cares of a husband or a father. They were not merely persons solely intent on the acquisition of knowledge. He did not know whether such a position had not conducted to the degeneracy of the race; whether that was not mainly responsible for the lack of enterprise, energy, and enthusiasm in any

department, either of knowledge or of active life; whether it was not in the greatest measure the cause of much of the weakness, much of the incapacity that they found in youths who were promising at one stage and afterwards deflowered. He had dwelt on residence in the house of the teacher as a special feature of education in Ancient India. Under modern conditions that was impossible. But they could adopt the ancient ideal in some form which recognised its truth and value, at the same time modifying it in such respects as to bring it in concord with modern conditions. The modern Hostel system, he thought, was a device which brought the teacher and the pupil into close contact and was expected to bring great and lasting benefits to the student world. In this connection the speaker paid a tribute of praise to the Rev. Dr. William Miller and other foreign educationists who were striving to make the Hostel system a success. One out of every seven students receiving education, was in a hostel in the Presidency. That number must be very largely increased. He did not know if the regulation under contemplation requiring every affiliated college to provide sufficient hostel accommodation, was likely to be passed. But they were bound to work up to that ideal. Turning to the matter of school fees, he said that there was something not very edifying in the idea of payment for knowledge; at any rate it was foreign to the Indian ideal of old. High fees were likely to act in the future as a great drawback on education; at all events with reference to those who had not pecuniary resources to go through the University course. In this country of caste and not of gradations according to wealth, talent resided in the humblest houses. It would be a thousand pities if talent residing in such lowly quarters should be left to rot and condemned. There were many hundreds of indigent but talented students who deserved to be taught free. He thought there was great necessity for organised effort to place indigent talent upon a better footing than of hoping to get something from somebody to help them. Funds should be collected for the help of the education of indigent students, as was done in Japan.

He concluded his interesting address by dwelling on the necessity for religious education which had been divorced from secular education in all institutions under Government management. If the life of a student of the present day was to be laid along lines of sure progress, if he was to prove himself worthy of the country, and worthy of citizenship, if he was to prove himself worthy of the past and worthy of leading a useful life

in the future, he had not the slightest hesitation in saying that provision should be made for religious and moral education in aided and Hindu institutions which ought to have taken for their model Mission institutions rather than Government ones. He was hopeful about the future. There was great ferment in the land and great ideas were likely to take root and bring their own fruit in the fullness of time. Let them take a leaf from Ancient India, so that people might learn to grow not merely in the knowledge received from the teacher but in the appreciation of what has been great in the past, so that they might build upon that past, a certain future for the greatness of this land.

DR. MILLER'S SPEECH.

THE REV. DR. MILLER, in the course of his concluding remarks, said that he would ask all of them to weigh most carefully all that had been said by Mr. Krishnaswamy Iyer, every part of whose address that evening was weighty and worthy of the deepest consideration. Running through the address, there were principles not only very interesting but very important in the present condition of this great land. Certainly it was of the utmost interest to them to be reminded of wherein student-life in Ancient India differed from student-life in these days; but it was most important that it should have been so well laid down that the conditions under which they worked in these days were most largely different from what had been possible in those ancient times. It was most important that they should bear in mind the caution that had been given to them by Mr. Krishnaswamy Iyer that in working out the problems of our own days one great object was to preserve as far as possible the spirit of ancient student-life, even though it had to work in new forms, under new conditions and in new environments, altogether. Nobody could doubt that there was much that was admirable and beautiful in that personal relationship between the teacher and the taught on which Mr. Krishnaswamy Iyer had dwelt so well. In its outward form the thing was impossible now. But it was right that they should have as much as might be of that personal tie between the teacher and the student which was such an admirable thing in those by-gone days. It was well that they should have before them that feature, for where that was altogether wanting, there was a complete lack of real education. It was very important that they should remember such cautions as had been given about the necessary limitations of student-life. "Everything," remarked Dr. Miller, "is beautiful in its own season but there

are many things that are far from beautiful when they come out of season. I for one agree with Mr. Krishnaswamy in thinking and in saying, whether it will be popular or not, that the mixing up of students with political or any other kind of agitation is a very undesirable thing. It is one of the things that becomes beautiful when the right season comes for it, but when it comes out of season it is no more beautiful than that the fruit should come before the flower and not the flower before the fruit. And I cannot impress anything more valuable upon you than the outspokenness with which Mr. Krishnaswamy Iyer told you that he would give you his opinions equally whether they were popular or not. To act in this way is one of the things that you most need to learn and it is one of the things that such Debating Societies as are the occasion of our assemblage to-night should contribute most effectively to teach."

Dr. Miller added that he was thankful to the lecturer for the appreciative reference he had made to the characteristic feature of the Christian College, namely, the religious and moral teaching that was imparted in it. Ever since its foundation in 1837 until the present day the Christian College had sought by the best means it knew of to make the cultivation of character, the kindling of religious aspiration, the implanting of moral principles in its students, its chief and central aim. In that aim it had not altogether been unsuccessful.

The proceedings terminated with the usual vote of thanks.

PACHAIYAPPA'S COLLEGE.

SIXTY-THIRD ANNIVERSARY.

The sixty-third anniversary of Pachaiyappa Moodelliar's Charities and the distribution of prizes to the pupils of the College, the High School and the Lower Schools, took place on the 18th instant. There was a very large gathering of the native community and others interested in the educational advancement of the country, including the Rev. Dr. Miller, C. I. E., Rai Bahadur P. Ananda Charlu, C. I. E., the Rev. W. Skinner, Mr. E. B. Powell, and Mr. C. M. Barrow. Mr. C. Sankaran Nair, who presided was received on arrival at the College by the Trustees of the Charities. The proceedings opened with a recitation by a senior student.

TRUSTEES' REPORT.

The Secretary to the Board of Trustees then read the Report on the working of the Charities during 1904. The following are extracts from the Report.

PACHAIYAPPA MOODELLIAR'S CHARITIES.—The income during the year under all heads amounted to Rs. 95,651 against an expenditure of Rs. 83,341, leaving a balance of Rs. 12,310. Including the balance left at the end of 1903, the total balance to the credit of the estate on the 31st December last amounted to Rs. 53,167. The receipts show a rise of Rs. 7,627, which is due partly to the increase of Rs. 4,653 in the fee income of the College at Madras and High Schools at Conjeevaram and Chidambaram, and of Rs. 944 under the head of interest on additional investments with the Accountant-General, and partly to the increased income of Rs. 1,674 on account of arrear collections. At the same time there is a fall of Rs. 1,878 in Government and Municipal grants and of Rs. 316 in the fee income of the High School at Madras. The increase of Rs. 10,141 in the charges is due to the introduction of the graded scale of salaries to the staff and the founding of a Mathematical chair, at a cost of Rs. 4,798, to the increased cost of repairs to the buildings to the extent of Rs. 1,253, to the transfer of Rs. 3,029, from the Religious Charities Surplus Fund to Miscellaneous Charges and to an additional expenditure of Rs. 934 on Religious Charities and other items. The expenditure on Pensions and other items decreased by Rs. 277.

PACHAIYAPPA'S COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL.

The College staff and the standard of instruction were much the same as in the year preceding. The success of an Institution such as Pachaiyappa's College must depend on gradual growth and development. It has grown steadily from small beginnings and arrangements have at last been made to further extend its usefulness by starting a Chair for imparting sound instruction in Mathematics. It gives the Trustees great pleasure to make known to the public in connection with the new chair, that His Highness the Maharajah of Mysore was pleased to contribute Rs. 500 toward the formation of a Library of high class Mathematical works by way of equipment of the new class, and the Library is now called with the approval of the Maharajah "The Dewan C. Rangacharlu Memorial Library" to do honor to the memory of that distinguished Native Statesman of Mysore, who received his early education in Pachaiyappa's Institution in Madras. The strength of the College Department at the close

of the year was 263 as against 229 in 1903 and that of the High School 536 as against 549 in the previous year. The daily attendance in the College and the High School was 87 and 90 per cent. against 90 and 86 percentages respectively in the previous year. The results of the University Examinations, except those in the Language and Philosophy branches of the B.A. Degree, were not quite so satisfactory as could be wished. At the First-in-Arts Examination 105 students appeared and 36 passed, two being placed in the First Class. Of the 128 boys that were presented for the Matriculation Examination, only 24 passed with one in the First Class as sixth in the Presidency. The Trustees note with some regret this unfavourable result though it is not peculiar to this High School. Deeming it desirable to help the Principal in his endeavour to improve the quality of instruction in English both in the College and High School, they have made arrangements to get a competent Professor of English from one of the English Universities, who, in addition to his work in the College, will be required to devote some hours a week to instruction in English in the High School. Adverting to the concluding paragraph of the Principal's Report, the Trustees observe that the graded scale of salaries for the staff and the rules guiding the appointment of teachers have been carefully considered and passed, and the effect of their working will have to be watched for some time before they can be reconsidered. The scheme for a Provident Fund has been drawn up as the Principal is aware and the Trustees hope to give effect to it at an early date.

GENERAL REMARKS.—In closing this bare statement of facts, the Trustees desire to invite public attention to the circumstances that the funds at their disposal are not elastic and that they require help in developing the Mathematics Chair in Pachaiyappa's College, a chair well deserving public sympathy and encouragement, support by way of equipment and of endowment for a couple of scholarships each tenable for two years and special prizes to encourage poor Hindu undergraduates who have an aptitude for the study of this exact science is needed.

PRINCIPAL'S REPORT.

Mr. J. A. Yates, Principal of the College, next read his report from which we take the following:—

HOSTEL.—The work of the Sri Ramanuja Hostel, attached to the College, was fairly satisfactory. The health and discipline of its inmates were good throughout the year. The Hostel has

KI

been removed to a more commodious building close to the College. As soon as a suitable building is available I intend to open a hostel for Sivite Brahmins.

GENERAL.—During the year, under report a Council of the High Schoolmasters was formed, with the Principal as its President. Its object is to discuss all questions of discipline and method of teaching. The Council met from time to time and discussed several important subjects. It is hoped that the result of such discussions will be modern and rational methods of teaching. The new method of teaching English is being tried in some of the sections of the Fourth Form and promises to be a success. The Inspector of Schools, Central Circle, inspected the High School in April, and his remarks reflect great credit on the High School staff.

CONCLUSION.—The graded system introduced is, I think, open to criticism, but will, if strictly adhered to, be an improvement on the older uncertain methods of advancement of teachers. The introduction of a Provident or Pension scheme is, I think, a requisite, if the managing body, having once secured a good teacher, wish to keep him in loyal service. I may point out that great difficulty was experienced for one half of the year from changes in the staff. Temporary or inexperienced hands were perforce employed; the reason was (and it is a permanent reason) that there are no clear rules whereby I am empowered to fill up vacancies on certain conditions and whereby, if those conditions are fulfilled, my appointments are sanctioned.

THE CHAIRMAN'S SPEECH.

The Chairman next distributed prizes to the successful pupils of the Institution and made a short speech:—

The report of the Trustees, he remarked, was a record of steady and continuous progress, though it might be slow. The financial condition was satisfactory, increased income being derived from fees during the year. There was the fact, however, that Government and Municipal grants had decreased, which must be expected to continue in future also. The institution would have to rely more upon private support than that from Government and Municipal resources. Whether it was right or wrong, it was a fact to be faced and the Trustees would have to reconsider their position; but he had not the slightest doubt that they would be competent to do what was right in future as they had done in the past. He found among the Board of Trustees names of gentlemen

LX

[Nov. 1905.]

on whom perfect reliance could be placed. The public would be glad to hear that the Trustees had appointed a new graduate from England for the improvement of teaching in English so that better results might be anticipated in succeeding years. The Chairman thought that the suggestion of the Principal that students who failed consecutively for two years might be turned out of the class so that they might not retard the progress of the class as a whole was salutary and deserving of consideration. Referring to the Principal's thanks to Mr. Arthur Lavies for the warm interest he had taken in the students, he, the Chairman, regretted that there were not any Hindu gentleman to whom such thanks could have been rendered by the Principal.

Alluding to the subject of University Reform, he said that was not the occasion nor the place for him to state his view on the question. He would reserve his remarks for the Senate Meeting. He would say, however, that with the guidance of old and experienced educationists like Dr. Miller, it was not likely that the Senate would go wrong. Whatever might be the changes introduced by the University, the Trustees might be relied upon to do everything in their power for the prosperity of the institution and the advancement of education.

The Chairman next addressed the students and gave them a few words of advice. He told those who were going out of the institution that if they in their life acted honestly and fairly they would be doing credit not only to themselves and to the institution, but also to their community. Those that might enter public service ought to show themselves fit for their position by performing their duties to the satisfaction of their superiors and without doing anything unworthy or dishonest. To those who might enter the legal profession he said that he hoped that it would not be said of them as had been said by the first Chief Justice of this country that the natives were not fit to be pleaders or lawyers because they would never have the moral courage to plead a cause fearlessly and without regard to consequences. He hoped they would remember that in the Bar they were closely associated with men who had traditions of the English Bar to support; and being associated with them they would have to show themselves that they were in no way inferior to them. To those taking to Commerce he said that they would have to prove that they had commercial honesty in them and they would be doing irrecoverable injury to the whole community if they failed to realise their responsibility. Wherever they went and under

all circumstances, they must prove by their fitness and their capacity that they could be posted to the highest appointments. If on the other hand, they gave those who took an interest in the well-being of the community and those associated with that institution, any opportunity to regret that they had ever belonged to their College, all he could say was that it was not only themselves that they were injuring but the whole community.

With a vote of thanks to the Chairman the proceedings terminated.

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

APPOINTMENT OF EXAMINERS.

MR. JUSTICE MUKERJEE'S MEMORANDUM.

1. The first suggestion which is made by Mr. Justice Mitra in his Note is that to begin with 20 per cent. of the examiners required for the Entrance Examinations should be Head Masters or other teachers in the Entrance classes of Schools. He bases this suggestion upon the principle that the teachers themselves are the persons best fitted to be examiners of candidates for the Entrance Examination, and that "raw young men from the University with however high degrees as to proficiency in learning," cannot be suitable examiners. I shall not now stop to enquire whether the present examiners for the Entrance Examination can, in any sense, be described as "raw young men," but I shall show later on that this description is, in fact, untrue. I only observe that Mr. Justice Mitra bases his proposition upon the ground that the teachers themselves alone have a correct appreciation of the proper standard, and that the Lecturers and Professors in Colleges who have no experience of teaching Entrance students, may set too high a standard. Mr. Justice Mitra, therefore, contends that the teachers themselves who have a thorough knowledge of the "average capacity" of the pupils whom they have prepared for the particular examination should preferably be appointed examiners. I venture to point out that this principle is not sound, and that its adoption will hamper considerably, if not altogether defeat, any attempt at reform by raising the standard for the Entrance Examination. I shall briefly state the reasons for my conclusion.

2. The object of the Entrance or Matriculation Examination, as I understand it, is to ascertain which of the candidates who present

Nov. 1905.]

themselves for the Examination, are qualified to enter the University, in other words, to determine who are qualified by reason of their attainments and the antecedent training which they have received, to pursue with profit a course of University education. *Prima facie*, I venture to think, the most competent judges in this matter are not the men who have very slight if any notion of what is required of a student during his College career, but the College Lecturers and Professors who have or ought to have a clear idea of the qualification which a student ought to possess in order that he may profit by their lectures. But apart from any *a priori* consideration, it appears to me that this view is considerably strengthened by our peculiar circumstances. During many years, it has been almost the universal complaint by College Lecturers and Professors that a large majority of the students who pass the Entrance Examination, are absolutely unfit, by reason of their antecedent defective training at school, to pursue with advantage a University course. There can be no doubt that we have reached the ebb-tide of high education, principally by reason of the notorious inefficiency of our schools and the lowering of the University standard to suit the "average capacity of pupils" prepared for the Entrance Examination by these schools. Are we then to entrust even in a limited degree, to the teachers of these very schools the work of determining the fitness of the pupils who have been trained under a faulty system, for entrance into the University? Mr. Justice Mitra suggests that the danger of appointing as examiners the Lecturers and Professors in our Colleges is that the standard may be too high for the "average capacity of the examinees," which, according to him, cannot be correctly appreciated, except by a teacher of the examinees themselves. I confess I was surprised at the suggestion, because I thought that there was no difference of opinion upon one matter, namely, that the standard for the Entrance Examination has been in the past too low. If the appointment of College Lecturers and Professors to conduct the Entrance Examination has a tendency to elevate the standard, I for one, would, on that ground alone, strongly support the system. The past history of the University in this matter proves conclusively that the teachers in our schools, are the last persons to be allowed to appraise the material which they manufacture. That history is contained in a single sentence. Every attempt on the part of the Examiners, who are in the main, Lecturers and Professors in our Colleges to raise the standard of the Entrance Examination has been met on the part of the school

authorities by the familiar cry of "slaughter of innocents," followed by a Committee of the Senate "to enquire into the causes of the recent failures," inevitably resulting in a lowering of the standard at the next following Examination. If it is desired to maintain the standard which has hitherto prevailed or to reduce it still further, the most effective way would be to have the Entrance Examination conducted entirely by School teachers who have, in the past so trained or crammed our boys that they have been pronounced by competent College Professors to be wholly unworthy of entering any University.

3. In addition to these considerations, I would like to invite attention to another circumstance, which I think, ought to carry considerable weight in the decision of this question. One of the Committees appointed by the Senate in January last has been entrusted with the work of framing Draft Regulations for the various Examinations in Arts as also the Entrance Examination. The proposals of this Committee relating to the Entrance Examination will shortly be laid before the Senate, and without entering into minute details, I may state generally that the main object of the Draft Regulations is to secure a higher standard than what has hitherto prevailed at the Entrance Examination. Now it is obvious that the standard may be raised in two ways, namely, first by altering the character of the Examination, so as to discourage cram and encourage the intelligent acquisition of knowledge, and secondly, by raising the minimum limit for a pass in any subject, so as to discourage superficial or fragmentary knowledge. The proposals of the Committee are founded on an adoption of both these methods the first of which appears to me to be relatively of even greater importance than the second. Now the manner in which the Committee recommend that the character of the Examination should be altered, may be described under four heads:—(i) The Examination in English is to be a test of the practical working knowledge of English on the part of candidates; the system of prescribing text-books is to be abolished; (ii) There is to be an extension of the course in Mathematics and the system of prescribing a text-book in Geometry is to be abolished; (iii) In the case of second languages considerable importance will be attached to unseen passages and knowledge of Grammar will be insisted on; (iv) The system of prescribing text-books in History will be abolished. I trust I have stated enough to indicate to those who are familiar with the existing standard that the proposals of the Committee, which appear to be moderate and which, I hope, will be accepted by

the Senate, must necessarily raise the standard, and if this reform is loyally accepted and carried out by our Schools, the system of teaching which has hitherto prevailed, must be radically modified. I entertain grave doubt, and these doubts, I know, are shared by many experienced teachers, whether our Schools as now organised are really qualified to give effect to even this limited amount of reform. Mr. Justice Mitra refers to the experience of the teachers employed in our Schools. I do not wish to underrate the length of such experience in many cases, but the quality of it is more than doubtful value in the large majority of instances. Many of these so-called experienced teachers are no doubt masters in the art of dictating notes to their classes and of cramming their students so as to get them through the Entrance Examination. Many of them again are the manufacturers of the famous "keys" or "note-books" or "guides" which are extensively patronised by the student community, and which have effectively destroyed the foundations of all sound teaching throughout the Province. I trust that when the new system is in force this evil will be diminished; but it can be diminished only if our teachers will completely alter the method they have hitherto pursued, teach subjects and not books, and subordinate the use of the book to the exposition of the subject. It remains to be seen how few of these experienced teachers will under the new system be able to walk without the crutches they have hitherto relied upon. Nothing can be a greater danger to the success of the new system than to allow the standard to be regulated by these very experienced teachers, whose work up till now has produced admittedly unsatisfactory results. I venture to submit that for many years to come, at least, the standard for the Entrance Examination ought to be regulated by persons other than the School teachers, in other words, by College Lecturers and Professors who will have the care of our students during their University career. No doubt the ideal examiner for the Entrance Examination would be the College Professor who has some experience of the Entrance classes of our Schools, but if we have to choose between College Professors with no experience of School teaching and Head Masters who have no experience of the requirements of University training, I would without hesitation choose the former and thus avoid the risk of lowering the standard.

4. Mr. Justice Mitra assumes that the Entrance Examination has hitherto been conducted by "raw young men" from the University. This imputation is to such an extent inconsistent with the actual

facts, that it is worth while examining in detail. I have before me a list of the gentlemen who conducted the last Entrance Examination. It will first take up the subject of English, for which the University appointed 20 Examiners with one Head-Examiner; the number of answer papers to be examined being over 14,000. The Head-Examiner is a well-known Professor in one of our Colleges and he has been engaged in the work of teaching for 15 years. Of the 20 Examiners one has been engaged in the work of teaching for 23 years, one for 19 years, one for 14 years, four for 12 years, three for 11 years, two for ten years, four for 9 years, one for 7 years, one for 6 years. There are two other European gentlemen of experience and standing, in whose case I cannot find out the precise length of time. I should like to know which amongst these may with propriety be described as "raw young men from the University." It is curious that although most of them are or have been Lecturers or Professors in Colleges, several of them have considerable experience of the Entrance class and would satisfy the test laid down by Mr. Justice Mitra.

Take again Mathematics, in which subject the Examination was conducted by 18 Examiners with one Head-Examiner. The Head-Examiner is one of our veteran educationists and has taught Mathematics for over 37 years. Of the 18 Examiners, two have been Lecturers in Mathematics for 25 years, one for 19 years, one for 18 years, two for 16 years, two for 15 years, one for 13 years, one for 12 years, two for 10 years, two for 9 years, one for 8 years, one for 7 years and one for 6 years. One, I believe, has not been a teacher, but he has been a Research scholar and a Premchand Roychand student, and he has proved himself to be one of our most capable Examiners. Of these 18 Examiners, I find 15 took their M.A. degree in Mathematics, many of them with the highest honours and three of them took their degree in Science; but with the one exception I have mentioned, all of them have devoted themselves to the work of teaching Mathematics. Here again, I may add, that several of these gentlemen have considerable experience of teaching Entrance classes, though their main work has been lecturing in College classes.

Let us next take the subject of History, in which we had 10 Examiners with one Head-Examiner. The Head-Examiner is one of our most successful Professors and has devoted himself to the work of teaching for over 21 years. Of the 10 Examiners one has been engaged as a Lecturer for 27 years, one for 23 years, one for 18 years, one for 16 years, two for 14 years, one for

9 years, and two, the youngest of the batch, for 5 years each. One gentleman alone is not now engaged in teaching, but he has been a Lecturer before, is a graduate of 11 years' standing and a Premchand Roychand student; and he has been reported to be an extremely careful and satisfactory Examiner. Many of these gentlemen, though Lecturers in Colleges, have considerable experience of teaching Entrance students as well.

Take next Geography in which subject we had 10 Examiners with one Head-Examiner. The Head-Examiner is one of our most distinguished graduates, the Principal of one of our largest Colleges and has devoted himself to the work of teaching for over 16 years. Of the ten Examiners, one has been engaged in teaching for 21 years, and for some years past, has been the Principal of a first grade college, 3 others have been teachers for 19 years, one of whom though recently out of employ, was the Principal of a second grade college for many years, another has been a successful Lecturer for 18 years, one has been a Lecturer for 12 years, during a considerable portion of which he has been Principal of a College; one has been a Professor for 8 years and another for 5 years. Another a graduate of 15 years' standing, was for many years a successful Lecturer in a first grade Calcutta college, though recently he has not been engaged entirely in educational work.

The only other subject which requires examination is Sanskrit, Bengali and Translation, where we had eighteen Examiners with one Head-Examiner. The Head-Examiner is the Principal of the Sanskrit College, a veteran educationist. Of the eighteen examiners, as many as eleven are M.A.'s of this University, of whom ten took their degree in Sanskrit. Of these, one has been a Lecturer for 18 years; another began the work of teaching 17 years ago and a third, 16 years ago; another gentleman has been a Lecturer for 12 years; one for 11 years; one for 9 years; one for 8 years two for 6 years, and one for 5 years. The gentleman who did not take his degree in Sanskrit and who was appointed Examiner in Translation, is a graduate of 32 years' standing, Bengali Translator to the Government of Bengal, and has been engaged in Translation work under that Government with repute for many years past. Of the remaining seven gentlemen who are Pundits but not graduates, (I am not now considering whether they possess a competent knowledge of English which point I shall discuss later on), not one can by any stretch of the imagination, be described as a "raw young man"; four of them have done teaching work for certainly over 30 years and the others have been similarly engaged for

periods varying from 5 to 20 years. A large proportion of the Examiners in Sanskrit, etc., though Lecturers in Colleges, have considerable experience of teaching Entrance classes as well. It is not necessary to examine in detail the minor languages, but it is sufficient to state that the Examiners in those subjects are generally persons of great experience and specialists; indeed, in the case of some of the obscurer languages, the University has practically no choice, the number of possible Examiners being extremely limited.

The facts I have stated prove conclusively that the body of gentlemen, who conducted the last Entrance Examination or who have done so in recent years, does not consist of "raw young men from the University." The majority of them are men of great experience, who have been for years past Lecturers and Professors in our Colleges and many of whom have an experience of Entrance students. I cannot persuade myself to believe that if my Hon'ble friend had been personally acquainted with these Examiners or if he had taken the trouble of ascertaining their qualifications and the history of their career, he would never have supposed that they were "raw young men from the University" and thus not qualified to discharge their duties as Examiners satisfactorily. Indeed it may well be maintained, that many of these Examiners have longer experience of educational work than the Head Master whose cause Mr. Justice Mitra advocates and whose experience of educational work extends, in very many instances, unfortunately, to the period which intervenes between taking a degree in Arts and a degree in Law and joining the profession.

5. Mr. Justice Mitra observes that "scrupulous care and thorough honesty" are essential qualifications in an Examiner and he must be "beyond suspicion." I entirely agree with him in this observation, but I venture to differ from him completely if he imputes wants of these qualifications to the gentlemen who conduct our Examinations. Here, again, if my Hon'ble friend had chosen to enquire and ascertain the facts, he would have found with what scrupulous care our Examiners generally do their work.

In this connection, however, I would observe that it is necessary not only that our Examiners should be, in fact careful and honest, but also that the surrounding circumstances should be such that they enjoy absolute confidence; in other words, it is not enough that justice is done, there must not be the faintest ground for suspicion that justice has not been done. This is more likely to be secured by the appointment of College Lecturers and Professors as Examiners for the Entrance

Examination than by an expensive employment of teachers in schools for the purpose. If the Head Master of one School is allowed to examine candidates from what is popularly called a "rival school" (unfortunately there are too many sets of "rival schools" throughout the Province) one can well understand what imputations, ungrounded though they be are likely to be made and perhaps only too readily believed. Till our Schools throughout the Provinces are re-organised and placed on a sound educational basis, I would prefer to wait and not begin at once the experiment suggested by Mr. Justice Mitra.

My Hon'ble friend refers to the status of Head Masters and Teachers in European countries. I regret I cannot claim to have an accurate knowledge of the condition of things in European countries but what little I have been able to gather from books has led me to the conclusion that the Head Masters and Teachers in the great Public Schools of England are of an entirely different stamp from our Head Masters and Teachers. When our schools attain to the standard of English Public Schools, it will be time to consider what the position of our Head Masters ought to be in relation to the University; it is quite possible that when we attain to that state of things we may abolish the Entrance Examination altogether, and rely implicitly upon the certificate given by the Head Master of a School that a particular candidate is qualified by reason of his training and attainments to enter the University. Meanwhile, so long as the condition of things here continues to be radically different from what obtains in other countries, I would prefer not to rely upon false analogies. Mr. Justice Mitra assigns as a reason for the employment on school teachers as examiners that a better class of men would thereby be induced to accept appointment as school teachers. I venture to question the propriety of this course from the point of view of the University. When Examiners are appointed for a particular Examination the first point we ought to keep in view is to ascertain who are the best men actually available at the time. If proprietors of Schools and Colleges will pay school teachers at ridiculously low figures, and if as a result of this, only men of inferior attainments will accept appointment as such teachers, the better qualified men being employed as College teachers on higher pay. I do not see that is the duty of the University to patronise the inferior men, so that in future better men may seek those appointments. From the point of view of the University the appointment of an Examiner ought not to be a distribution of patronage, but the securing of the best man available at the time for the work.

6. My Hon'ble friend seems to me to be very hard upon our brilliant graduates. I admit that very many of our Examiners are distinguished graduates of the University. Of the 81 gentlemen who conducted the Entrance Examination in the subjects I have already mentioned, as many as 71 are our graduates; of these 28 appear to have taken a first class at the M. A. Examination, many of whom are gold Medallists. I trust there is no presumption that because these gentlemen had so distinguished a career at the University, they are not well qualified to be our Examiners. We are quite familiar with the fact that safe mediocrity is the order of the day in some places but I hope that this doctrine will not invade the University for at least some time to come. I do not undervalue the services of a man of experience, but it does not necessarily follow that because an average man has got experience, (which is often only another mode of saying that he has done a particular work for a certain length of time), that he does it as well as an abler man with less experience. The reason why so many of our Examiners are distinguished graduates of the University is not far to seek, it is because the Director of Public Instruction and College authorities in making appointments, give preference to men who have distinguished themselves in the University career. I trust the time will never come when the University will undervalue the distinctions which it has itself conferred.

7. Mr. Justice Mitra observed that it is curious that we have up to this time practically ignored the claims of School teachers as Examiners; I may point out that the course which has been followed for many years past was adopted after full discussion and is in accordance with the views of three successive Directors of Public Instruction, Sir Alfred Croft, Mr. Tawney and Dr. Martin. It may be noticed, however that occasionally a Head Master of great distinction and with experience of College work has been appointed an examiner, but this has been the exception to the general rule. What I object to is the adoption of the principle which Mr. Justice Mitra formulates; in fact he seeks to turn what has been a rare exception in the past to a general rule in the future. For the reasons I have stated, adoption of such a course is likely to prove injurious to the best interests of the University.

8. Mr. Justice Mitra observes that Examiners in the second languages for the Entrance Examination should possess a fair knowledge of English. I entirely agree with him on this point, which I may add, has never escaped the attention of the Syndicate. My Hon'ble friend,

however, does not suggest how this object is to be secured in practice, I therefore, venture to put forward a suggestion, which I made many years ago but which did not prove acceptable at the time. I would recommend that nobody should be appointed an Examiner in Sanskrit who has not taken the M. A. degree in that subject. When I originally put forward this suggestion, two objections were taken, namely, first that a sufficient number of qualified men might not be available, and secondly the adoption of any such general rule would be a hardship upon deserving Pandits engaged in educational work. So far as the first objection is concerned, I believe a sufficient number of men qualified as I suggest and engaged in education is now available, as regards the second point there would be I think the hardship apprehended if a hardship it is. But it has proved very difficult in the past to ascertain who amongst candidates for examinerships without a University degree possesses sufficient knowledge of English. We have been obliged to place reliance upon certificates produced for the purpose, which I am afraid are not of much use. I would, therefore, recommend that the suggestion of giving examinerships in oriental languages to graduates of the University or at any rate of giving them the preference in this matter, should have a trial.

9. Mr. Justice Mitra suggests that none but those who have devoted themselves to the work of teaching in Arts or Science subjects, should be recommended for examinerships. With this I generally agree, but the language employed by my Hon'ble friend indicates as if this has not been done in the past. An examination of the actual facts here may be interesting. The last Entrance Examination was conducted by 107 gentlemen, of these as many as 101 are engaged in educational work, one is unemployed and 5 were not wholly employed in educational work in the year in question; three of these five are experienced teachers, who when first employed as Examiners, were engaged in nothing but educational work, but who since then have divided their attention between teaching work and law. I venture to think that my Hon'ble friend has greatly exaggerated the extent of what he supposes to be an evil. The truth is that teachers are employed as examiners as the almost universal rule. An examination of the list of Examiners for the F. A. Examination for the last year discloses similar results. Out of more than 80 Examiners, all except four are devoted exclusively to educational work; of these four, 3 have been Lecturers and Examiners for many years past, though at present not engaged

wholly in educational work. Surely the principle which Mr. Justice Mitra seeks to advocate cannot be said to have been lost sight of by the University.

To

THE REGISTRAR,

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

SIR,—At the last meeting of the Syndicate, a letter was laid on the table from the Director of Public Instruction, proposing that permanent Boards of Examiners may be appointed for all the examinations of the University. As under the Act of Incorporation, the University is a purely examining body, any proposition touching the mode of appointing examiners and involving a radical change of the method followed for the last 35 years is obviously of the utmost importance; the matter was accordingly, allowed to stand over in order that members might have an opportunity of considering the subject. As after careful consideration of the topic, I have been led to the conclusion that the change recommended ought not to be adopted, I venture to place on record my reasons.

The argument in favour of the proposed Permanent Board, so far as I have been able to gather it from the letter of the Director of Public Instruction and from the documents referred to therein, may be shortly stated thus—The percentage of successful candidates as the different University examinations varies from year to year, this variation is due principally, if not solely, to a variation of standard resulting from changes in the examining body; if, therefore, a Permanent Board were appointed, uniformity of standard would follow from "continuity in the examining body," and this "swing of the pendulum, so discouraging and injurious to the spread of education, would be avoided."

The first assumption made, namely, that the percentage of successful candidates varies from year, to year is an admitted fact; the next assumption made is that there is a want of continuity in the examining body leading to a want of uniformity in the standard enforced; no facts are adduced in support of this statement, but taking it for granted, it is inferred that this state of things may be remedied by the appointment of a Permanent Board. I now proceed to discuss whether the remedy suggested, is practicable, or whether, as was pointed out by Vice-Chancellor Banerjee in his last Convocation Address, while theoretically

perfect it is beset with many practical difficulties, and is, therefore, on the whole, undesirable.

In recent years, the Syndicate, in appointing examiners have followed certain rules or principles which may be conveniently formulated here:—(1) No one is allowed to set a paper in a subject of which he teaches the whole or a part. This rule was adopted after the lamentable disclosures of 1890, (Minutes, Vol. XXXIV, p. 52).

(2) No member of the Syndicate is to take any part in conducting any of the University examinations. This rule was adopted on the recommendation of 23 members of the Senate, (Minutes, Vol. XXXVI, p. 35).

(3) In appointing examiners, preference ought to be given to gentlemen who are actually engaged in education, whether in Government or Private institutions. This rule I have not been able to find enunciated in any official document, but it is, if I may say so, a floating principle which has been recognised by the Syndicate for a series of years.

Let us now see how the question of a Permanent Board is affected by these rules, which, be it observed, are not objected to by the Director of Public Instruction, and for the abolition or the modification of which, there is as yet no suggestion before the Syndicate. Taking the first rule, suppose that the year in which the Permanent Board is appointed, Mr. X, who is admittedly the best man available in his subject, is teaching Mathematics in the M. A. class; he is excluded from the Board under the rule, and Mr. Y, an inferior man but, perhaps, good enough for the work, is appointed a permanent member of the Board; it so happens that the next year Mr. X has to teach the M. A. class, and is, therefore, under the rules, eligible for appointment, as an M. A. examiner, and would, under the system now in force, be at once employed by the University, under the proposed system; however, the University must be deprived of his services, inasmuch as Mr. Y, an admittedly inferior man, has got a life appointment—a result which, I believe, will be admitted to be by no means desirable even by the staunchest advocate of the system proposed. Then again, suppose a member of the Permanent Board begins to teach the subject he has been appointed to examine, he will have to be removed at once from the Board and a new man appointed in his stead; what then becomes of the "continuity of the Board"? I need hardly say that the illustrations I have given are by no means imaginary, but, as will be obvious to those who have experience of the matter, are based upon facts of which the Syndicate have to take notice from year to year. It is not necessary to give detailed illustrations of the operations of

Rules 2 and 3 which will clearly affect the matter in a similar way. It seems to me that if a Permanent Board is appointed, its constitution in the beginning will be affected by purely accidental circumstances like those mentioned above as also by other temporary circumstances (for instance, temporary absence to Europe on furlough, &c.) and that by the operation of similar causes, there will also be frequent changes in the Board, so that "continuity in the examining body" will be more imaginary than real. The present arrangement under which we have the opportunity of every year securing the services of the best available men, appears to me to be decidedly superior to the proposed scheme.

Let us now consider the subject in connection with the question of removal of examiners, I need hardly point out that although fortunately the Syndicate have not often to deal with cases of grave dereliction of duty on the part of examiners, instances of unsatisfactory examiners are by no means of rare occurrence. It is unnecessary for me to put on record unpleasant details, but I may point out some recent instances:—

(1) Entrance Examination in Mathematics, 1898, (Minutes, Vol. XXXI, p. 387).

(2) Entrance Examination in History, 1899-1900, 1899.

(3) F. A. Examination in English, 1890, (Minutes, Vol. XXXIII, p. 352).

(4) F. A. Examination in Sanskrit, 1890, (Minutes, Vol. XXXIII, p. 352).

(5) B. L. Examination, 1890 (Minutes, Vol. XXXIII, p. 355).

(6) Entrance Examination in English 1892, (Minutes, Vol. XXXVI, pp. 16-23).

(7) B. A. Examination in English, 1892, (Minutes, Vol. XXXVI, p. 15).

(8) M. A. Examination in Sanskrit, 1892, (Minutes of Syndicate, 10th December 1892).

In such cases the Syndicate have uniformly, and I submit, very rightly refused to re-appoint an examiner who has not given perfect satisfaction in the discharge of his duties. Under the proposed system what would be the state of things? Every examiner will have a life-appointment, and a regular case must be made out against him before he can be removed. I have not the least doubt that practically the unsatisfactory conduct of many examiners will have to be overlooked, and no examiner will be removed by the Syndicate unless he is proved to be positively incompetent, or unless it is shown that some moral stigma attaches to his work—things

which it is by no means always easy or pleasant to prove. Then again, whenever any such examiner is removed he will, probably appeal to the Senate, and what that means will be appreciated by all who have studied the proceedings of that August body in recent years. Indeed, I cannot persuade myself to believe that the system of life-appointments is in unimixed blessing, and that it would not be a positive advantage if appointments to some of the highest offices were made annually instead of for a term of years; then, at least, we should hear less of the failures of people who had belied the brilliant promises of their earlier years. Lastly, we ought never to lose sight of the fact that in attempting to secure a theoretically perfect continuity in the examining body, we may sometimes have a continuity of incompetent or otherwise undesirable examiners—a result which would be at least as disastrous to the cause of education as any variation of standard from year to year.

In the next place let us consider the question of a Permanent Board from another point of view, namely, who is to appoint the Board? Under section 10 of the Act of Incorporation, the power of appointing examiners rests with the Senate, and under paragraph 9 of the Bye-laws relating to the Syndicate, this power is delegated to that body. Now, the Syndicate itself is a body which is elected annually, and the constitution of which, naturally, varies considerably from year to year. It is not necessary to discuss whether under such circumstances, the Syndicate have the right to appoint a permanent Board of Examiners, or whether if the Syndicate of any particular year were to make such an appointment, it would be binding on the Syndicates of succeeding years; but I may mention a fact which seems to throw some light on this matter, namely, when an appointment is made by the Syndicate to any of the Faculties, or to the Board of accounts, or to the office of the Registrar, the appointment is always for the year and that appointments for more than a year are generally made by the Senate. But apart from any constitutional question of right, it seems to me that a fluctuating body like the Syndicate ought not to make a permanent appointment of examiners, and this indeed, seems to be the view also of the Director of Public Instruction when he says that appointments are to be made by the Syndicate on the recommendations of the several Faculties. Now, considering the prevailing system of canvassing for votes by applicants for examinerships, I have no hesitation in saying that if the nominations are allowed to be made by the different Faculties in which canvassing will have a wider and more searching scope, we are sure to

get an inferior class of men for our examiners. That this view is shared by many experienced gentlemen is clear from the Minutes of the Meeting of the Faculty of Arts in which the Boards of Studies were constituted (Minutes, Vol. XXXMI, pp. 208, 213). What was then proposed was that the Boards of Studies should have the right of advising the Syndicate in the matter of appointing examiners; what was actually carried after much discussion was that it should be the duty of the Boards to give such advice as the Syndicate might ask for, and it is a significant fact that during the last four years the Syndicate have never considered it necessary to seek such advice. I would, therefore, oppose any system of Permanent Boards in which appointments will be practically made by the different Faculties.

Having shown that the plan of a permanent Board of Examiners, if not wholly impracticable, is at least beset with many serious practical difficulties, I proceed to examine the assumptions upon which the whole scheme rests. As already pointed out, one of the assumptions made, is that there is no continuity in the body of examiners appointed under the present system; I confess I was not a little surprised to see this statement made; for the practice which has been followed during the last four years (of which period alone I am entitled to speak from personal knowledge) has been, every year when examiners are appointed, to keep in view the preceding year's list and to re-appoint all the best men, excluding only those who are not available in consequence of the reasons as explained above, or who have not satisfactorily done their work. Thus, taking the two years 1891 and 1892, it appears that of the 77 gentlemen who conducted the Entrance Examination in 1891, as many as 56 were re-appointed in 1892, and a little enquiry will show that of the remaining gentlemen, a majority were excluded under Rules, 1, 2, 3; several refused to be re-appointed, and there were three or four whose work had not been found thoroughly satisfactory. Taking the same years again, of the 36 gentlemen who conducted the F. A. Examination in 1891, as many as 31 were re-appointed in 1892, and the remaining gentlemen were either absent on furlough or were unwilling to serve. Similarly, of the B. A. examiners, 11 out of the 17 who conducted the Examination in 1891, were re-appointed in 1892. If a comparison is instituted between the years 1890 and 1891, the result will be found to be much the same. I think, therefore, it may fairly be maintained that there is a continuity in the body of examiners appointed under the present system, and that the Syndicate, in recent years at least, have

invariably tried to reappoint as many as possible of the old examiners; and I further maintain that the burden lies heavily upon those who want to have a Permanent Board of Examiners, to show that it was practicable to reappoint a larger number of our old examiners than the Syndicate have actually done from time to time and to prove that the Syndicate have destroyed the continuity of our examining body by needlessly importing new examiners.

Let us now take the next assumption that if a Permanent Board of Examiners is appointed the standard will not vary appreciably from year to year, and that the percentage of successful candidates will also be uniform, it being assumed that the present variation of percentage is due to changes in the examining body. Now, let us consider this argument in the light of the following facts. In the Entrance Examinations of 1889, 1890, 1891, 1892, we had the same gentleman, Rev. Mr. Begg as the Head Examiner in English, the examinations were conducted under his immediate supervision and in strict conformity with the instructions issued by him; the percentage of successful candidates in English in these years were 44.5, 64.5, 53.7, 52.7, respectively. Again the Entrance Examination in Mathematics in 1889, 1891, 1892, was conducted by Mr. Booth as Head Examiner the percentages of successful candidates in Mathematics in these years were 61.6, 86.9, 89.1, respectively. Again taking the years 1889, 1890, 1891, the Entrance Examination in Sanskrit was conducted by Bapu Nilmoni Mookerjee as Head Examiner; the percentages of successful candidates in Sanskrit in these years were 77.6, 92.7, 73.4, respectively. Now this state of things disclosing remarkable variation from year to year may be due to either or both of two causes—either that the same examiner changes his standard from year to year or that the standard remains the same, but the quality of the candidates who present themselves for examination varies in different years, such variation being due to some unexplained cause. If the first of these alternatives is accepted (and I have purposely selected three of our very best examiners), surely the inference is irresistible that the appointment of a Permanent Board is not the proper remedy? let the University, if it thinks the matter to be within its province, set itself to discover some medicine which will enable its examiners to preserve their mental equilibrium from year to year. If, on the other hand, the second alternative is accepted, namely, that the standard remains the same with the same examiner, but that the variation of per-

centage noted above is really due to some unexplained cause, the necessity for a Permanent Board is admittedly not made out.

On the whole, therefore, it seems to me that we ought not to abandon the present system which has worked well for 35 years, and which, if worked reasonably and prudently (as I maintain it has hitherto been worked) will surely give us equally good results in the future. The statement that there is no continuity in our examining body is, I venture to think, not exactly borne out by the facts and is, perhaps, due to some misapprehension. So far as I can see there is not a particle of evidence to show that the variation in the percentage of successful candidates is due to changes in the examining body or that the appointment of the Permanent Board will in any way, except adding to our difficulties alter the present state of things. Unless such evidence is forthcoming we ought not lightly to change the existing system for no greater misfortune can befall the University than its being turned into a laboratory for carrying on raw educational experiments.

I have the honour to be,

Sir,

Your most obedient servant,
ASUTOSH MUKHOPADHYAY.

Bhowmuggur, 25th Jan'y. 1898.

PUBLIC OPINION AND UNIVERSITY REFORM.

MADURA.

After a full discussion of the questions now before the Senate of the University of Madras in the form of the Draft Resolutions, the following Resolutions were adopted at a series of meetings held at the A. M. College, Madura, by 40 or more of the gentlemen of this town interested in Education, including the heads of two Colleges and four High Schools and several gentlemen of the Bar who are graduates of the University.

1. That the present standard of the Madras Matriculation Examination is sufficiently high to enable students who have passed it to continue profitably their collegiate course. (Vide requirements for Matriculation recommended by the Universities Commission, p. 48, para. 172 of the Report.)

2. That the proposed pre-collegiate course of one year is an unnecessary modification of the existing system; that it cannot remedy the existing defects in the school course; and therefore must fail to secure any great improvement in candidates intending to enter upon a Universities course. (Vide Report of the Universities Commission, p. 44, para. 158, in connection with p. 48, para. 172.)

3. That, if the Government should institute a School Final Examination, we agree with the views expressed by the the Universities Commission of 1902, which are as follows:—

"If any arrangement could be made by which there would be one public Examination instead of two, it would be advantageous; and, failing this, we should welcome a system under which a candidate for Matriculation would have to pass in certain subjects at the School Final Examination and to satisfy any additional requirements of the University at a separate Examination." (Para 170 of the Report.)

But we hold that this should not involve an additional year of study.

4. The proposed discontinuance of the First Examination-in-Arts, is not at present a reform in the right direction for the following among other reasons:—

(1) It cannot raise the standard of the B.A. Degree;

(2) A large number who now stop with the F.A. Examination on account of their poverty and other reasons, would be deprived of the means of reaching that particular stage of general education marked by that examination;

(3) It would seriously arrest private efforts which have contributed largely to the spread of education, and which it has been the policy of the Government of India to encourage in every way.

(4) It would result in the practical abolition of all the Second Grade Colleges which are the natural products of the growth and spread of Education, and may lead to the substitution of inferior First Grade Colleges for many efficient Second Grade Colleges. (Vide Government of India's views expressed in paras 10 and 11 of its circular letter printed in the Fort St. George Gazette, Nov. 4, 1902, Part I-B, page 744.)

5. That we agree with the recommendation of the Universities Commission with regard to the Honours Examination for the B.A. Degree. The recommendation runs as follows:—"There should be no separate Honours Examination for the Bachelors Degree. The M.A. should be regarded

as the Honours Examination." (Vide p. 70, also p. 49, para. 173.)

TANJORE.

A Conference was held on the 13th November at this place in order to consider the proposals now before the Senate in connection with University Reform. The Conference lasted nearly the whole day. The attendance was large and was composed almost exclusively of graduates who were teachers and pleaders, the President being Mr. T. Kothandarama Iyengar, B.A., M.L. The Conference had the benefit of the views and the guidance of Mr. S. Krishnasawmy Iyer, the "Veteran Educationist" in "the Cambridge of Southern India", who led the discussion with an able lecture on the subject.

The various speakers who followed seemed to be in common agreement that the proposals, as a whole, were injurious to the interests of higher education. While the meeting was not opposed to reasonable changes, suggested by the evolution of things, it was really alarmed at "the subversive character of the present proposals," in which it beheld a reversal of the educational policy of the earlier days of British rule in this country, in whose train had followed enlightenment and civilisation. A series of Resolutions was passed after every proposal and every aspect of it had been discussed thread-bare, and the Chairman was authorised to submit them to the Registrar and to each Fellow of the University.

The following are the Resolutions:—

That this meeting is of opinion that if the contemplated changes in connection with the University Reform were passed, they would retard the progress of Higher Education in this Presidency; that all reforms to be truly beneficial should be introduced slowly and cautiously, and based upon existing foundations.

That the standard of the present Matriculation Examination is decidedly high; that the shortcomings of the present day Matriculate are not due to any deficiency in the present standard; that they could easily be remedied by a few changes in the curriculum, such as the introduction of English Text-books sufficient in quantity to make cram impossible, and by such other changes as would afford more time, than at present, for instruction in English Literature; that the Matriculation Examination thus modified would obviate the necessity for the School Final Examination and the pre-collegiate course, and will surely serve as a satisfactory test of fitness

for collegiate studies and for appointment in the public service.

That the minimum age limit of 16, intended to be prescribed for students entering upon the collegiate course, is highly undesirable, inasmuch as it would take away the special privilege that should be given to youths of exceptional talent and will act as a bar to promising young men proceeding to England to compete for the Civil Service as well as for entering the Government Service at the prescribed age; and that the mandate of the Government of India regarding the age limit is in ill keeping with the dignity properly belonging to the Senate, and that they would respectfully urge upon the Government of India the necessity of withholding their interference with the legitimate function of the Senate in so simple a matter. That the course for the B. A. Examination be divided into a Lower and a Higher, that the course for the Lower be followed by the Intermediate Examination may, at the option of the student, be taken in any Second Grade College, and that a higher course in the same subject to be followed by a Higher Examination be reserved for the last two years of the B. A. course which must be compulsorily taken in a First Grade College; also that the Intermediate Examination shall stand in the place of the present F. A. Examination and that it shall be the qualifying test for all those Departments of study and professional employment for which the F. A. has hitherto been a passport.

That in consideration of the efficient work turned out by the Second Grade Colleges of the country, and of the part they are to play in the future development of education by their gradual expansion into well equipped First Grade Colleges, and in view of the great difficulties which the present First Grade Colleges would have in regard to the additional accommodation and instruction necessitated by the transfer to them of the students of the present Second Grade Colleges, they (the Second Grade Colleges) be allowed to remain untouched.

That the course for the Pass B. A. Degree and the Honours B. A. Degree be made concurrent for the first four years, and that one additional year and not more after taking the Pass Degree of the B. A. be allowed for the Honours B. A. Examination.

That it be competent for any graduate to appear for the M. A. Degree on the completion of two years after taking the Pass Degree.

That in the best interests of Higher Education a liberal system of scholarship for poor students

be instituted with the aid of University, Government and Local Funds and private endowments.

NAGERCOIL.

A Meeting of the graduates of Nagercoil to consider the proposed changes in the Madras University Examinations took place, as arranged, on the evening of Monday, the 13th instant, in the Nagercoil Club Hall, and was continued on the following day, and on Friday the 17th instant.

On the first day, the proposals before the Senate brought forward by Dr. Bourne and his views thereon were discussed; on the second day, the discussion was continued and most of the resolutions to be moved were considered at length and drafted; and on the third day the resolutions were adopted, after a thorough discussion of each.

Mr. S. E. Vaikuntam Aiyar B. A., B. C. E., Executive Engineer, was voted to the chair, and the following resolutions were one by one proposed, seconded and unanimously passed.

1. The present Matriculation Examination should be conducted, as is done now, by the University at the end of the Secondary Course. One year's Pre-collegiate Course is unnecessary, as higher proficiency in English may be attained by reducing the pressure in other subjects and by prescribing enough text-books in English Prose and Poetry.

2. It is highly desirable that the University should supervise the work of the High Schools, at least in the two highest Forms, in order to secure broader and more intelligent methods of teaching.

3. Under the present conditions, higher education ought to spread among the people in order that social, moral and material progress may be ensured. But, if the existing Second Grade Colleges be abolished, this progress will be interfered with, for (i) the present First Grade Colleges could not adequately accommodate all undergraduates and (ii) the wider distribution of Second Grade Colleges encourages many to proceed beyond the High School Course. Under these circumstances, the existing Second Grade Colleges should be retained and given their adequate share in the work of the University and the First-in-Arts Course Examination be continued with English and an optional language as compulsory subjects and with optional subjects so arranged as to enable a student to prepare more efficiently for one of the specialised courses for the Bachelor of Arts Degree.

4. After the First-in-Arts Examination, the Bachelor of Arts Course should consist of a two years' study and the proposed Honours Course consist of four years of more specialised study for which the Degree of Master of Arts should be conferred. A Bachelor of Arts should also be allowed to proceed to the Master of Arts Degree by an examination in a special subject.

5. There should be no age limit for pupil candidates for admission to the Matriculation Examination.

6. The Chairman, Mr. S. E. Vaikuntam Aiyar, B. A., B. C. E., is empowered to communicate the resolutions of the meeting to the Vice-Chancellor and to the Registrar.

COIMBATORE.

A Public Meeting of the citizens of Coimbatore was held at the Victoria Town Hall, on the 19th November, to discuss the important changes in the University now in contemplation. There was a large audience and there were present, among others, Mr. E. H. Elliot, Principal of Coimbatore College, the Rev. Boulanger, S. J. of the St. Michael's College, and Messrs. T. Ramasawmy Iyengar, retired Sub-Judge, and Messrs. R. Krishna Iyer, H. Rama Rao, B. Venkatachala Moodeliar, M. Vengopaul Pillai, and Mr. Devasgayam. Mr. E. H. Elliot was voted to the Chair.

In opening the proceedings, Mr. Elliot said that he thought the reason why he had been asked to take the Chair was that he was an old educationist. The questions, for the discussion of which they had all met, were now before the Senate. However much they might differ with regard to these proposals, there was no reason at all to suppose that those who were responsible for the proposals were not actuated by the best of motives. It might be that the proposals were ill-advised, and he himself thought that they were.

The following Resolutions were then discussed and carried:—

I. That this meeting is of opinion that an inviolable age limit for the Matriculation Examination is unnecessary and undesirable, inasmuch as the course of study through the various Forms renders it virtually impossible for a boy of less than 16 years of age to reach the Matriculation and, where special talents show unusual progress, it is not desirable to repress the same, having regard to the future prospects of such youths, such as the Examinations for the Indian Civil Service.

II. That this meeting is of opinion that the Matriculation standard is sufficiently high and that the re-introduction of Text Books in English and a few minor changes in the curriculum of study will make the shortcomings of the present day Matriculate vanish.

III. That in the opinion of this meeting the School Final Examination and the Pre-Collegiate Course will effect no real improvement, the former being only the present Matriculation with its prestige destroyed and the latter but the Junior F. A. class of the present Collegiate Course.

IV. That in the opinion of this Meeting the abolition of the F. A. Examination is not a wise measure for many reasons, among others for the following:—

(a) The F. A. is a convenient intermediate test which is necessary to sustain the high level of the College course.

(b) It relieves the strain on the student as a necessary bifurcation.

(c) It serves as a useful sieve to mark out the really capable students for the B. A.

(d) The abolition of the F. A. will deprive the country and the Public Service of undergraduates who under the present system push on to the F. A. standard, which marks in itself a high level in Education, and who find themselves unable, from poverty or other reasonable cause, to continue their study.

(e) The proposed abolition would close many Second Grade Colleges whose good work has been accepted on all hands, and would put a severe check on indigenous educational effort.

KUMBACONAM.

A large Public Meeting was held here on the 21st November, in the Porter Town Hall. It was of the oldest graduates of the town who were eminent educationists and Pleaders and Judges and Deputy Collectors, to consider the proposals of University Reform now under the consideration of the Senate. Mr. K. Ranganatha Row, B. A., presided.

The following Resolutions were passed:—

I. That in the opinion of this Meeting, the present standard of the Matriculation Examination is sufficiently high if the College course is to continue to be one of four years.

II. That in the opinion of this Meeting, if a minimum age is to be fixed for the Matriculation Examination, its standard remaining what it is, it ought not to be higher than 15 at the time of the Examination.

III. That in view of the recent Order of the Government of India, if the Senate is not at liberty to make 15 the minimum age but have to accept 16, the standard of the Matriculation should be raised so as to require an additional year's study, and so as to make it possible for a young man to take his B.A. degree after a three years course instead of four years, the course being reduced by one year.

IV. That the proposal to abolish the F.A. Examination is an undesirable step in the present state of the country, as its abolition would tend to the closing of the Second Grade Colleges as such and would consequently retard the spread of Collegiate Education.

V. That this Meeting agrees in the recommendation of the University Commission that there should be no separate Honours Course Examination for the B. A. Degree, and the M. A. Degree should be regarded as the Honours Examination.

Rao Bahadur C. Nagojee Rao, Principal of the Government College, proposed the following amendment to the last proposition:—

"That this meeting considers that an Honours Course extending over three years after the F.A. Examination would be highly beneficial to the country, provided the M.A. is retained and the Pass men allowed to go for it."

This was put to the vote and lost.

These Resolutions and the arguments in support of them, embodied in a memorial passed at the Meeting, will be submitted to the Senate by the President of the Meeting who has been authorised in this behalf.

NEGAPATAM.

Memorial of the citizens of Negapatam, assembled at a Public Meeting, held on the 20th November 1905.

That the memorialists beg to be allowed to represent to the University their views on the important changes now proposed in the Educational system of the University.

2. That the memorialists beg to point out that the changes now proposed are revolutionary in character and in several respects opposed to the recommendations of the Education Commission. Before such sweeping and momentous changes are adopted, the memorialists would request that the proposals as a whole may be referred to a strong and representative committee of the Senate for report as this would ensure full

deliberation and sifting by a competent body. The memorialists would respectfully deprecate any hasty decision in this all important matter.

3. That no necessity has been made out for the abolition of the Matriculation Examination. The standard of the Examination is high enough. If the students turned out by the High Schools are regarded as not possessing that degree of educational equipment which may be necessary for the prosecution of collegiate studies and following the lectures at College, the fault must lie with the students or with the mode or quality of the teaching or in the curriculum. Any defects in these directions may be remedied by appropriate reforms, without abolishing the Matriculation Examination. There is further no certainty that the School Final Examination will be a better test of fitness for the pre-collegiate course than the present Matriculation or that the examination is likely to be better conducted by a Government Department than by the University authorities.

4. That the division into a pre-collegiate and a collegiate course is not likely to serve any useful purpose and is further likely to prove mischievous as it involves the abolition of the F. A. Examination and the consequent abolition of the Second Grade Colleges. It is not desirable that the admission of the students to the college classes should be placed under the absolute discretion of Heads of Colleges. The multiplication of tests for admission to the University is not an evil of less magnitude than the evils now complained of. The First Grade Colleges now existing in the Presidency do not possess sufficient accommodation and equipment for the large number of students who will be thrown on their hands when the Second Grade Colleges cease to exist.

5. That the division of the College Course into a Pass Course and an Honours Course which have nothing to do with each other, is likely to produce extreme inconvenience. All the advantages which may be derived from an Honours Course are equally gained under the present system in which the more brilliant or more industrious students are placed in a higher class in the publication of Examination results, and in the M. A. Degree which affords ample scope for further study and research. Probably one or two colleges in the Presidency can alone afford to have a proper staff of professors for the Honours Course. There may also be considerable difficulty for a student in determining at the outset whether a Pass Course or an Honours Course is the more suitable in his case.

6. That the abolition of the Second Grade Colleges is undesirable. Many of them are well-equipped; and as they are found in all parts of the country, students continue to remain for a long time in the parental home and under the direct care and supervision of their parents. This is not a slight advantage considering the many unwholesome influences operating on students when they live in a strange place far from home.

7. That the memorialists would further submit that no steps should be taken which would in any manner weaken or extinguish the many private Educational Agencies, Indian as well as Missionary, which are now at work in the field of Education. Apart from the value which these agencies possess as a means of fostering and developing different types and varieties of education, they are also helpful to Government from a financial point of view as they incur a large amount of expenditure which would otherwise have to be met from the revenues of the State.

8. That the proposals now made are likely to have the effect of considerably restricting the number of students studying for the University Course. The memorialists need hardly point out that such a result must be extremely disastrous to the best interests of the country.

9. That a policy of decentralization is as wise and desirable in the field of Education as in other fields of Government or public activity. Any attempt to lay down one uniform educational system for India is as undesirable as it is impracticable. Free play should be given to local methods and peculiarities in the light of local experience.

10. That the memorialists would also respectfully point out that colleges should be allowed full liberty and freedom within reasonable limits and subject to the supervision of the University. It is not desirable to frame rules placing the colleges entirely or chiefly under the control of the Educational Department of Government.

11. That no necessity has been shown for fixing an age limit for the Matriculation Examination. It is only a very small percentage of students that are likely to appear for the examination before 16. It is only very brilliant or intelligent students that occasionally pass the examination before that age. In their case, the fixing of the age-barrier would act prejudicially to their further progress in life and their studying for the Civil Service and other examinations. The evil, if any, is not so serious as to call for a drastic

remedy. In this matter, as in others, considering the large and influential body of public opinion which is opposed to the fixing of an age-limit so high as 16 years, the memorialists humbly venture to hope that the University may be allowed full liberty to come to a conclusion without any views being imposed on it by Government.

12. That the memorialists finally request that the Senate may be pleased to take the above suggestions into their favourable consideration.

TRICHINOPOLY.

An extraordinary Meeting of the Trichinopoly Teachers' Association was held on the 23rd November. In addition to the members, a large number of other gentlemen interested in education were also present.

The Rev. H. Pakenham Walsh, the President, discussed the principles of the reforms that are now engaging the attention of the Senate, and strongly urged that the F. A. Examination should not be abolished, as it served a definite purpose in the University scheme.

After a full discussion of the subject, in which several gentlemen took part, the meeting passed the following resolutions:—

This Association is of opinion:

1. That, in view of the fact that the great bulk of the students come up for the matriculation not earlier than their 16th year, a minimum age-limit is unnecessary.

2. That the present standard of the Matriculation is sufficiently high and that the low attainments of the present day Matriculate may be improved by a more efficient course of High School instruction, by the re-introduction of the text-book in English, and by removing certain subjects as suggested by the University Commission in para. 171 of their Report.

3. That the proposed abolition of the F. A. Examination, together with the introduction of a one year's pre-collegiate course, will not tend to remedy the present defects; but will be most detrimental to Second Grade Colleges, which in the words of a Resolution of the Government of India, dated the 24th October, 1902, "occupy a definite place in the educational machinery of the country and fulfil a useful function;" and will seriously interfere with indigenous efforts for spreading education, the encouragement of which has been the avowed policy of the Government.

4. That the recommendations of the University Commission with regard to the Honours and

Pass Examination for the B. A. degree should be adopted.

That these Resolutions be sent to the Vice-Chancellor through the President of the Association.

THE MADRAS TEACHERS' GUILD.

A Meeting of the Madras Teachers' Guild was held on the 10th November at the Wesley College, Royapettah, at which, after the ordinary business of the Guild was transacted, a debate was opened on "The Principles of University Reform." The Chair was occupied by Mr. Lakshminarasu Naidu, of the Madras Christian College.

Mr. K. B. Ramanadhan, who opened the debate, said that the principles of reform now proposed by the University referred, as they all knew, to the Matriculation Examination, and to the F.A. and B. A. Examinations, as also to the institution of an Honours Course and other matters closely connected with these. With regard to the Matriculation, there were authoritative pronouncements to the effect that it did not satisfy the test of University requirements. In regard to the deterioration or otherwise of the Matriculation student, the native lecturer had better access to the student's inner mind and he was in a better position, perhaps, to state how exactly the passed Matriculate of to-day stood. Speaking from experience, he would say that if the average Matriculate of the present day were compared with the average Matriculate of the earlier days, he did not believe that the average Matriculate of the later days would suffer by the comparison. They had therefore, to consider whether the remedy suggested by the University would effect an improvement. It was proposed that, instead of the present Matriculation examination, there was to be a School Final examination and after the School Final there was to be a new Matriculation examination in the place of the old F.A., but that was to come a year after the Pre-collegiate course was completed. Then there was a three years course for the passed B.A., and a five years course for the Honours B.A. They were not in a position to say whether the School Final examination could fulfil the requirements of the University in the same way as the Matriculation; for it was impossible to judge of an examination the nature of which was entirely unknown. With regard to the Pre-collegiate course, the question came in of the Second Grade Colleges. According to the proposed arrangement, the student would pass

only one year in the Second Grade College before he proceeded to join a First Grade College. That would mean that instead of the Matriculation student passing two years near his home, he would pass only one year near his home and would be taken away from the supervision of his parents after one year and have to go to a First Grade College. Now, the question to be considered was whether they would prefer the students having a year's additional study at a place where they were under the supervision of their parents, or their being removed a year earlier from parental care and sent to study in a strange place. To those people who had no very high opinion of Hindu households, and to those who had a great idea of the disciplinary advantages of hostels, the latter might appear to be an advantage; but it would not occur to be altogether an advantage when they came to consider the sort of supervision there would be at these hostels. An ideal hostel was a most desirable thing, but he did not think that under the conditions of Indian life, of the professional life and of the student-life, as at present prevailing, it was desirable to place Indian students under the influence of hostels. Could they expect the Professor, as he was in India, to give all his time to the students, and be with them always and exercise an influence on them? It would be a very good thing indeed if they had such men in India. Another aspect of the question was whether if the Second Grade Colleges were abolished, the few First Grade Colleges now existing could find room for all the students who come up for their Collegiate course. As it was, the F.A. and B.A. classes in some of the First Grade Colleges were over-crowded and he could not see how these Colleges were going to find accommodation for all the students that would flock to them, had they no Second Grade Colleges near their homes to go to.

Mr. T. R. Ramanadha Iyer endorsed the views of the previous speaker and observed that the education as at present given had not proved a failure, and there was, therefore, no necessity for the introduction of drastic measures to reform the present system.

The Rev. C. Pollard observed that there was a feeling among some that there were certain abuses in the present system of education and that the existing state of things might be bettered. It was stated that only about 20 or 30 per cent. of the candidates for the Matriculation passed, and this was characterised as a scandal. Some blamed the examiners, some the examiners and some the curriculum. Whatever the cause

might be, the proposed reform would not remove the evil. The Matriculation examination, as it at present existed, was good. There was no doubt that it weeded out the undesirables who were incompetent to go up for the Degree examination. It was urged in some quarters that the new scheme would give them a better set of teachers; but that was assuming an hypothesis which, when tested, would prove a failure. Under the proposed scheme the Second Grade Colleges would all be swept away. It was often urged that that Second Grade Colleges were a great hindrance to the advancement of education. That could only be so if they came to the conclusion that the F.A. examination was a nuisance and a hindrance; but experience had shown them that it was not so. His own opinion was that the instruction now imparted in Second Grade Colleges was sufficient, and very convincing arguments would be required to prove that the F.A. examination was useless and ought to be done away with. It was the opinion of those who had something like 40 years' experience in education that the F.A. course was not an abuse. Reform was no doubt wanted to better the existing state of things, but such reform should not be of a drastic and revolutionary nature. What was wanted was a re-arrangement of the curriculum and a re-arrangement of the courses.

Resolutions passed by the Madras Teachers' Guild at a meeting held at Wesley College, Royapettah, on Friday, November 24th, 1905, at 5.30 P.M.

1. That, in the absence of definite information about the proposed School Final Examination and its working, the present time is inopportune for considering the principles of Reform now before the Senate.

2. That the standard of the present Matriculation Examination is sufficiently high as an entrance test for the University Course.

[Note.—The following are some of the suggestions that might be considered with a view to improve the Matriculation Examination:—

- i. the reintroduction of a text-book in English;
- ii. a revision of the Curriculum for group 4 (General knowledge, &c.);
- iii. the appointment of a Special Board for the conduct of the Examination.]

3. That the new Entrance Examination proposed to come at the end of the pre-collegiate course will not serve the purpose of the present F.A. Examination:—

XI

i. as a qualifying test for the Engineering and Medical courses;

ii. as a preparatory test for the B.A. course;

iii. as marking a definite stage of general education intermediate between the University Entrance and the Degree Examination, and thus furnishing an adequate *raison d'être* for the existence of Second Grade Colleges.

4. That the rules now regulating the transfer of students from one college to another sufficiently safeguard the interests of sound education as well as those of colleges.

5. That it is desirable to institute a B.Sc. Degree on the lines proposed in the Senate before the Indian Universities Act was passed.

6. That these resolutions be communicated to the Registrar of the Madras University and the Members of the Senate.

C. POLLARD,

S. VASUDEVA CHARIAR,

Hon'y. Secretaries.

UNIVERSITY OF MADRAS.

SENATE MEETING.

An adjourned meeting of the Senate in Committee was held on the 25th November, at the Senate House, with Mr. Justice R. S. Benson in the chair, there being a number of Fellows present.

The Vice-Chancellor said that he had received letters of apology from Mr. K. Ramanujachariar and Mr. Nagoji Rao regretting their inability to be present. The first business before the meeting was the consideration of the general scheme of examination printed on the last page of the business paper. If the general desire of the Senate was to resume the discussion, they might go on with the business, otherwise they might consider the Draft Regulations.

The Rev. Dr. Miller said that he would like to propose that the suggestions regarding the general scheme of examinations should not be taken up at this meeting.

The Vice-Chancellor:—There is no proposal actually before the Senate. There was no formal proposal which the Senate can consider. These suggestions will drop altogether, unless anybody formally moves them.

The Hon'ble Dr. A. G. Bourne:—Except that sooner or later we will have to revise the curriculum

cula of studies, I asked the Senate in Committee to consider these questions, but there is no motion in regard to them.

The Rev. Dr. Miller:—I think that these proposals are too important to be shelved or set aside. I do not think it is possible for us of even desirable to proceed to draw up the curricula, without the mind of the University being known either one way or the other on these various proposals. They may be dropped altogether. —I don't see very much objection to that. But it seems to me that after we spent so much time, we must do something about them. I intended to move the following motion with regard to these matters:—

"That the Senate in Committee proceed to consider such of the draft regulations as are urgent, and recommend to the Senate the appointment of a Committee not exceeding nine to report on the proposals contained on page 25 of the Agenda-paper and on the rules of affiliation proposed in the draft regulations in the light, firstly, of the report of the Commission for the inspection of affiliated Colleges and, secondly, the expected announcement of the scheme for the School Final Examination, and further that the rules of the affiliation now in force be adopted for the present."

It seems to me, Sir, that with regard to these proposals on page 25 of the paper, and also with regard to the many intricate and difficult points in the draft regulations concerning the affiliation, the Senate cannot proceed to say off-hand either yes or no about them. I think the proper way to inform our minds is to appoint a small committee or recommend to the Senate the appointment of a committee, that would thresh out these things, and present the whole scheme to us in a definite form. I merely suggest that, I am quite prepared to give arguments in favour of the course and also to name the gentlemen whom I would be disposed to put on this committee, or recommend the Senate to put on this committee.

The Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Aiyar, in supporting the motion of Dr. Miller, said that the questions raised in the suggestions made were so important that they should allow as much time as possible for the public to express their opinion. Several meetings had been held in various parts of the Presidency and resolutions passed and he believed that further meetings were likely to be held and other public bodies were likely to express their opinion.

The Rev. Dr. Miller said that it was most important that they should have a committee of

small number; they would consider what was good and what was bad, what was suitable at the present time and what might only be suitable afterwards in those proposals and similarly they should give their opinion upon the very intricate questions that were in the very long list of rules for affiliation. The names he intended to suggest for the Committee were Dr. Bourne, Father Sewell, Mr. Cooling, Mr. Macphail, Mr. Yates, Mr. Sivaswami Iyer, Mr. Rangachariar, Mr. Bhaba, and Mr. Sankaran Nair; and he did not know whether those names would commend themselves to the mind of the Senate. The Senate in Committee could not appoint a committee, but could only recommend to the Senate to do so. He believed that they would gain time by this and not lose anything. He thought that it was manifest that they could not adequately consider the proposals, which they had spent so many days in talking about, until they knew something about the result of the inspection of the affiliated Colleges which had been recently carried out. When these two things appeared he thought that a committee such as he had ventured to suggest would bring the whole matter into shape, and they could discuss those points far more advantageously than now, when the thing was not in a definite form. Take that one point of abolition of Second Grade Colleges. It was an exceedingly difficult question, and he thought the views of such a committee as the one he had ventured to suggest would be very valuable in guiding their deliberations on that point. When the Second Grade Colleges were first brought into existence, he opposed them wildly, and the things he had said were still available in print. If any one wanted to see them, he could do so. He would say exactly the same thing to-day as he had said five and twenty years ago, if the circumstances were the same. In the first place, the Educational Department had encouraged the existence of these Second Grade Colleges with all its might and in the second place, the University had indulged itself too much in these Second Grade Colleges and affiliated them more easily than it ought to have done. These were the two important factors and something immensely important was the fact that the Second Grade Colleges had worked themselves into the whole system of education and made themselves an organic part of it, and he thought that it was not possible for the Senate off-hand to decide what ought to be done with them.

Unless the whole thing was threshed out, which could only be done in a committee.

small committee, it was impossible to discuss adequately the many other questions that came up in connection with those two points. It was impossible to discuss them adequately in such a large meeting as the present, but by the guidance of a strong and thoughtful committee, they might speedily come to a conclusion. He did not think it was competent for them to discuss about the merits of the gentlemen he had proposed. It was merely a suggestion he made. If they were competent to discuss about them, he would say this. He thought that the number nine which he put down was just the number that ought to be on such a Committee as he would recommend the Senate to appoint. The members he suggested were intelligent and thoughtful men, fairly representative of different interests and views. If they could enter into the discussion of names he would suggest that if any one desired to propose a change of name, the proposal should take the form of Mr. So-and-So in place of Mr. So-and-So in order that the number nine might not be exceeded.

The Hon'ble Dr. A. G. Bourne said that he saw no objection in asking the Senate to appoint a Committee, but he could not say that it would do much good. Whatever resolution the committee of nine might arrive at, it might be by a majority—possibly by a majority of one—and it would be placed before the Senate, who would discuss the whole matter again. It would, no doubt, entail delay; but he also proposed to ensure delay and he had no desire to hurry the matter. His method of delaying the matter was that he did not intend to propose any motion with regard to those matters that afternoon or at that meeting. If any further discussion was forthcoming, he thought that they would be glad to hear it. As to the discussion outside, he was not quite sure that it was necessary for the Senate to wait for it. The Senate should have the views of the senators. With regard to Dr. Miller's proposal there were two matters which he should like to mention. In the first place what was placed before them was not on Agenda paper. Dr. Miller referred to the report of the Commission appointed for the inspection of affiliated Colleges. He was not aware that that report would be placed before the Senate. Under the Universities Act, it was the Syndicate who had to arrange for the inspection of Colleges and to take action. There was nothing in the Act regarding the Senate arranging for the inspection of Colleges. He was not saying now whether the report should or should not be placed before the Senate; it was a matter for discussion and it should not be as-

sumed that it would be placed before the Senate. Section 23 (2) of the Act said that the Syndicate should cause every affiliated College to be inspected by one or more competent persons authorised in its behalf; the Syndicate might call upon any College so inspected to take within a specific period such action as might appear to them necessary. Should that action go to the extent of disaffiliation, then there was a special provision that the matter should come before the Senate.

The Rev. Dr. Miller said that with regard to the second matter touched upon by Dr. Bourne, he certainly took it for granted that the Senate would get some information about the inspection of Colleges that had been recently conducted. No doubt it was a point that might be discussed whether the full text of the report together with the criticisms, upon each individual College, should be submitted to the Senate. But surely after all that inspection, the cost of it, and the time spent, the University as a whole and its supreme governing body, the Senate, was entitled to get some valuable information as to what had been done. He did not insist upon it as a matter of course, that they should get the whole report, but he could not see why the Senate should be kept entirely in the dark in a matter of such great importance.

Mr. Adam supported the motion of Dr. Miller for the appointment of a Committee, and pointed out that there was no disguising the fact that the question regarding the Second Grade Colleges was the most important point which had to be considered by the Senate. At the time when he began to take interest in education, some 17 or 18 years ago, he had been of opinion—an opinion which he had not changed—that the Second Grade Colleges were an anomaly and should be abolished. He agreed with Dr. Miller that the Senate should be in possession of the results of the labours of the Commission for the inspection of affiliated Colleges, which had gone through the Presidency and which had occupied so much time and which had put the University to a good deal of expense.

The Hon'ble Dr. A. G. Bourne.—Not the University, but the Government.

The Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Iyer said the Senate was competent to frame rules for the affiliation of Colleges, and in considering what rules should be passed the Senate was entitled to call for any information which the Syndicate might possess.

Mr. V. Krishnaswami Iyer said that he was afraid that some of the provisions of the Act of

Incorporation had not been borne in mind in the observation that Dr. Bourne had addressed to the Senate. He did not think that any report called for by the Syndicate from any body appointed by the Syndicate could ever be the property of the Syndicate. It was manifest from the Act of Incorporation that the Senate had kept complete power of superintendence over the concerns of the Syndicate. Section 8 of the Act of Incorporation, which was still intact and not repealed, said that the Chancellor, the Vice-chancellor and Fellows should have the entire management and superintendence of the affairs, concerns and property of the University. That language was plain enough. He thought that the Senate was entitled to have the report of the Committee appointed by the Senate for the inspection of affiliated Colleges.

Mr. Mark Hunter remarked that the Committee suggested by Dr. Miller was not representative of the courses of study leading to the Arts degrees. Such a Committee should not be limited to 9.

The Rev. Dr. Miller said that the Faculties would consider the question suggested by Mr. Hunter. The work of the Committee he suggested was to consider the ground plans of the edifice that they proposed to erect.

The Hon'ble Dr. A. C. Boorne observed that in regard to the report of the Commission he had not said that it should not be the property of the Senate. What he had said was that it was a matter for discussion and not for assumption. Mr. Krishnaswami Iyer had pointed out the absolute power of the Senate in all matters; but he must take issue with him in regard to certain matters. For instance, the Senate could not rule that the Syndicate should not have the inspection of Colleges. The Senate could not control the Syndicate in any matter in which the Syndicate had specific power. With regard to the report of the Commission, he had not yet seen it himself—in fact the report had not yet been compiled. His position in regard to that Commission had been altered, because he had been ordered by Government to take up his position on it *ex officio* as Director, and not as a member of the University, so that he was not drawing up the report. His original position was that he had been appointed by the Syndicate; but that had been changed by Government. The report of the Commission would probably consist of two parts, *vis.*, the individual report on each College and a general report pointing out the various matters which might be attended to. He certainly thought that the second portion of the report must come before the Senate and the public. As to the reports on individual Colleges he was not quite

sure whether in the interests of the College themselves, they should be more public; the colleges might not like to have their dirty linen washed in public. Personally he should have no objection to publish the whole report, but he was only talking from the point of view of Colleges, and not from his point of view.

The motion for the appointment of a Committee was put and agreed to, only three voting against it.

The Senate in Committee considered and passed the following regulations:—

THE SYNDICATE.

7. Should it appear to the Syndicate to be necessary in accordance with Regulation 2 that any vacancy should be filled by a Head of, or a Professor in, a College affiliated to the University, the Registrar shall draw attention to the matter in the notices of the vacancy and should any six Fellows within ten days of the announcement of the result of such election raise the question as to whether the person elected is eligible as aforesaid the Registrar shall post to each member of the Senate resident at the time within the territorial limits of the University a notice of the objection and a voting paper to enable him to vote on the question raised. The voting paper shall bear on it the date of posting and when filled up shall be returned so as to reach the Registrar not later than ten days after the date of posting by him. The result of such voting shall be scrutinized and declared by a Committee of two Fellows appointed for the purpose by the Vice-Chancellor. In the event of the question being determined in the negative by a majority of the votes received or in case of equality of votes by the casting vote of the Vice-Chancellor, a fresh election from among the other nominees shall take place in a manner similar to that of the original election.

13. As soon as conveniently may be after the passing of this regulation an election of ten members of the Syndicate shall be held in the manner hereinafter prescribed:—

The Registrar, under the direction of the Syndicate, shall publish a notice thereof in the *Fort St. George Gazette*, and shall, on or before the date of such publication, post to each Fellow a notice of the election. The notice shall draw attention to the requirement of the regulation that at least five of the members to be elected shall be Heads of, or Professors in, Colleges affiliated to the University.

The Syndicate as a body and each Fellow shall be at liberty to nominate any number of Fellows, not exceeding ten, for election.

Every nomination shall be in writing and must reach the Registrar not later than eight days after the publication of the notice in the *Gazette*.

The Registrar shall post to each Fellow a list of the nominees, with the names of their respective nominators, together with a voting paper which shall bear on it the date of posting.

Every Fellow shall be at liberty to vote for any number of nominees not exceeding ten.

Any paper in which the number voted for exceeds ten shall be treated as invalid.

The voting paper when filled up shall be returned to the Registrar in such a way as the Syndicate may direct with a view to secure the secrecy of the ballot and so as to reach the Registrar not later than ten days after the date of posting by him.

A Committee of two Fellows shall be appointed by the Vice-Chancellor for the scrutiny of the voting papers at a time and place to be fixed by him, and the Registrar shall post to each Fellow a notice thereof eight days before the date fixed for the scrutiny.

Every Fellow shall be at liberty to be present at the scrutiny.

The result of the scrutiny shall be certified to the Syndicate.

If any two or more nominees receive an equal number of votes the Vice-Chancellor shall have a second or casting vote in regard to each of such nominees.

The Registrar, under the direction of the Syndicate, shall post to every Fellow a notice stating the names of the ten nominees who have received the largest number of votes.

Should any six Fellows within eight days of the posting of the notice lodge with the Registrar an objection that the ten nominees do not include five Heads of, or Professors in, Colleges affiliated to the University, a special meeting of the Senate shall be called to decide how far the objection is valid and which, if any, of the ten nominees is or is not eligible for election in consequence.

If the objection is allowed the Senate shall forthwith proceed to fill up the vacancy or vacancies by selecting one or more of the nominees as may be necessary in the order of the number of votes recorded for him or them and who in the opinion of the majority of the Senate then voting may be qualified as a Head of, or Professor in, a College affiliated to the University.

If no objection is taken in the manner above provided, or if the objection taken is disallowed,

the ten nominees who have received the largest number of votes shall be elected.

If an objection is allowed, the nominees against whom no objection has been allowed, and the nominee or nominees selected by the Senate, as provided above, shall be elected.

If any question arises as to the procedure to be adopted in order to give effect to this regulation it shall be determined by the Vice-Chancellor.

The result of the election shall be announced in the *Fort St. George Gazette* and the election shall take effect from the date of announcement.

The consideration of the remaining regulations was then adjourned till the 27th inst.

An adjourned meeting of the Senate Committee was held on the 27th November, at the Senate House with the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Benson, Vice-Chancellor, in the chair. Thirty-three Fellows were present.

The Committee resumed consideration of the Draft Regulations and the following were adopted:—

THE REGISTRAR.

Pending the passing of the new bye-laws regarding the Registrar, the present regulations regarding the Registrar and the Assistant Registrar be adopted.

CONVOCATION.

Present bye-laws 61 to 81 regarding Convocation were allowed to remain part of the new bye-laws with the following addition, which was to be brought in after old bye-law 62:—“A candidate for a degree who is not resident within the territorial limits of the University may with the permission of the Syndicate be admitted *in absentia* to that degree on payment of Rs. 10 at the annual Convocation in March.”

EXAMINATION BOARDS.

1. There shall be Examination Boards for the following subjects or groups of subjects:—English; Sanskrit; Mahratti; Uriya; Burmese; Sinhalese; Hebrew; Arabic; Persian and Hindustani; Tamil; Telugu; Canarese; Malayalam; Mathematics; Physical Science; Natural Science; Mental and Moral Science; History and Economics; Teaching; Law; Medicine; Sanitary Science; Engineering; Greek and Latin; French and German.

2. The Chairman of each Board of Studies shall, forward to the Syndicate the names of any persons who may have been nominated by the Board as fit and proper persons to act as exa-

miners and assistant examiners in the subjects deal with by the Board. The Syndicate shall consider the nomination so made.*

3. Each examiner shall hold office for one year but shall be eligible for re-appointment. The Syndicate may, however, at any time cancel the appointment of an examiner.

4. The duties of examiners shall be laid down from time to time by the Syndicate.

GENERAL.

1. No question shall be put at any University examination calling for a declaration of religious belief on the part of the candidate, and no answer or translation given by any candidate shall be objected to on the ground of its expressing any peculiarity of religious belief.

2. It shall be competent to any member of the Senate to bring to the notice of the Senate any instances of undue or improper canvassing by, or on behalf of, any candidate for election to the Senate, or to any Faculty or Board, or for appointment to any examinership or other office connected with University.

Before the Committee dissolved the following resolution was adopted:—That the regulations now approved take the place of existing bye-laws 1 to 127, and that this Committee recommends that these regulations may be submitted to Government, with the request that the time allowed for the consideration of the other regulations be extended to 31st March, 1906.

A meeting of the Senate will before long be called to approve the Regulations recommended by the Committee.

THE CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY.

ADJOURNED SENATE MEETING.

The adjourned meeting of the Senate was held at the Senate House, College Square, on Saturday, the 25th November. Mr. A. Pedler, Vice-Chancellor of the University, presided and there was a good attendance.

* With regard to this regulation, Dr. Miller wanted to add a proviso (which was thrown out, 16 voting against, and 15 for) that the Syndicate might if it deem fit constitute a Separate Board of Examiners for the Matriculation Examination, partly made up of Teachers taking part in or having experience of High School teaching. Mr. Littlehalls would extend the principle of the proviso to other examinations too—like the M.A., &c. Mr. Ramnathan pointed out that the principle was recognised in the appointment of M.L. Examiners.

UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS.

The meeting proceeded with the adjourned discussion of the Draft Regulations relating to the appointment of Professors appointed by the University.

After some discussion the following resolutions were passed:—

LIST OF BUSINESS.

1. The Registrar to lay before the Senate the following Resolution of the Syndicate:—

“Resolved unanimously—

That the Syndicate do recommend to the Senate that the Honorary Degree of Doctor in the Faculty of Law be conferred on His Royal Highness George Frederick Ernest Albert, Prince of Wales, on the ground that, by reason of eminent position and attainments, he is, in their opinion, a fit and proper person to receive such Degree.

2. The Senate shall likewise found and endow Professorships on particular subjects from funds specially given or bequeathed for the endowment of such Professorships, or if it think fit accept endowments of such Professorships made by individual or corporate donors.

3. The Senate shall appoint and, subject to the conditions annexed to the tenure of any Professorship, have power to dismiss the Professors of the University, and shall, in the same manner, appoint Assistant Professors, prescribe their duties and remuneration, and have power to dismiss them, if necessary.

4. The Registrar to lay before the Senate the Draft Regulations relating to Examinations in Law, submitted by the Provincial Faculty of Law.

5. The Senate shall from time to time make regulations fixing the fees, if any, to be paid by the students attending the classes of Professors and Assistant Professors and the money collected in fees shall be the property of the University.

6. The Registrar to report that, subject to the sanction of the Senate, Babu Herambachandra Mitra, M. A., Principal, City College, Calcutta, has been appointed by the Syndicate, a member of the Committee for the Inspection of Mofussil Colleges, in the place of Babu Brājendranath Sil, M. A., whose services are not available, as His Highness the Maharaja of Cooch-Bihar is unwilling to spare them.

7. The Syndicate to recommend to the Senate that eligible students at present reading in the Second Year Class of the Wesleyan Mission College, Bankura, which is not yet affiliated, be permitted

to appear at the forthcoming F. A. Examination on their successfully passing the College test.

8. The Syndicate to recommend to the Senate that the undermentioned candidates be admitted to the ensuing M. A. Examination as private students:—

Abdullah Abu Sayied; Saratchandra Bandopadhyay; Krishnalal Baral Jatindranath Chakrabarti; Nalinimohan Chattopadhyay; Satyakinkar Chattopadhyay; J. S. Cohen; Bisweswar Das; Durgamohan Das; Kashinath Das; Mahendralal Das; Pareschandra Ghosh; Saradaprasanna Ghosh; Lekshman Balkrishna Deva; Mohammad Abdul Hafeez; Siteschandra Sen; Syed Abu Taher; Syed Mohammad Ismail, and S. L. Gokhale.

UNIVERSITY READERS.

1. A certain sum, whenever practicable, shall be set apart annually from the University income or from any funds specially provided for the purpose by Government or other donors, for the purpose of providing special courses of lectures on particular subjects. These lectures shall be delivered generally during the cold weather months and will be intended mainly for the benefit of graduates engaged in research work or of those who wish to prosecute special studies. The lecturers delivering such courses of lectures shall be called University Readers.

2. The appointment of Readers under Section 1, and the determination of the subjects of their lectures shall be made by the Senate on the recommendation of the subjects by the Syndicate being made after consultation with the Readers. The appointments in the case of readerships from funds which are provided by the Government shall be subject to the approval of the Governor-General in Council.

3. Readers shall lecture in such places, as may be, from time to time, determined by the Senate.

4. The fee for a course of lectures, under Section 1, shall from time to time be fixed by the Syndicate, and the money collected in fees shall be the property of the University.

5. A Reader appointed, under Section 1, shall ordinarily receive an honorarium of Rs. 2000 for a course of lectures, but in special case this fee may be increased.

6. The Senate on the recommendation of the Syndicate shall from time to time allot funds to meet the remuneration of Demonstrators and Assistants as well as any general expenditure which may be incurred in connection with these lectures.

7. Courses of lectures delivered under Section 1, shall be printed and published at the expense of the University.

UNIVERSITY LECTURES.

1. The University shall provide for post graduate teaching, study, and research in the Faculties of Arts and Science.

2. The Heads of Colleges affiliated to the University shall from time to time submit to the Registrar the names of Professors in their respective colleges who are prepared to deliver lectures on and conduct classes for research or advanced work for post-graduate courses of study in Arts or Science. Any five members of the Faculty of Arts or the Faculty of Science conjointly shall have the power to submit to the Registrar the name of a candidate for the same purpose.

3. The Syndicate shall consider the names so submitted and shall proceed to recommend to the Senate lecturers for the various post-graduate courses of study. In recommending lecturers for the various courses the Syndicate shall have regard to (a) the qualifications of the applicant, (b) the desirability of avoiding an unnecessary multiplication of lecturers on the same subject, and in the case of science subjects, (c) the equipment for advanced practical work, which can be provided.

4. The Senate shall have power, upon the recommendation of the Syndicate as aforesaid, to appoint lecturers, who shall be called University Lecturers.

5. If a lecturer, after delivering his lectures, is desirous of publishing them or their substance, he shall submit his lectures or their substance to the Syndicate, and the Syndicate, if satisfied that the lectures or their substance should be published, shall have power to help him in the publication thereof out of the funds of the University.

6. University Lecturers shall in the first instance be appointed for two years but they shall be eligible for re-appointment.

7. University Lectures and Classes for advanced work or research shall be open to all graduates of Indian Universities, and to such other persons as may be permitted by the Syndicate on the recommendation of the Lecturer.

8. University Lectures shall be delivered in the College to which the lecturer belongs, or in such other place as the Syndicate in consultation with the lecturer may determine.

9. The fee for a course of University Lectures shall be determined by the Syndicate, and the money collected in fees for any particular course shall be the property of the college to which the

lecturer delivering the course belongs, where the lecturer is a professor of a college, and to the lecturer himself in any other case.

INSPECTION OF AFFILIATED COLLEGES.

1. The Syndicate shall appoint persons who may or may not be members of their own body to inspect every College affiliated to the University.

2. The persons so appointed should be men of high standing, experts in the matter of University education, possessing some knowledge of the working of Indian Colleges, and having no interest in any College in the neighbourhood of the College inspected.

3. The inspection shall be conducted jointly by two persons, one of whom shall be an expert on the literary side, and the other an expert on the scientific side, of the work, in the case of Colleges affiliated in Arts or Science. They shall submit a joint report on the results of their inspection. In the case of Colleges affiliated in any branch of professional learning, the Inspector or Inspectors shall be experts in that subject.

4. All the Colleges must be inspected once within eighteen months of the passing of the Regulations. Thereafter, every College must be inspected once a year.

POINTS TO BE REPORTED ON AT AN INSPECTION OF AFFILIATED COLLEGES IN BENGAL.

The Inspecting officer or officers will report upon the following matters:—

(1) The constitution of the governing body and the names of its members.

(2) The suitability of the buildings, the accommodation for the students in attendance, the furniture, the lighting, the ventilation of the rooms, the drainage of the surrounding premises, and the efficiency of the sanitary arrangements for the students and the teaching staff.

(3) The names and qualifications of the teaching staff, the conditions governing their tenure of office, and the changes in the staff during the preceding year. Whether provision is made for the residence of the Head of the College and of any members of the teaching staff in or near the college or the place provided for the residence of the students.

(4) The adequacy of the professorial staff, and of the teaching appliances and apparatus.

(5) The course of study, the subjects taught, the routine of the day, and the arrangements for exercises and for tutorial assistance.

(6) The strictness, with which the College registers are kept and the transfer rules observed.

(7) The average monthly roll-number and the daily attendance of students during the last twelve months, as compared with the previous year's.

(8) The results of public examinations.

(9) The state of discipline.

(10) The provision made for physical exercise, if any.

(11) The extent of hostel accommodation, and the degree of efficiency attained in the supervision of hostels and students' messes.

Note.—(1) The following books shall be kept:—

(a) An admission register.

(b) Attendance register.

(c) A students' conduct register.

(d) A register of the progress of students indicated specially at periodical examinations.

(e) Register of transfer certificates issued and received.

(f) Cash-book.

(h) A book containing the proceedings of the governing-body.

Note.—(2) All the accounts, books, and other records of a College shall at all times be open to inspection and examination by any officer or officers who may be deputed by the Syndicate for the purpose, provided that any information obtained from the inspection of the accounts, shall be deemed to be confidential, but may, if necessary, be communicated to the Syndicate.

Note.—(3) Such inspection and examination shall have no reference to religious instruction.

OUR ENGLISH LETTER.

CAMBRIDGE, October 1905.

The excellent writer who signs himself 'Kappa' has brought to a conclusion his series of articles in the 'Westminster Gazette' entitled 'If youth but knew.' These papers have dealt with education in England as it is and as it ought to be; and have shown how wide the gap is between the real and the ideal. The author has passed in review the subjects taught, the time they take up, and proportion that the time taken bears to their utility. Not that he is a vulgar materialist; he reckons educative and formative power among his 'utilities.' Still, the result is inevitably, indeed, we should incline to say that

does not go half far enough. He would cut out Latin and Greek verse-making. We would cut out Latin and Greek entirely for all but those who intend to pursue them to a considerable distance. It cannot be denied that in five cases out of every six the time spent upon these studies is entirely wasted: or that the weary hours thus thrown away might be better spent in acquiring a decent knowledge of one foreign language. The fact is, that for the vast majority of boys the acquisition of one language besides their own is all of which they are capable. Instead of aiming at the possible, they are compelled to acquire a smattering of four or five languages; and that smattering they forget within a year after leaving school. This so-called knowledge has been purchased at the price of total ignorance of all that great men have done during the last century in science, in history, and in criticism: and as a result, on leaving school, they pass, in the words of 'Kappa,' from dead tasks into a dead world.

In a leading article on the subject 'the Westminster Gazette' says that it has received many letters saying that it is all true, and all hopeless. Custom is so hard-frozen in English public schools, and criticism is so much resented, that no reforms are possible from within. From without, none are likely; for Governments are largely composed of men who admire the system and have been brought up on it.

Though the 'Westminster' itself is less despairing yet we fear the case is almost as bad as these correspondents say. There is no sign that the schools are going to tackle the question of the conflict of studies; none that they intend to face the Frankenstein of athletics; almost none that they have the slightest glimmer of a notion of anything wrong at all. True, the author of the 'Upton Letters' seems to be more enlightened than most of his fellows, and Mr. A. C. Benson has been pleading in the 'Speaker' for a little elasticity in the curriculum of our schools; but the majority are content to apply to the twentieth century the methods of the sixteenth. One thing is certain, that if things go on as they are for a few more years, the result will be as it generally is when reform is delayed. It comes in at last, not as reform, but as revolution.

The interest roused by these papers has been great, and is illustrated by the fact that the 'Westminster' has received a large number of letters on the subject, of which it prints two or three. One, signed 'G. M.' from Oxford, is the letter of a man who has taught himself, and speaks with authority. Some of his words will meet with instant acceptance in the minds of

such of his readers as know teaching by practical experience: 'Boys, when you try to lure them on to thinking some question out for themselves, are apt to watch wearily till the jaw is over, and you tell them what the answer is. I quite think that we should stimulate their reason and imagination; but it has largely to be done in spite of themselves. One chief cause of the unintellectual character of boys' education is the influence of the boys themselves. They always outnumber the teacher, and take care that he shall not be too unlike them at least with impunity. They have good memories and bad reasoning organs. They have a strong instinct of obedience, and they hate working for things. They are silently soliciting the teacher to give up all this bother of developing their minds and characters, and instead simply tell them the answer.' Kappa, thinks G. M., seems scarcely to feel as he ought how great a curse is the examination system; it is this, next to the character of the boys themselves that spoils teaching. That must be a very narrow definition of the word education which excludes from its scope the work done by such a man as Dr. Barnardo, who died the other day, at the comparatively early age of sixty, after doing more good than is usually possible to five or six men put together. No schoolmaster has ever influenced half so many lives. Dr. Arnold probably had less than two thousand pupils—even counting in the list all the boys who were at Rugby in his time: Barnardo had rescued from want and probably from crime and early death no fewer than fifty thousand children. Since the day, a little under forty years ago, when the young medical student met the street-Arab who told him he 'didn't live nowhere,' he had laboured indefatigably to provide a home and training for every child that was sent to him. It was his pride that he never rejected any. At his death there were seven thousand in his homes. It had been feared that this great work could not go on after the founder was removed; but the fear has already been proved idle. Indeed, as is so often the case, the very vastness of the organising powers that have built up such an institution enable it to continue afterwards. It is the less great men who prove themselves indispensable; the great ones leave their work so ordered that weaker men can carry it on.

The death of Miss Flora Stevenson, a person very different from Dr. Barnardo, but not less worthy of praise in her own sphere, ought not to be passed over without mention. She was one of the very few women who have earned real dis-

tion for their work on School Boards. She was first elected to the Edinburgh Board in 1873, and served ever since till her death a few days ago, being Chairman of the Board for several years past. It is largely through her exertions that Edinburgh education has gained its present position—high up among the best in the kingdom. Her public life covered nearly the whole time that School Boards have been in existence.

The Council of the Teachers' Guild met in June, July, and October. At the July meeting special attention was drawn to the shortness of the supply of well-qualified men and women now entering the teaching profession. The reason was, sensibly enough, found in the fact that the career of the teacher does not hold out adequate inducements to men and women of good intellectual capacity. First, the salaries are too low. This the Council proposed to remedy by fixing the *minimum* salary, for men qualified for registration in 'column B,' at £150, rising to £350; for women similarly qualified, a minimum of £120. Secondly, the tenure is insecure. To remedy this, the Council proposes that the teacher should be *selected* by the Head for a time of probation, and, if recommended by the Head, should be *elected* by the governors, who should also have the sole power of dismissal. Provision should be made for retiring pensions, both for Heads and for assistants.

It is safe to say that until security of tenure is provided, and the possibility of a pension given, there will always be few well-qualified teachers in England. Yet how little this is even now realised, is shown—if proof were needed—by the fact that in the otherwise admirable scheme for the Ipswich Grammar School, drawn up by the Town Council, no provision of the kind is made. The governors fix the *total* amount to be paid to assistant masters, but leave its allocation to the Head: the present Head Master, if his services are not retained, will have a pension—but not so his assistants. This simply means that men who desire to marry, or who for other reasons require more than a living wage, will be *compelled* to try a profession other than that of teaching. A salary of £150 a year till you are forty, followed possibly by an unceremonious dismissal by a Head Master who wants younger blood, is not the sort of thing to attract an ambitious man.

Reviews and Notices.

ENGLISH MEN OF LETTERS: SYDNEY SMITH, BY GEORGE W. E. RUSSELL. (MACMILLAN AND Co. Price 2s. net.)

First the math, then the aftermath. The inclusion in the series of such writers as Fanny Burney, Maria Edgeworth, Crabbe and the subject of the present book, shows that in making the series comprehensive, the publishers had to lower the literary quality of the persons brought up for treatment. We do not mean to say that such an extension of the original plan is wrong nor do we imply that the books treating of these are inferior in interest. But it will be admitted we feel in the 'men of letters' now mentioned there is the 'little less' separating them from those that have the 'little more' and having the 'little more' are 'worlds away' from the first. We may admit that Sydney Smith's English is forcible and pointed, that his humour is most trenchant, that his writings are 'a perpetual fountain of good sense,' that he used his pen with effect on behalf of liberalism, but we feel doubtful if he has received the chrism of the literary elect. Hence perhaps the growing neglect of Sydney Smith as a writer.

The popular neglect of Sydney Smith makes it all the more necessary that we should have a readable account of the writer drawing attention to his salient characteristics as a man of letters and to the services he did to his contemporaries. Such an account will not err if it gives copious specimens of the writings and Mr. George Russell has done the task admirably.

Sydney Smith's share in the work of the Edinburgh Review, Peter Plymley Letters, the question of Catholic Emancipation, and Reform of the Parliament, Letters to Archdeacon Singleton, receive particular treatment. His social successes are dwelt upon and a special chapter is devoted to Characteristics, Humour, Politics, Culture, Theories of Life, Religion.

Readers of Bagehot know the character of Whigs, 'men of cool, moderate, resolute firmness, not gifted with high imagination, little prone to enthusiastic sentiment, heedless of large theories and sentiments, careless of dreamy scepticism.' They come from Philistia, are eminently respectable. Sydney Smith was a glorified specimen of that class. He had however that, in an eminent degree, which others of his class lacked—humour. His humour is popular, buoyant riotous fun. It was content with surface contrasts and did not penetrate to the base rock of cosmic absurdities.

Of The Noodle's Oration and the warning to the United States (*Vide* Appendix of the book) with the Inn scene in Silas Marner and Dame Quickly's account of Falstaff's death.

The most winning side of Sydney Smith is his passionate advocacy of humanitarian reform. His essays on Mad Quakers, Chimney Sweepers, Game Laws, Spring Guns, Prisons and Counsel for Prisoners show how valiant a fighter he was for improvement. Liberalism is itself now on the wane and the lessening of the popularity of the cause Sydney Smith represented must also have reacted on the writer's fame. Whenever liberalism is in the ascendant, Sydney Smith's writings which express its principles in the way best fitted to make them come home to the business and bosoms of the common men, will become popular; and he more glorious will appear than from no fall.

We began by saying that Sydney Smith had not the true *cachet* of the man of letters. But in the palace of letters there are many mansions. All of them may not be decorated alike and equally well furnished. Sydney Smith's right to occupy the modester ones will not be disputed.

EDWARD FITZGERALD, BY A. C. BENSON. (MACMILLAN AND Co. Price 2s. net.)

No man of letters has won a position among his compeers on slenderer testimonials than Edward FitzGerald. A Translation in Verse of a Persian poem, a few volumes of letters and a book in the form of Platonic dialogue exhaust FitzGerald's claims to sit among the 'throned' powers. But the claims advanced have been found sufficient and we know of no adverse pleas and the Devil's advocate has been unusually silent. If '*noscitur a sociis*' should be applied to Edward FitzGerald, he was happy in counting as his friends Tennyson, Carlyle, Thackeray, Spedding, Cowell, and Fanny Kemble.

The life of FitzGerald, says Mr. A. C. Benson, 'was a life singularly devoid of incident. It was a career of a lonely, secluded, fastidious and affectionate man; it was a life not rich in results, not fruitful in example. It is the history of a few great friendships, much quiet benevolence, tender loyalty, wishful enjoyment.'

The first four chapters give an account of this uneventful life. The fifth chapter treats of the 'great work' *Omar Khayyam*, the next of Plays, Euphranor and Letters. The seventh chapter deals with FitzGerald as a literary critic, dwelling on his literary sympathies and antipathies

and the last treats of 'Habits—Character.' Mr. Benson has made the utmost of the slender materials at his disposal and the book does not leave the impression of being thinspun anywhere.

The most notable event in FitzGerald's life is his marriage. A more ill-assorted pair could not be imagined. FitzGerald was unconventional to a degree. He was "solvent in dress, wearing an ancient, battered, black-banded, shiny-edged, tall hat, round which he would in windy weather tie a handkerchief to keep it in its place." His clothes of baggy blue cloth, as though he were a sea-farer, his trousers short and his shoes low, exhibiting a length of white or grey stockings. With an unstarched white shirt front, high, crumpled, stand-up collars; in cold weather a green and black or grey plaid shawl; in hot weather even walking barefoot, with his boots slung to a stick" (p. 171). Fancy such a man married to a kindly, conventional methodical woman wishing to pay calls, receive visitors and dress for dinner. The union might appear as ridiculous as the idea of a 'cast-iron king' was to Teufelsdröck. We all wish Browne's advice were followed: "Give her anything you like but your hand." The advice was not followed and hence an addition to the unhappiness of FitzGerald.

We need not follow the critical exposition of FitzGerald's writings which is most adequately performed. We must find room for two extracts one defining the writer's position as a poet and another as a letter writer.

After referring to the "various conjuncture of fortunate circumstances" which enabled FitzGerald to give to the world, 'one minute piece of absolutely first rate work' Mr. Benson proceeds: "But the *Omar* cannot be said to have affected the stream of English poetry very deeply; it has not turned the current of poetical thought in the direction of Oriental verse; moreover the language of the *Omar*, stately and beautiful as it is, has no modernity above it; it is not a development, but a reverting to older traditions, a memorable graft so to speak, of a bygone style.

"FitzGerald's position with regard to the poetry that was rising and swelling about him is that of a stranded boat on a lee shore. He could not bring himself into line with modern verse at all, he had none of the nineteenth century spirit. Yet he is in the fore front of those who, standing apart from the direct current of the time, seem destined to make the Victorian age furnish a singularly rich anthology of beautiful poetry."

Of the letters Mr. Benson says: "These have a high value, both for their beautiful and original

literary form, for the careless picture they give of a certain type of retired and refined country-life, for their unconsidered glimpses of great personalities, and for the fact that they present a very peculiar and interesting point of view, a delicate criticism of life from a highly original stand-point. The melancholy which underlies the letters is not a practical or inspiring thing; but it is essentially true; and it carries with it a sad refinement, a temperate waiting upon the issues of life, a sober resignation, which are pure and noble. FitzGerald by his lover-like tenderness of heart, his wistful desire to clasp hands with life, was enabled to resist the temptation, apt to beset similar temperaments to sink into a dreary silence about the whole unhappy business. And thus there emerges a certain gentle and pathetic philosophy, not a philosophy for the brisk, the eager, and the successful, but a philosophy for all who find their own defects of character too strong for them, and yet would not willingly collapse into petulant bitterness. FitzGerald is a sort of sedate Hamlet, the madness that wrought in his brain does not emerge in loud railings, or in tempestuous and brief agonies of desperate action; but it emerges in many gentle gestures and pathetic beckonings, and a tender desire in a world where so much is dark, that men should cling all together and float into the darkness."

We must forbear further quotations. We have quoted enough to show what a literary treat there is for readers who care for such things in the book before us.

THE DIARY OF SAMUEL PEPYS WITH AN INTRODUCTION AND NOTES, BY GEORGE GREGORY SMITH. (MACMILLAN AND CO. Price 3s. 6d.)

Samuel Pepys (surname to be pronounced, says the Editor, *peeps* and not *pepps*, as Mr. H. B. Wheatley says, *peps*, *pips* or *pepis*) would have left behind him—in the absence of the Diary which has immortalised him—the memory of a highly decorous and respectable individual. He would have been entitled to the usual lapidary encomium that every citizen and father of a family gets.

Pepys had a successful official career. Beginning his life as the major-domo of a rich and influential relative, he succeeds in entering the Naval Office, shows he has business capacity, wins the confidence of his patrons gets 'promotions,' fills influential positions in the Admiralty and is in the good graces of his sovereign. Clerkship of the King's Ships, clerkship of the Privy Seal, Surveyor Generalship of the Victual-

ling Office, Secretaryship to the Admiralty is an office record not to be despised.

In money-matters, Pepys was successful. On the 6th May, 1660 (p. 25 of this edition), he notes: "all my debts paid and my preparations to sea, I have £40 clear in my purse." On the 1st June he gets 70 guilders, "which my heart did much rejoice at." On the 1st January 1661, his fees come to £80 clear. On the 31st August 1662, Pepys finds himself worth £686-19-2½ for which God be praised. "Blessed be God I do find myself £760 creditor notwithstanding the outlay on clothes is the entry on the 30th September 1663. On the 31st December 1664 he finds himself to have laid up above £500 over what he was worth that day twelve-month. Two years hence he is worth £6,200 above £1,800 more than he was worth last year. Next year end he is worth £6,900. Though he died poor he claimed from the Government £28,007-2-1½. The odd farthing shows what a conscientious accountant he was.

Again he had his trials, he figured as the Dreyfus of his time and pleaded his case eloquently at the bar of the House of Commons and established his innocence. He was an M. P., was elected President of the Royal Society, might have become Provost of King's College, was elected to the Mastership of the Trinity House, was addressed by his 'dear Aunt' the Oxford University as *Vir Ornatissime* and he counted among his friends Newton, Evelyn and Kneller. Surely about such a person there must be 'a halo of historical pomp.'

One of the eminently respectable class, the 'solid man' who could have, with a safe conscience, joined in the thanksgiving of the self-satisfied Pharisee, Pepys would have been thought to be but for the damning testimony in cipher which he left behind him and which has been completely edited only very recently by Mr. H. B. Wheatley. The diary reveals the psychological problem of how you can have a dual personality—in real life—of a respectable Dr. Jekyll and another far from respectable Mr. Hyde. As Mr. Edmund Airy says, the Diary tells us of "probity in word and integrity in office, along with self-confessed mendacity and fraud; modesty with inordinate self-conceit; independence of mind with the vulgarest striving after and exultation at the marks of respect which he receives as he rises in the world, and at little advantages gained over others; high-mindedness with sordid spite, dignity with buffoonery; strong common sense with great superstition; kindness with brutality; the eager pursuit of money with liberality in spending it."

The position of the Diary as an indispensable book for the study of the history of the time of Charles the Second is above all dispute.

As a book of most interesting gossip it is unrivalled.

The Publishers and the Editor deserve the thanks of the public for making the Diary appear in a cheap form and the Editor would have earned the thanks of the readers much more if he had not bowdlerised even to the slight extent he has done. We are not satisfied about the plea of injustice that would be done to Mr. Pepys and about the unessential nature of the omissions. Our feeling on this matter is the same as R. L. Stevenson's about Mr. Mynor Bright's edition which Mr. Gregory Smith follows. Possibly there is the objection of the difficulty of making the whole Diary go into a single volume. This can hardly be done except by making the paper thinner or the type smaller. It is an objection that must be reckoned with, and it must have weighed among other reasons with the Editor. We do not see why the books must be complete in single volumes. It seems rather ungracious to carp about a work which has been carefully done but our anxiety to have unmitigated editions of classics in the 'Globe Library' must be blamed for the capping. Froissart suffered similarly. We hope the publishers will plan better the next time they embark on a similar enterprise.

The Editor's work has been carefully done. The Introduction gives an estimate of the Diary, the notes explain obscure points in the Text and the Index is a welcome help for purposes of reference.

HISTOIRE DE LA REVOLUTION FRANÇAISE BY FRANÇOIS A. M. MIGNET, EDITED BY A. DUPINS (THE CLARENDON PRESS, OXFORD, 3s.)

Forms one of Oxford Modern French Series. The text forms a portion of Mignet's well-known history. It begins with the opening of the States General in May 1789, and ends with the death of Louis XVI on January 21, 1793. A short, five-page biographic notice of Mignet followed by 24 pp. of notes explaining the historic and other allusions in the text and further by Biographical and Geographical Notes gives all the help that the reader needs to understand the text. The only way of making the student acquainted with the living language is to make it easy for him to come in contact with the writers that have used the language with a mastery and skill that bring out its power and

beauty. Such service is done by the present publication.

SIMPLE LESSONS ON HEALTH, BY SIR MICHAEL ROSTER.

Is a neat little book which really supplies a want among the student population. The subject of 'Domestic Sanitation' specially relating to Fresh Air, Food and Drink, Light and Cleanliness (personal as well as of the surroundings) is presented in a popular and simple style, easily understood by all. The book is very interesting, specially from the way in which scientific truths are explained by apt and beautiful illustrations from common life, which will appeal to the young mind. It "reads" more like a novel than a treatise on scientific subject. A few lines about smoking and its evil consequences, especially for the young, will not be out of place in such a very useful book. The author has spared no pains in presenting the subject in as attractive and pleasant a manner as possible to the people for whom it is intended.

EASY FRENCH RHYMES, BY HENRI BLOUET, B. A. (METAMEN AND CO. 1s.)

Gives happy French versions of English nursery rhymes. The book will supply the young reader with a fairly extensive vocabulary and will be found useful in elementary classes. The translation cannot be always literal and the teacher will find it useful to bring out the difference of idiom in the languages. Among the rhymes are Cock-Robin, Humpty-Dumpty, The House that Jack built, Jack and Jill, The Old Woman who lived in a Shoe, A Frog who would a wooing go, &c., &c. The book is illustrated.

LA PRINCESSE ROSETTE, BY W. G. HARTOG. (RIVINGTONS. 1s.)

Histoire de la Princesse Rosette of la Comtesse de Segur is an addition to the Publishers' New Junior French Text. The notes explain the difficult words and phrases in the text. At the end there are exercises oral and written as also a useful vocabulary.

AUE'S ADVANCED GERMAN GRAMMAR, REVISED AND ENLARGED BY OTTO SCHLAPP. (W. R. CHAMBERS. 3s. 6d.)

May be commended as a reliable guide to master the intricacies of the German tongue. The book

begins logically with an examination of the German sentence structure and tackles first with that most troublesome element of all languages—the verb. The affinities of English and German verbs are brought out, and the vowel gradation illustrated. Prepositions receive careful treatment in Accidence and Syntax, and Derivation—an important part of German Grammar—is adequately treated in two Chapters dividing Accidence from Syntax. Exercises, Notes to Exercises and Vocabulary add to the usefulness of the book.

ELEMENTARY GREEK GRAMMAR FOR SCHOOLS, BY JOHN THOMSON, M. A. (JOHN MURRAY. 3s.)

Gives—in the words of the preface—the elements of Greek Grammar in a form suitable for beginners. Philological details are avoided, unnecessary and unusual forms are left out. At the same time the results of modern scholarship have been utilised to make the Grammar a thoroughly up-to-date one.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

THE Principal of the Presidency College, Madras, notifies in the *Fort St. George Gazette* for the 29th November that applications for admissions to the several classes of that college should be sent in on or before the 31st December. After the University results are published, an unconditional application will have to be made by each student. Students should also state what lectures they intend attending. They will be duly informed whether places have been reserved for them.

AN oil painting of the late Rev. F. W. Kellest, was unveiled on Tuesday the 28th inst., at the Anderson Hall. Mr. S. D. Pears presided and the Rev. William Miller took part in the proceedings.

THE Accountant-General has been authorised by the Government of Madras to place the amounts specified below at the disposal of the District Boards from the lump provision of 6 lakhs for primary education under 22 Education transferred to 45 Civil Works—In charge of Civil officers—Local:—

District Board.	Amount.
	RS.
South Canara	16,200
The Nilgiris	9,100
Gōdāvari	16,750
Vizagapatam	59,000
Total	1,01,050

THE Government are pleased to sanction a grant not exceeding Rs. 7,500 (seven thousand and five hundred) or one-third the total cost, whichever may be less, towards the cost of extensions to the building now occupied by the Town High School, Kumbakonam, subject to the following conditions:—

(1) that the authorities of the school carry out the work in accordance with the revised estimate submitted by the Superintending Engineer, V Circle, and modified by the Chief Engineer, Public Works Department;

(2) that the work is completed before the 31st December 1906;

(3) that a certificate of the actual expenditure incurred on the work is submitted before the 31st of January 1907;

(4) that all other conditions prescribed in the Grant-in-aid Code have been duly complied with.

It has been decided by the Government to abolish the Saidapet Agricultural college, and a new Technical School of Agriculture in combination with an Agricultural Research Institute and an Experimental Farm is to be started at Coimbatore. A suitable site at that place has been chosen. In accordance with the above Government Order, it is notified in the local *Gazettes* for November 27, that no new admissions will be made to the Saidapet Agricultural College, in January next. The new Institute at Coimbatore will be under the Agricultural Department.

THE annual distribution of prizes to the boys of the Town High School, Kumbakonam, took place on the 18th November with Rao Bahadur C. Nagoji Rao in the chair. The Chairman in the course of his speech, said that the average Matriculate now is in no way inferior to the Matriculate of 20 years ago. If we have not made rapid progress, it is the fault of circumstances like overcrowding in schools, and want of private endowments for educational purposes. He also expressed his opinion that it would be a very good thing if only those who were fit to receive Higher Education were admitted in an schools. Many families have been ruined by such unprofitable education and such pupils were not even fit to look after their lands when they came home.

THE Pachaiyappa Commemoration Day was celebrated at the Pachaiyappa's Hall on the 28th October. The gathering was presided over by Rai Bahadur P. Ananda Charlu and the Commemoration Address was delivered by Mr. Eardly Norton. Mr. Norton in his remarks on the question of University Reform, was in favour of defending the existing arrangements, and generally sided with expressed opinions of Dr. Miller.

THE Annual Conference of the Teachers' Association of Trichinopoly was held on the 18th November at the Town Hall. It sat through the whole day and was attended by nearly 300 teachers. The morning session was presided over by the Rev. H. Pakenham Walsh, Principal of the S. P. G. College, and the

afternoon session by Mr. V. Singaravelu Mudaliar, Assistant Inspector of Schools.

The Rev. H. Pakenham Walsh read a paper on the education of the young and the laws of the sexes, recommending, in effect, that a voice should be allowed to the teachers in such matters as the marriage and the sexual relations of young students, in view to promoting morality and happiness amongst them. A discussion ensued, at which the Rev. Father Castets, of St. Joseph's College, and Mr. Vayasa Row, Professor, S. P. G. College, and others took part. The Conference was of opinion that there was no need at all for any interference by the teachers, the home being the proper sphere of influence and control in such matters.

A paper was then read by Mr. M. Visvanatha Iyer, B.A., L.T., Professor, St. Joseph's College, on "Moral Instruction in Schools." The trend of the discussion showed that the Conference could see no need for moral instruction being given in the classes from any special text-book; but that the teacher should use every opportunity to improve the *morale* of the students that might offer itself in the course of his teaching the general text-books, literature, biographies, etc.

At the afternoon session Mr. S. Vayasa Row, Professor, S. P. G. College, delivered an address on "Compulsory Education in India" for which he ably pleaded. He explained that the present poverty of the country was to be attributed to the ignorance of the masses, and unless they were educated the decadence in agriculture and industries and commerce which they saw around them could not be arrested. He pointed out that Japan, the United States of America, the Philippines, Germany and England owed, all of them, their civilisation and material advancement to their compulsory educational systems; and that unless such a measure was introduced here by Government, the salvation of the country would be as far off as ever. After discussing the subject at some length, the Conference passed the following Resolution:—

"In view of the existing ignorance of the masses, this Conference is of opinion that it is high time for the Government to consider the desirability of the introduction of compulsory Primary Education into India suited to the requirements of the several localities."

A paper was then read on "Female Education" by Mr. S. Gnanamanikam, of the Model Primary School, who said that home education should be given to females to a larger extent than now, and exhorted the audience to give them proper and sufficient education.

The Chairman, in the speech he made in winding up the proceedings, dealt with the various subjects discussed at the Conference which was afterwards dissolved.

There was then a social gathering of the teachers, after which they dispersed.

THE GIRLS' COLLEGE, TRAVANCORE.

TREVANURUM, 13th Nov.—On Wednesday there was an interesting function at the College and High School for girls. Among those present were His Highness the Maharajah, Mr. J. Andrew, the Resident, Mrs. Andrew, Mr. T. Sadasiva Iyer, Chief Justice, Lieutenant-Colonel Dawson and several ladies. Miss D. H. Watts, B.A., the Acting Lady Principal, read an interesting Report, which showed that the institution has done very admirable work during the last year. The members of the University Commission, who visited the institution in the latter end of the year covered by the Report, were very favourably impressed with the work turned out there. Mr. H. J. Bhabha, the Inspector-General of Education in Mysore, who was also a member, was so highly pleased with the improvements made that he said he would introduce the same into Mysore. The prizes, a large number of which came from gentlemen unconnected with the institution and interested in the advancement of female education, having been distributed by His Highness, Mr. Andrew delivered an interesting and humorous speech which was well appreciated even by the younger folk. The Resident congratulated the Lady Principal and her staff on maintaining the progress of the institution during the past year. One thing that ought to be remembered in the education of boys and girls is that in the case of the girl she has to attend to a large number of domestic functions, and the education given should, therefore, make the girl realise her position as a helpmate of man. Another point of difference noted by the speaker was that, while the education of the sterner sex required competition and other inducements to make them real bread-winners, the training of the girls requires a good deal of sympathy and kindness on the part of the teacher. The absence of a spirit of competition for worldly success was a favourable factor in the case of girls for a broad and deep foundation for real education.

BENGAL.

AN important meeting of the leading Indians of Bengal was held on the 17th of November when it was resolved. "That in the opinion of this Conference it is desirable and necessary that a National Council of Education should be at once established to organise a system of Education, literary, scientific, and technical, on National lines and under National control, and, that the following gentlemen be appointed Provisional Committee to take immediate steps to further this object, and that the Committee be instructed to submit their report within three weeks." After the appointment of the above mentioned committee and also five trustees, it was announced at the meeting that Babu Subodh Chandra Mallick had subscribed 1 lakh of rupees, that another gentleman had offered 5 lakhs of rupees to be paid in cash or in property yielding rupees twenty thousand a year and that a third gentleman had offered 2 lakhs in cash and a magnificent house in

Calcutta with a large compound. It was also announced that there was a likelihood of obtaining an endowment of Rs. 30,000 a year from another party.

At a meeting of the Bengal Legislative Council, held in November, the Hon'ble Mr. J. Chaudhuri asked:—

Is the Government in a position to state whether a member of the Indian Civil Service is to succeed Mr. Alexander Pedler on the latter's retirement from the office of the Director of Public Instruction in Bengal?

Is the office of the Director of Public Instruction to be abolished and an Educational Secretary appointed in his place to discharge his duties?

Is the Government aware that scheme for the conversion of the Educational Department into an executive department of the Bengal Government was contemplated by Sir George Campbell and then abandoned, having been called into question in Parliament? Having regard to this fact, does the Government intend to revive a similar scheme?

The Hon'ble Mr. Gordon replied:—

The answer to the first question is that the Hon'ble Member is referred to the answer given by the Secretary of State for India to Mr. Hugh Law's question of the third August, in which it was stated that he was aware that the Government of Bengal did propose to appoint a Member of the Indian Civil Service to succeed Mr. Pedler temporarily as Director of Public Instruction in March next. An officer of the Educational Department has been already selected for appointment as Inspector of Schools, so that at the end of two years he may be fully acquainted with the details of the administration of the department and qualified for the Directorship.

2. The answer to the other questions is that Government does not intend to abolish the office of the Director of Public Instruction and appoint an Educational Secretary in his place, or to convert the Educational Department into an Executive Department of the Bengal Government.

The following correspondence will be read with interest:—

Calcutta, Nov. 4, 1905.

Dear Sir,—It was not without some amount of surprise that having regard to Your Honour's well known attitude towards the student community, I read the Circular about the students which first appeared in the *Statesman*. I find that the Circular as actually sent out to District officers is somewhat different from the one published in the *Statesman*. Your Honour is aware of the state of public feeling at this moment and the use which the Circular in question may be put to by over-zealous officials. I am quite sure that Your Honour does not wish that the students should be dealt with by the police or that the under-graduates or grown up students should be punished for taking part in public movements with the sanction and authority of their guardians. As considerable misapprehension has arisen in the public mind with regard to this circular,

may I be permitted to approach Your Honour for an expression of Your Honour's views on the subjects dealt with in the circular.

Yours sincerely,

(Sd.) BHUPENDRA NATH BOSU.

To the Hon'ble Sir Andrew Fraser, K.C.S.I.

The 4th Nov. 1905.

Dear Sir,—With reference to your letter of today's date the Lieutenant-Governor bids me say that he is very willing to give any explanation asked by a member of his Council in regard to public measures.

The circular regarding employment of school boys and students in connection with political agitation, which appeared originally in the *Statesman*, was neither issued nor authorised by this Government. Mr. Carlyle has since sent you a copy of the letter on which that document professes to have been based and you have sent this to the Press.

You will observe that that letter (No. 1679, dated 10th ultimo) was a confidential letter addressed to certain Magistrates and Collectors. It was not a general circular. It was addressed only to certain Magistrates from whose districts information had been received that there was indication of the likelihood of agitation on the part of students and school boys and of counter movements on the part of other sections of the community, and consequently some probability of breach of the peace. The natural remedy was no doubt to have the police on the alert, to prevent or suppress any breach of the peace. To the Lieutenant-Governor, however, this appeared to mean that police could be brought into collision with students, and that the latter should be punished in the criminal courts, and perhaps imprisoned in the criminal jails. This is a measure which the Lieutenant-Governor would be very loath to take. He desired to do his best, first of all, to secure that the matter should be dealt with departmentally by the educational authorities.

You will observe that the letter distinctly stated that it was only when an attempt had been made by boys attending schools or colleges to take public action which was condemned in the circular—it was only then that the Magistrate was to take action and the action which he was to take was to consist in informing the Heads of schools and colleges concerned, of the view which Government takes and of the necessity for their taking departmental action. The object was to prevent the Magistrate from falling back upon police, until he had done everything which he possibly could do through school and college authorities. You will observe therefore that, if the document which appeared in the *Statesman* is a genuine document, it contravenes the principles of the Government letter on which it professes to be based in the first place by taking action before school boys or students had made their attempt, and in the second place by placing the matter mainly in the hands of the police.

As I have said the object of the Lieutenant-Governor indicated in the circular was within certain

areas, where breach of the peace was regarded as probable, to secure that the matter should be dealt with by the educational authorities, and not by the Police, so far as students and school boys were concerned. If students act in the manner indicated the alternatives are to punish them through the Criminal Courts or to deal with them departmentally; the Lieutenant-Governor prefers the latter if possible. As to the views of the Lieutenant-Governor on the general question I am to say that His Honour entirely disapproves of the employment of students and school boys in public demonstrations. These views are clearly enough stated in Mr. Carlyle's letter. As to the Swadeshi movement His Honour has always strongly supported the development of indigenous industries; but he cannot and will not tolerate interference with individual liberty in regard to this matter and will insist on the maintenance of the public peace.

I am,
Yours sincerely
W. Gourley.

The following correspondence has passed between the Hon'ble Babu Ambika Charan Mojumdar and the Lieutenant-Governor of the New Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam on the subject of the Circular about the students:—

(I.)

To The Hon'ble Joseph Bampfylde Fuller, C.I.E.,
Lieutenant-Governor of Eastern Bengal and Assam.

Sir,—As a resident of Faridpur and one of 9 members of the Bengal Legislative Council representing the Dacca Division, may I take the liberty to draw your Honour's attention to the explanation which His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal has given in regard to the recent circular about the students and which has been published in the *Bengalee* of the 7th instant (Dak Edition), and may I enquire if your Honour also agrees in the interpretation given to this circular by Sir Andrew Fraser? The circular as published in some of the Eastern and Northern districts has given rise to considerable misapprehension in the public mind, while the action recently taken by the Magistrate of Rungpur in this connection against a large number of students in that town has served to aggravate the situation and accentuate such apprehension. I have therefore felt it my duty to approach Your Honour for an expression of Your Honour's views on the subject dealt with in the circular in question.

I have the honour to be,
Sir
Your most obedient servant,
(Sd.) Ambika Charan Mojumdar.
(II)

THE REPLY OF THE CHIEF SECRETARY.

Camp, Nov. 10th, 1905.

Sir,—In reply to the letter, dated November, the 9th, which has been addressed by you to the Lieutenant-Governor of Eastern Bengal and Assam, I am

XI

desired to state that Mr. Fuller agrees with the Government of Bengal in the view that the association of students in political and semi-political movements is prejudicial to their welfare. His Honour is of opinion that the officers of the Education Department should use their efforts to check the growing tendency to convert scholastic institutions into centres of political activity and he has issued instructions based upon the view, of which a copy is herewith enclosed.

Yours faithfully
(Sd.) P. C. Lyon,
Chief Secretary to the Government
of Eastern Bengal and Assam.

To the Hon'ble Mr. Ambika Charan Mojumdar,
Faridpur.

(III)

No. 31-34 T. C.

From—P. C. Lyon, Esq., C.I.E., Chief Secretary
to the Government of Eastern Bengal and Assam.

To—The Director of Public Instruction, Eastern
Bengal and Assam, and the Inspectors of Schools,
Rajshahi, Dacca and Chittagong Divisions.

Dated Lieut.-Governor's Camp, the 8th Nov.

Sir,

I am directed to communicate to you the wishes of Government in regard to the participation of students in political movements.

2. The Lieutenant-Governor is convinced that students who are permitted to take an active part in political agitation or demonstrations suffer very greatly in education and discipline, and when these movements are directed against measures of State it is likely that young men and boys in their inexperience, will be unable to distinguish between the legitimate and the illegitimate and will contract a bias against the Government, which will not be compatible with good citizenship. His Honour is aware that these are the views held by a large number of parents who unwillingly see their boys drawn into a net of excitement which is a serious drag on the progress of their studies. Gentlemen who own, manage or conduct educational institutions, should be advised to discourage the students of their Colleges or Schools from attending political meetings or from taking part in processions or the like, and should the Principals or Headmasters of Government Institutions find themselves unable to control their students or find that their subordinates fail to render them due assistance in exercising a proper control, they should report the circumstances. Should the management of an aided institution refuse to accept these principles its grant will be withdrawn. And if Mr. Fuller learns that any educational institution is a focus of political agitation or does anything to facilitate the subjection of students to the disturbing excitement of political controversy he will consider it expedient in the interests of the State to debar its students absolutely from Government service. It is obvious that students brought up under influences which

are hostile to the State cannot be expected to serve the State loyally. Cases to which these remarks apply should be reported to Government. These observations apply of course to the active participation of students in promoting the boycott of foreign goods, a movement which has taken developments which go far beyond the laudable idea of encouraging home manufactures and are a serious danger to public tranquillity.

I have the honour to be,

Sir,

Your most obedient servant,

(Sd.) P. C. LYON,

Chief Secretary.

THE UNITED PROVINCES.

STUDENTS AND POLITICS.

Mrs. Besant's Letter.

Mrs. Annie Besant, President of the Board of Trustees of the Central Hindu College, Benares, writes as follows to the *Statesman* :—

At the request of some much-esteemed Bengali friends I send you a few lines of explanation as to the attitude that I think it right to take up as regards the active intervention of school-boys and college youths in political disputes.

Let me say, first, that I regard the Partition of Bengal as a most ill-advised and unstatesmanlike measure, hurried through in a high-handed way, without awaiting the consent of Parliament, and ignoring the protests of the people. It is not impossible that Parliament, thus pushed aside, may assert its dignity and annul the measure. Secondly, I regard the temporary boycott of British goods, if carried out without intimidation of any kind, as a legitimate protest against the inconsiderate action of Lord Curzon, and as a constitutional way of drawing the attention of the British people to the wrong inflicted in their name. Thirdly, I have preached against the craze for foreign goods and the starving of the Indian industries for the last twelve years, so I am heartily in favour of the *Swadeshi* movement, and have myself been using Indian-made goods wherever they were available, in preference to foreign. But I cannot forget that Bengal has led the way in patronising foreign fabrics and in neglecting home-made, and I am grateful to Lord Curzon that he has given an impetus to the *Swadeshi* movement which words failed to do.

Now as regards the students: I hold that students should not be permitted to enter the arena of party politics while pursuing their studies. The excitement of party struggles indisposes the lads for steady application, and youth runs into wild excesses where mature men remain staid. Political struggles are for men, not for boys, and the hot blood of youth is not to be utilised by politicians to create public ferment and put pressure on Governments. When asked by the Head-

master of the Central Hindu College School what it was best to do in the event of boys coming in mourning dress to the School, I advised him to give leave of absence to any boy whose father asked for it, but not to allow a political demonstration in the School. When some lads came in undress, and I was asked to explain to them that they could not be admitted, I went to them and asked: "Why do you want to come in mourning?" "To protest against the Government" was the answer. "No protest against the Government is allowed within the College limits," was my reply. "It is the order of our superiors," said a boy. "I know no superiors within these walls," I answered, "except the governing body and the teachers. Outside the College, you obey your fathers: inside the College the rules of the place." I then told them that the duty of the student was to study, and when they had trained their minds and bodies and went out into the world then they would take up the man's duty as citizen; that the Central Hindu College was an educational and not a political institution, and that no party political demonstrations would be allowed within its limits. I am sorry if this view displeases good friends, but I cannot help it. What is to become of our educational work if one day a telegram is to come from Calcutta, another day from Lahore, from Bombay, from Madras, ordering our students to demonstrate against or for some party measure? All discipline would vanish, and our institution would become a whirlpool of undigested politics instead of a sober educational training-ground for India's sons. We surround them with an atmosphere of love of, pride in, country, of duty to their motherland; we encourage discussion and debates; we foster initiative and self-dependence; but we avoid all political party disputes, as in religion we avoid all sectarian controversies.

BENARES, 1st Nov.—A very gay and brilliant sight met the eyes of the crowds who came to the seventh anniversary of the Central Hindu College. If they came by the northern entrance, they saw in golden flower-letters shining across the great hall, "Love your Country," "Follow Dharma." Within the hall, other mottoes greeted the eyes of the visitors, such as "God save the King," "C. H. C. love India," "Welcome," "Om Tat Sat." The decorations this year were particularly tasteful, and did great credit to the Boarding House students who planned and executed them. A new and very pleasant feature was a complete purdah arrangement in a side gallery, with a private entrance, so that ladies whose husbands or sons were interested in the College might have a glimpse of the proceedings. About a dozen ladies were present, and it seems likely that if more invitations had been sent out a much larger number would have been present.

Mr. Baillie—whose heavy family loss has only endeared him the more to the people over whom he rules with so much ability and gentleness—presided, and after a Sanskrit chant, in a few words expressed his pleasure at the growth he saw around him. The Annual Report followed, read by Babu Kali Charan

Mitra, a gentleman to whom the College owes much from its inception for his unremitting work, and who was only lured on to the platform by the need to replace the Honorary Secretary, Babu Bhagavan Das, who is only slowly recovering from a five-months' serious illness. A well-rendered English recitation from Arnold's *Song-Celestial* followed, and then the prizes were distributed for the College, the Sanskrit Pathshala and the School. These included medals for eleven Government Scholarships, two in the Intermediate, six in the Matriculation, and three in the High School Examinations. Certificates were also distributed to all who had taken a first-class in the religious examination. The prize-giving over, Hindi and Bengali recitations followed, the latter being especially well rendered. Then Mahamahopadhyaya Pundit Adityaram Bhattacharya, the Vice-Principal, made a very interesting speech, mentioning the hope of the College to be raised to the M. A. standard in Sanskrit and English, welcoming the three new voluntary workers, Mr. Moore, Mr. Unwalla and Pundit Iqbal Narain Gurtu, and rejoicing in the successes at the University and the sending out into the world of our first five graduates. Mr. Arundale, the Headmaster, referred to the admirable tone of the school, the absence of punishment, and the cordial relations existing between it and the other schools of the place, and the devotion of the staff to the boys' interests, both intellectual, moral and physical.

The meeting was then addressed by the President of the Board, Mrs. Annie Besant, who dwelt on the sending out of their first graduates, the new departure in including girls' education among the activities of the Board and the establishing of a girls' school in Benares itself, the spread of religious education and the affiliation of thirteen Schools to the Central Hindu College for this purpose, and, in addition, all the Schools in Kishengharh State. She then explained her recent action in forbidding a political demonstration within the limits of the College, and stated firmly her opinion that students should take no share in party political demonstrations, adding that while she remained President of the Board no such demonstrations would be permitted within College bounds. The College stood for patriotism and religion, but would take no active part in political controversies or in sectarian disputes.

PUNJAB.

In accordance with provisions on the subject contained in the Indian Universities Act, the Punjab University has appointed a Board of Inspectors, who will, at stated times, visit all Colleges affiliated to the University. The following have been nominated to be the first members of the Board:—Mr. W. Bell, C. I. E., Director of Public Instruction; Dr. J. C. R. Ewing, M. A., D. D., Principal of the Forman Christian College; Professor Hemmy, of the Government College; Dr. Wollner, Registrar of the Punjab University, and four native gentlemen. Every inspection, and particularly the first one, will be minute and thorough, nothing connected with the

College or boarding house attached to it being left unexamined. The chief points to which the Inspectors will be expected to pay attention are the following:—(1) Name of the College; (2) its present situation; (3) history of the College and reasons which led to its foundation; (4) constitution; (5) staff employed; (6) College buildings; (7) hostels; (8) lodging-houses for students; (9) equipment of College; (10) library, and (11) finances. In addition to this, each College will have to submit the following three statements, viz., (1) a return of the staff, giving their names, religion, qualifications and salaries, and mentioning the subjects and classes taught by them, etc.; (2) a return of the strength and number of classes of students, and (3) a return showing the financial condition of the College.

Foreign Notes.

THE COST OF EDUCATION.

At a meeting of the London County Council the Chairman, in dealing with education, said that it was a work which none could under-value, and a task whose execution must demand and tax the best energies of every member of the public body to which it was entrusted. The Council found that at many of the non-provided schools fees of varying amounts were being charged for instruction. A very short experience of this practice was sufficient to convince the Council that the principle that elementary education provided by the public for the public should be free was the correct principle to be applied in London. Accordingly, education in all public elementary schools maintained by the Council had been free from March 31, 1905. The cost of educating each child at a London school for the year 1902-3 worked out at £4 1s. 3½d. a year, while a child at a non-provided school cost £2 15s. 10d. a year. This difference was mainly due to the fact that the staff provided by the late School Board was on a more generous scale than that supplied by the managers of the non-provided schools. In the rest of England the corresponding figures for Council schools were £2 15s. 7½d., while for Leeds they were £2 19s. and for New York £6 6s. 6½d., and for the United States generally £3 10s. 5d. For Germany and France the figures for what corresponded to Council schools were £2 17s. 1d. and £2 9s. 2d. The Council's duties, however, as a local education authority, went further than the teaching of the children. The provision of training colleges must be undertaken. As to secondary education, the Council had, through its Technical Education Board, done much to aid existing secondary schools, and had provided completely at least one secondary school out of its own funds. But, as the local education authority, it soon found that it was necessary to make larger provision. In the year 1903-4 there were only 16,300 suitable secondary places in London, of which about 2,800 were available for the Council's scholars. The bringing into force of the Council's revised scholarship scheme would at once require 2,000 additional

secondary school places, and the problem of the accommodation to be provided by the Council became, therefore, a very pressing one. The number of girls who would, under the scholarship scheme, be awarded scholarships would be roughly, twice the number of boys, and it was mainly in the secondary school accommodation for girls that the necessity for further provision had been and would be felt. For thirteen years the Council had been interested in technical education, and during the year under review the system of aid-grants to polytechnics and other technical institutes had been considerably revised, and the Council had shown its continued sympathy with this branch of education by largely increasing the grants-in-aid.

"CURTAIL the teacher's holiday" is so common a newspaper cry that it is refreshing to find a writer in the *New York Times* urging that school vacations should be longer than they actually are. "Teaching is the most exacting of all professions. It is the most exhausting. It takes more out of the individual. It tends to shut him up in a little world that is woefully deficient in moral and intellectual oxygen. Hence the need of a long vacation—not that the teacher may go on sweating his mind over textbooks and methods, and consorting with his own kind, and becoming more and more out of touch with human nature and the affairs of the greater world about him, but that he may get absolutely away from the stifling atmosphere of his work, forget that he is a teacher, and remember that he is a man."—*University Correspondent*.

EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE, 1905.

The Secretaries of the Madras Teachers' Guild have much pleasure in inviting all ladies and gentlemen interested in Education to the Educational Conference and Exhibition, to be held under the auspices of the Guild, on the 14th and 15th December 1905, at Wesley College, Royapettah, Madras. The programme, as at present arranged, is shown below:—

Thursday, 14th December.

5-30 P.M. Conversation, Music, &c. Address by Glyn Barlow, Esq., M.A.

Friday, 15th December.

FIRST SESSION.

11 A.M. to 2 P.M. :—

(1) Paper on "University Reform," by R. S. Lepper, Esq., M.A. Discussion.

(2) Paper on "Organisation of Education in South India," by M.R.Ry. P. T. Srinivasa Iyengar, Avergal, M.A., L.T. Discussion.

3 to 3 P.M. Interval. [Refreshments will be provided for both Indian and European members and guests.]

SECOND SESSION.

3 to 6 P.M. :—

(1) Paper on "Curriculum of Studies in Secondary Schools," by M.R.Ry. A. T. Ramanujachariar Avergal, M.A. Discussion.

(2) W. E. Hoare, Esq., M.A., will open a discussion on "Provident Fund for Teachers."

(3) Resolutions.

MADRAS TEACHERS' GUILD REGISTRY.

List of Teachers now on the Register :—

- (1) A physical Science M.A., L.T.
Service :—Headmaster of a High School for over five years. Desires the Headmastership of a High School or a Lectureship in a College in some town with a salary of Rs. 120 or more.
- (2) A Tamil Mathematics B.A., L.T. Has been Professor of Mathematics in a First Grade College for over 10 years. Wants a Lecturer's place in College, or Headmastership of a High School in Madras or districts south of Madras, on Rs. 100 or more.
- (3) A Tamil Graduate, Branch IV. Holds untrained Teachers' certificate of the Collegiate Grade. 13 years' service as teacher. Wants an Assistant Master's place in a High School or a College on Rs. 50, if in Madras, Rs. 85, if elsewhere.
- (4) A Telugu Biology and Zoology graduate. Untrained. Wants a Lecturer's place in Physiology in a College. Salary Rs. 50, per mensem.

List of vacant places :—

- (1) An Assistant's place in a Second Grade College in one of the Southern Districts. A Mathematics graduate will be preferred. Salary Rs. 55 at starting.
- (2) An Assistant's place in the same College, from January next. Salary Rs. 55 at starting.
- (3) The First and the Second Assistants' places in a Municipal High School on Rs. 60, and Rs. 50 respectively.
- (4) An Assistant's place in a High School in Nilgiris, one capable of teaching Latin to Form VI is wanted. A Eurasian or a Native Christian will be preferred. An F.A. would do.
- (5) An Assistant's place in a High School on Rs. 60-80. A Telugu-knowing History L.T. is wanted.
- (6) A place for a Telugu Matric. on Rs. 20-30.

The Educational Review.

It must have surprised the Fellows who were much exercised in mind by the 'principles' of University Reform to hear from Dr. Bourne that there was no proposition actually before the Senate and there might be a further discussion if need were; but, in the absence of any proposition, anything of the nature of an actual decision on the point there could not be. Dr. Miller talked of the necessity of having something definite done and proposed that a small representative committee should be appointed to report on the affiliation rules and the 'principles' after getting the necessary information from the University Inspection of Colleges Commission on the existing conditions of colleges, and from the Government on the nature of the School Final Examination. The Syndicate in appointing the Inspection Commission, expressly referred to the necessity of having the reports on the colleges before framing the regulations contemplated in Section 25 (2) (i) of the Act. And the circular of the Chairman of the Commission mentioned how the Report of the Commission would assist in framing regulations under Section 25 (2) (i), (j), (k), and (m). Again so many of the contemplated changes in the curricula of studies hinge on the School Final. So any off-hand decision on these matters would have been literally preposterous; and this was avoided by the adoption of the proposal to appoint the Committee.

As a temporary makeshift, the existing regulations with regard to the Registrar and some other matters were adopted. The reference, in the proposed regulations about the Registrar to the rules laid down in the Civil

Service Regulations, brought out the fact that there was considerable haziness among some of the Fellows about the nature of those rules. We believe the following are the rules referred to. We give them here, subject to correction:

CHAPTER XVII.—RULES FOR RECKONING SERVICE.

SECTION I.—*Special Additions, Special Appointments.*

403. Subject to the restriction specified against the first three offices, an incumbent of one of the offices enumerated below, appointed on account of professional or other special qualifications, whose whole pensionable service has been passed in one or other of such offices, shall if appointed at an age exceeding 25, be entitled to reckon as service qualifying for superannuation pension (but not for any other class of pension) the number of completed years by which his age may at the time of appointment have exceeded 25 years, subject to the proviso that five years shall be the maximum period which can be so added.

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|--|---|
| When Barristers, Advocates, or Vakils. | 1. Deputy Legal Remembrancers, Bengal. |
| | 2. Presidency Magistrates. |
| | 3. Judges of the Small Cause Court at a Presidency Town (other than the Chief Judges) and at Rangoon. |
| | 4. The Astrologer, Madras. |
| | 5. The Director of the Colaba Observatory. |
| | 6. Members of the Indian Educational Service, who entered that service after 23rd July 1896. |

404. In the case of officers who were in the Education Department on 23rd July 1896, the following rule applies:

For the purpose of calculating the amount of pension ordinarily admissible to an officer, not being a native of Asia, whose qualifying service began after 25 years of age, whose service for which pension is claimed amounts to not less than ten years, and has been passed wholly in one or other of the following offices, three years shall be added to the qualifying service:—

1. Directors of Public Instruction.
2. Inspectors of Schools.
3. Principals and Professors of Colleges.
4. Headmasters of Colleges and High Schools.

The chief points to notice with regard to Regulations about the regulations about University Examiners are the annual tenure of the appointment, the unsuccessful recommendation about a Separate

Board for the Matriculation Examination, and the prohibition of canvassing for such appointments.

The original draft regulation suggested the limitation of the tenure of the Chief Examiner to three years with a provision to extend the period if necessary. Even such a limitation seemed to be an improvement because the Chief Examinerships seemed to have become permanent fixtures in the case of certain individuals. The annual appointment would seem a further improvement on the three-year-lease, but we do not know if in effect we might not have the continuation of the till-now-existing state of things. At any rate the Chief Examiners could not have any longer the pleasant assurance that they might go to sleep once they got into the charmed circle. There would be an annual reconsideration of their claims. To that extent, perhaps, it is an improvement.

Elsewhere we reprint the protest from Calcutta against having a permanent Board of University Examiners suggested as a sort of check on the variation of University results from year to year. Dr. Mukerji has shown conclusively how, with a practically permanent board, there have been variations and how, even with one and the same examiner, the results vary from one year to another.

Whether at Calcutta or at Madras, there must be an appreciable number of men who have to be kept on more or less as permanent Examiners because of their real or apparent claims to rank as specialists. It would be desirable to have all spurious claims to specialism shown up, but it is not easy to do so, and the Syndicate does the best it can when flagrant cases of incompetence come to its notice by withdrawing patronage.

We referred in the last number of the *Review* to Mr. Justice Mitra's suggestion to have on the Board of Examiners

A Separate
Matriculation
Board.

a number of men actually conversant with school-work. We need not expatiate on the advantages of the scheme and, with all respect to Dr. Mukerji's criticism, the innovation will be on the right lines. The closer participation of men with experience of school-work will make the Entrance Examination more of a real test and the association of High School teachers with the Professors will react beneficially on the school-work. We expressed a wish that some influential Senator should bring the suggestion forward before the Madras Senate. Though of his own motion and not in response to any wish of ours, Dr. Miller did bring forward such a suggestion—and recommended to the Syndicate that men engaged in High School work should form members of a Board of Matriculation Examiners, which might form a Board by itself. When the suggestion was made at the last Conference of the Teachers' Guild, Mr. J. H. Stone was not adverse to it. We find Mr. J. Cook of Bangalore advocates such a plan. We find him stating in the last report: "Some of our University iconoclasts have been proclaiming recently that the Matriculation test is *too low*. But I speak from personal knowledge when I assert that not the standard but the conduct of the examination is unsatisfactory, that it ought to be under the control of one conjoint board of moderators—who should all be teachers of wide experience—insuring a reasonable standard for the examination, &c." In spite of such weighty support, the suggestion was rejected by a narrow majority in the Committee of the Senate. The

regulations as they stand do not fetter the discretion of the Syndicate and that body may of itself do what has been suggested as desirable.

Three influential members of the Syndicate—two of them ex-Vice-Chancellors and experienced in University administration—complained of the trouble they had in connection with the appointment of Examiners. They complained of importunate visitors who pressed their claims for examinerships. Two of them must have known that there was a rule which said that canvassing the members of the Syndicate would disqualify the candidate for Examinerships. Can the members of the Syndicate lay their hands on their hearts and declare that they uniformly disregarded the claims of such applicants for University patronage? The truth is, the rule keeps back the timid and gives an advantage to the over-bold. Again, it may be, and we fear it is, occasionally, worked in one way as regards those you want to favour and in another way as regards those you do not want to favour. We should prefer that the rule about canvassing capable of such abuse were abrogated and that no pharisaic pretence to virtue were made on paper. Perhaps it is as well there is such a rule. Self-respecting men that forbear knocking at the gates of preferment will have one reason the more for their seemingly idiotic conduct. Whatever might strengthen such conduct should be welcomed. Surely there are some unsubstantial things more valuable than University rupees.

Mr. C. S. Fearenside says in the last number of *Reading Books of School* (Nov. p. 159) that Swedish students for the College Students. the B.A. Examination are

expected to read between 6,000 and 10,000 pp. in each language that they take (Tauchnitz measurements) according to the class at which they aim in their examination. If only we should be able to make our students follow the Swedish practice we should not hear so much of the shortcomings of the Indian student as we do. Let each teacher insist not only on the prescribed book being studied, but on this study being supplemented by home-reading of entertaining and useful books, and let there be devised some plan of testing that the books have really been read. Let care be taken that books are modern and represent the style of cultivated society. Make the study of authors earlier than Shakespeare form part of the study of the English language in its historical development, emphasise more and more the study of the best prose-writers like Froude, Newman, Church and Morley and you will have done everything to make the Indian student master the language for purposes of thought and culture.

A series of rousing articles on the barrenness of educational effort in England has been published in the *Westminster Gazette*, and they have evoked a still more rousing contribution from the pen of Mr. H. G. Wells which will be found reprinted elsewhere. Mr. Wells, once an educator himself but with a wider range of vision than most educators, traces the evil to the general nature of the *personnel* of the teaching profession. With characteristic copiousness and vigour, he complains that teachers in England, the good as well as the bad, are safe, mediocre, respectable persons from whom nothing original or daring in thought, word, or deed may be expected. He expressly exonerates them from blame, but bemoans the prevalent ideal of a teacher, imitative, con-

forming, well-bred, who may be trusted to turn out scholars exactly similar to himself. From grey dull respectability it is idle to hope for the nurture of masterfulness and manly initiative. Real native power, resolute development of original talents are impossible so long as men who dare to think and do for themselves are considered dangerous guides of youth. And there does not seem to be a sufficiency of these smug exemplars of decency. 'Shortage of teachers' is the cry everywhere. A writer in the *School World* lays his finger on the causes that prevent the profession of teaching from drawing a sufficient number of recruits of the proper type. One is familiar with these causes, the discouragements and disabilities of the schoolmaster. A man of merit is more certain of a career in any walk of life than in the one which perhaps more than others, wants merit, individuality, character. And yet people are found to wonder that educational effort is wasted!

We would commend these observations on the one hand to those Jeremiahs who continually speak as if in India alone could be found conditions inimical to sound education, and on the other to those self-complacent leaders and public men who fancy that the best service they can do to education is to invoke anathemas on the schoolmaster once or twice a year and forget him all the rest of the time.

More than once in these columns has the idea of a National University and a national system of education been commended as the final goal towards which must be directed all indigenous effort in the field of education. Little, however, did we dream that so soon an actual cry would go up for a

National University and practical schemes be set on foot for the establishment of such a University. In our last issue we deplored the circumstances that evoked such a cry and in an especial degree the circumstances that evoked that cry from students. Discontent with existing institutions is without doubt the basis of all improvement, but it is difficult to satisfy oneself that students in revolt against their University are the most hopeful material for the formation of a more acceptable University. Several elderly gentlemen in Bengal must have interested themselves in the new movement and perhaps even raised the sanguine hopes that seem to animate the young men of the province regarding the immediate practicability of their project. We have no wish to say anything in disrespect of these gentlemen or in disparagement of their ambition. But the suspicion haunts one's mind that a voyage on a perilous sea has been undertaken without careful soundings having been previously taken. A National University, to be at all worthy of respect, must be formed of a large number of national colleges all over the country which feel drawn together by community of aims and interests. How many such are there now? What is the relation between them? Are they independent of Government aid and control? Or can they easily be made so? Is there a strong body of opinion in favour of the new University sufficient to justify the hope that, if established, it will command popular sympathy and popular esteem? These and other questions should have been capable of definite and promising answers before the scheme was ever brought within the range of practical politics. We have great misgivings that these questions were never seriously asked by those from whom the demand for a National University has

originated. Recent newspaper writing would appear by its tone to indicate that the magnitude of the scheme is gradually being realised, and that mature judgment is at last being brought to bear on the question. The resolution that the M.A. candidates should not stay away from the examination, the advice given by the leaders to the absentee students that they should go back to their institutions, and the tone of moderation adopted by Mr. Surendra Nath Banerjee in his address to the new Students' organisation are signs that sober counsels will yet prevail, and that a great and noble aspiration, requiring the patient and united labour of years, will not be undertaken without adequate preparation and in the frenzy of youthful excitement. The best and most trusted patriots in the land must come forward in this hour of distress to save the aspirations and endeavours of educated India from contempt. More than anything else at present one longs to hear the admonishing voices of the great leaders, and there is every chance of young Bengal listening to them with reverence and with faith.

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SCOTTISH UNIVERSITY EDUCATION, III.

WHILE Edinburgh University is a world renowned centre for medical education, neither it nor the other universities of Scotland fall short of the ideal as regards a general scientific education. Perhaps the claim of the Scottish Universities, as a whole, is to a partiality for scientific education. The average Scotch student seems to be eminently fit for the study of Science in all its branches. His comparative simplicity of life, retired disposition and amazing power of concentration and most remarkable capacity for taking pains, form very admirable qualifications to launch on the study of Science. Children are inquisitive all the world over, and it is the duty of those who are in charge of these tender and impressionable minds to turn this inquisitive tendency into the more useful channel of inquiry and investigation. Hence the importance given to scientific education in the Scottish Universities. The Scotsman seems to be of a very inquiring turn of mind. The universities make good use of this peculiarity and turn it into very useful channels for scientific investigations. Such great facilities are given now-a-days for the study of Science that it is the student's own fault if he does not avail himself of the opportunities and make a mark in the world in his

XI

generation. The Science Faculty of the University of Edinburgh is one of the best in the British Isles and provides instruction for students preparing for the B. Sc. (Bachelor of Science) and D. Sc. (Doctor of Science) degrees, conferred by the University. Of course the student is expected to pass the Preliminary Examination of the Scottish Board of Examination before he begins the study of Science in the University. I would refer the reader to my article in the July number of the *Educational Review* for a detailed description of the Preliminary Examination. After the preliminary examination is completed, the course of study for the B. Sc. degree extends over three Winter Sessions or three Summer and two Winter Sessions. The Winter Session as usual begins in October and ends in March, while the Summer commences in May and terminates in July. As Science students have plenty of practical work to do, the Summer Sessions are usually devoted for such work, while the Winters are crowded with lectures and tutorial demonstrations. There are two stages for the B. Sc. examination. The 1st B. Sc. examination comes off at the end of the 1st year of study and the student is expected to pass the examinations in the following subjects, i.e., Chemistry, Physics or more correctly Natural Philosophy, Botany and Zoology or Mathematics. It is left to the

student's option to choose either Mathematics or Botany and Zoology. Chemistry includes 100 lectures in organic and inorganic substances and 50 hours of practical work. Natural Philosophy includes Dynamics and Experimental Physics and is treated in 100 lectures. Mathematics again comprises at least 100 lectures. Botany and Zoology have about 75 lectures each besides practical work. The student may take each subject separately and pass one after the other. The examinations are held in April and October. The 2nd B. Sc. or the Final B.Sc. comes off two years after the student has passed the 1st B.Sc. The student is expected to pass in any two of the following subjects on the intermediate standard and the third on a still higher standard. The student is expected to specialise in any one subject and he is put to the test at the examination. The subjects are: Chemistry, Natural Philosophy, Botany, Zoology, Astronomy, Physiology, Anatomy including Anthropology, and Geology including Mineralogy and Petrology. The final B.Sc. examinations are held only once a year, and the student who "gets ploughed" at one has to wait a year for a second chance. I do not think the student is allowed to take the subjects for the 2nd B. Sc. separately under the present regulations. He must take the whole lot at one sitting. When the student gets successfully through the 2nd B. Sc. examination, he will be admitted to the B. Sc. degree of the University. Five years hence, if he can produce a thesis on some scientific subject, the University might reward his labours by conferring the D. Sc. degree on him. At the risk of repetition, I cannot resist the temptation of emphasising the fact that Edinburgh University stands second to none as a centre for scientific education. Some of

the Professors in the Faculty of Science, are among the most eminent of the scientists of the world. Prof. Geikie who lectures on Geology is one of the greatest living authorities on his subject. Professor Cossar Ewart of Zoology has made himself famous by the production of a new species of zebra, a hybrid between a zebra and a mule. Embryology is treated by Dr. Beard, who is considered the greatest living authority on the subject. Prof. Crum Brown is a man of such versatile ability and so great an authority on Chemistry, Physiology, Anatomy and some other subjects, that he finds Chemistry, the subject he lectures on, is not enough to engross his attention and bring him a world-wide renown. As regards Physiology there is no greater name than that of Prof. Schafer's in Europe or America. The late Prof. Tait was among the greatest Physicists of the last century. Glasgow University has in Lord Kelvin the greatest physicist living in the world. The laboratories are well equipped and every effort is made to encourage the students to do some research work. The total class fees amount to about thirty guineas and the examination-fees to about five guineas. The average student takes about 3 years for the course, excluding one year spent as a preliminary year at the university. But a capable student might manage to get the degree in 3 years. The total expenses may vary from £300 to £600, for the B. Sc. degree. The 2nd B. Sc. examination may also be taken in Engineering (electrical or mechanical) and Agriculture. The Indian student might do far worse than go to the Scotch Universities for a course of study in Science. If there is one thing above all that we are in need of in India, it is a real, solid, thorough scientific education for the rising

generation. The genius of our civilisation has inclined us more to speculation than to the practical aspects of life. We have been taught to reverence authority and put implicit faith in the 'powers that be'. Both these qualities are very admirable and they serve their purpose remarkably well. But there is a tendency for such human virtues to deteriorate into superstitious veneration or indiscriminate contempt for the realities of life. While faith gains the upper hand there is the danger of reason losing its ground altogether, till we place tradition and custom in the seat of authority. This is the danger of a purely literary education. We have thus far proved to the world our unenviable capacity for faith and belief, without convincing ourselves or others as to the rationality of them. There is nothing like scientific education to open our eyes to the obvious realities of the 20th century. It shakes our systems, ancient and modern, to their foundations, it shows us our defects and graces, and provides us with a scheme to trace out effects to their causes. Superstition and blind belief will be dragged down from the seat of authority they have usurped and reason and common sense will be reinstated. It makes one precise, observant, cautious and moderate. It gives the student self-confidence, and inspires him with a desire to know more and to progress onward. It gradually dawns on him to accept nothing for granted, however great the authority be, but reserve judgment and opinion till the things are proved to him. These qualities are very valuable assets in the sum total of national civilisation. Besides, Science opens to us the wonders of creation and provides us with inexhaustible stores of interest in the things that surround us. Every leaf that falls, every flower we pluck, every star that shines in the blue sky above, has a wonderful history and a marvellous tale to tell. It is a pity we do not avail ourselves of these opportunities more than we do at present. It is surprising to note often how ignorant some educated persons are, as regards the fundamental laws that govern life and its mysteries. This is essentially an age of Science. The greatest victories of the present times are those of Science over nature. The industrial success of a nation depends entirely on the amount of scientific knowledge it can bring to bear upon its industrial problems. Science is so surely invading every department in modern life that we seem to be unconsciously breathing a scientific air all the time. The sooner we join the race of the world in quest of scientific knowledge, the greater reason we shall have to congratulate ourselves. We have vast fields open to us for scientific investigation in India. The tropical luxuriance of vegetation and the wealth and marvellous variety of the animal kingdom give us unprecedented facilities for botanical and zoological investigations. We have clear, blue skies with a long spell of delicious starlight nights and most astonishing celestial phenomena. We did the world a good turn a century ago, by giving it the first principles of Astronomy. But now-a-days it is so jumbled up with Astrology that the astronomer who is quite accurate in forecasting an eclipse a couple of years hence, most unhesitatingly attributes the cause to the intervention of Rakshasas. Our eminent physicians, with all the wealth of a magnificent materia medica at their hands, do not know even the rudiments of Anatomy and Physiology. We have done some very good work in Science in the past, and we must show ourselves worthy of our ancient tradi-

tions by continuing scientific investigation under modern facilities. The watchword of scientific success is "concentration and specialisation." One has to work hard for years with patience and perseverance, if anything is to be achieved in the field of Science. It is a pity we have not many well-equipped laboratories in India to stimulate scientific research. The Research Institute of Tata may partly meet this great want, and it may be considered as an index of the modern trend of opinion in India. Japan's industrial and political successes of the present day have found their counterpart in the wonderful success achieved in the field of Science also. In fact, it was a Japanese Scientist that has been called upon lately to investigate the probabilities and possibilities of earthquakes in India, since the occurrence of the last terrible disaster in North India. The signs of the times are very encouraging even in India. We have a great deal of latent talent in the country. There is plenty of perseverance and patience ingrained in the blood of the races in the land, though they have yet to be taught faith in themselves and hope of ultimate success. Our life in India, to crown all, is simple in the extreme while our resources are practically unlimited by the bounties of nature. So there is no reason why the cause of Science should not be furthered in India also, if a band of devoted disciples be found in the land. The triumphs of Science are amongst the greatest in the world, for her victories are the common property of the whole human race, irrespective of colour, creed and caste.

A CURRICULUM OF STUDIES FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

ALL of us have heard a great deal of the intellectual barrenness of the youths coming out of a College or a High School. There is not one who has not heard it said that the spirit of cram successfully hovers everywhere and possesses the youths despite the vigilant and well-meaning wards—Professors and Teachers to whose charge they are committed. High School teachers cannot profess to ignore this fact; nor would it do well for them to think lightly of the spreading evil. Various may be the remedies; the most effective may be but a few. If the physician who moves more with the patient and has had more opportunities to diagnose the disease be the better person to prescribe a remedy, the High School teacher cannot be denied a voice in proposing a remedy. And the High School teacher would be failing in his duty if he spoke not his mind but slept over the affair readily resigning himself to fate. Moreover the present circumstances afford a pressing and fit opportunity for a teacher to propose a curriculum which would be twice blessed, blessing him that teaches and him that is taught. The Lower Secondary Examination has been abolished. The time is gone when a pupil had to serve two masters. He had till now during the first three years of his course to prepare himself to satisfy the Lower Secondary Examiners and for the next three years he had to prepare himself to meet the vagaries of the University Examiners. Instances have not been wanting of pupils passing the Lower Secondary Examination very creditably, but afterwards finding themselves sadly failing to satisfy the teachers of the High School classes—much less therefore the University

Examiners. Why it is so need not now be entered into. The pupil has now a course of six years before him after he comes out of a Primary School before he has to undergo the ordeal of the Matriculation or the School Final Examination. It is proposed therefore to discuss how best the present curriculum might be changed—as it will necessarily have to be ere long—how well it would be to the students if the requirements of the Final Examination be kept in view and the pupils be made to prepare for the same from the beginning.

Before discussing a curriculum the following should be settled beforehand. Is it necessary for a pupil to learn English? Will it not do for him to learn his vernacular alone? A knowledge of English cannot in my opinion be viewed as something left to one's option. It is no luxury. The people cannot afford to be in blissful ignorance of that language. If in a country like India where the elements that go to separate man from man are not a few, the existence of a common language be a blessing in itself, how can the learning of that language be viewed as anything but most useful and urgent? Whether a man proposes to get the M. A. degree, whether he chooses to learn a profession—Law, Medicine, Engineering—or whether he wishes to fully equip himself to enter upon a trade, an acquaintance with the English language is always necessary. There is no denying the fact that a merchant who knows English fares much better than one who lacks that knowledge. Unless the people of India be prepared to gladly say 'we be tillers of the soil', unless the people of India be prepared to give up all thoughts of ever caring to know how they are governed, least caring to learn how to govern themselves,

unless the people of India should make up their minds to be ever "hewers of wood and drawers of water" the claims of English education cannot be ignored. The imparting of such knowledge cannot therefore be begun too soon.

Let me not be misunderstood. I am not against the spread of vernaculars. I do not for a moment say that vernaculars must be neglected. Our enthusiasm for vernaculars should not make us forget for a moment the undeniable and pressing claims of the foreign tongue. English is to the Indian people not as English is to the Japanese or as Sanskrit or Hebrew is to the European. A *Swadesi* movement of the right sort has been begun in Madura. Why not every other district boast of a *Sangam*? Why not the votaries of vernacular education, if they be earnest and sincere, set about starting such *Sangams* everywhere rather than interfering with English education in a Secondary School? The peculiar surroundings in which we are placed lead us to come to this conclusion: whether a man prosecutes his studies to earn a livelihood, whether a man sets about his studies for the edification of his own mind, whether such edification be sought through the foreign tongue or through his own vernacular, to obtain the greatest benefit derivable therefrom, this much must be conceded; that the education of boys till they are 15, that is till their High School course is over, must be on Western lines, due care being taken to see that boys speak and write correctly both English and the vernacular. No one need fear that English has been taught to too many. Only 20 % of the male population of the school-going age receive Primary education; when the number of students receiving Secondary education and University education is com-

pared, we see only 10% of those receiving Primary education proceeding to the Secondary stage and only 5% of these proceeding to University stage.

Thus it will be seen that the curriculum to be adopted must be such as to make the pupils learn both English and the vernacular well, due care being taken only to train the powers of the students, to make them fit to receive a University education or a Technical education. But it is not the High School teacher's work to make his student a carpenter or a painter, an engineer or a doctor, a lawyer or a poet. His work is to see the various faculties of the pupils properly cultivated and a foundation common to all laid. Should it be argued that the above course would best suit the pupil who is to go in for University education afterwards, and that work of a more practical and technical sort which the intending pursuers of Technical education must from the beginning be made conversant with, then the bifurcation must begin not after the High School course but earlier. The present Lower Secondary Schools may take this new responsibility. Then there will have to be some schools—say vernacular schools—teaching together with the languages something of a trade like carpentry, weaving, etc; and others—say High Schools or English Schools—preparing the pupils to receive University education as at present.

Therefore the curriculum so far as the High School course is concerned should be so arranged that a large portion of the pupil's time may be spent in learning the two languages English and the vernacular. So I would suggest that about half the pupil's time at school must be spent in learning the two languages and the other half in learning

mathematics, general knowledge subjects, drawing, etc. Thus it will be observed the pupils have only about 6 hours a week at the most to devote to the general knowledge subjects which will include in the Lower Forms History, Geography and Object Lessons.

Now to the curriculum itself. First and foremost comes English. In the First and Second Forms a few pages of easiest prose will do—special attention being paid to see that pupils learn and understand very easy simple sentences and they are able to express their thoughts in as easy simple sentences. Books that are used as text-books in these forms invariably contain such involved simple and complex sentences as would puzzle even a sixth form student. Such sentences must necessarily be weeded out. Complex sentences must be scrupulously avoided in the First Form and very easy ones may be taught in the Second. Thus in addition to richness of vocabulary we may expect the pupils of the First Form to try to understand the connection between one sentence and the next, and the best word that would express such relation; and in the Second Form we may expect them to learn how best the same ideas may be expressed in two different ways—a complex sentence or a compound one. Pieces of poetry, however short and easy they may be, need not at all be introduced in the earlier forms of our schools. When our pupils do not know what prose order is, if they should be asked to spell through some lines strangely arranged and written for them and be asked to get them up, they cannot but read such pieces in a strange way (sing-song) and learn them by rote. It may afford a sort of amusement for the pupils and nothing more. No real benefit can they get therefrom. For purposes of recitation we need not have verses. Pieces

of prose containing moral truths clothed in language understandable by those for whom they are intended may be placed before the pupils, and they may be asked to learn them by heart. In the Third Form where the pupils are to a certain extent acquainted with simple ways of expressing their thoughts, a few pages of easy prose and a few lines of verse may be taught. Here too care should be taken that really easy pieces are selected. In the first form no text-book need be put into the hands of the pupils for Grammar lessons. And in the second and third forms a book like the Manual of Grammar may be used, much pains of course being taken to acquaint the pupils only with general and elementary truths, the niceties being left untouched.

As regards the vernacular, I would only say that proper text-books must be chosen; and in the matter of text-books of Grammar it should be clearly borne in mind that such books as are put into the hands of the Munshi should on no account be placed in the hands of the pupil and the latter asked to cram them. Some of the recent publications on the subject, I am afraid, seem to be, though not intended to be so, best helps to a teacher, but to a pupil they are far from being so. One word more ere I close this part of the subject and take up the next. The practice of asking the pupils to translate a sentence bit by bit, though known to all teachers to be very undesirable, obtains everywhere. This practice as well as that of resting satisfied with word answers without waiting to get answers in complete sentences must be put an end to; nor should the pupils be allowed, while expressing their thoughts, to mix their vernacular and English together and make a shameful medley of the whole.

As regards Mathematics in the three earlier forms more pains must be taken than at present to appeal to the intelligence of the pupils. Such exercises as would try the patience of little boys may be avoided. True, accuracy and readiness must be tested; but leaning a little too much towards the above—a view readily adopted and eagerly adhered to by the University Examiners as could be seen by a glance at the Matriculation papers of recent years—would only strain the students' powers too much and the young fibres may break at times. In the earlier forms there cannot be too much of mental Arithmetic. Then alone a genuine love for the seemingly dry subject can be aroused in the minds of pupils and the principles properly impressed; so that when they afterwards meet a sufficiently difficult problem their previous love for the subject will go a great deal to words, make them patiently go through the work and achieve success.

Again, in the Third Form something more can be done than at present. Time there was when even the pupils of the second form began to learn Algebra and Geometry. Why? Because it was thought that four years' study of the above subjects was considered necessary to enable a student to possess the requisite amount of knowledge of the portions prescribed for the Matriculation standard. Now that the same portion is to be done in three years, the subject has to be dealt with in such an objectionable way that it profits neither the teacher nor the taught. I would therefore suggest that Geometry at least may very well be begun in the third form and a few propositions done there so that Euclid's First Book may be conveniently finished in the Fourth Form. Should the educational authorities, in their eagerness not to meddle with their previous resolution

on the same subject, hesitate to listen to a proposal like this, the portion prescribed for the Matriculation Standard must necessarily be lessened.

To come then to the general knowledge subjects. The time that can be allotted to this group is very small when compared with the time allowed for other subjects. The utmost care must be taken therefore to lessen the quantity without lessening the general educative result. Seeing that a student has only, as observed above, six hours in a week to study History, Geography, &c., I think it would be expecting too much from a student to ask him to learn in the course of three years the History of India from the earliest times to the present day, to learn the Geography of the whole world and pick up some knowledge of Elementary Science. If the portions in History and Geography be reduced, more attention can be paid to the most useful though the least cared-for subject of 'Object lessons.' Would not the History of India from 1600 A.D., that is, from the time when the English came to our land be sufficient? May not the earlier portions be left for the pupils of the higher forms? Is it necessary that the doctrines of Buddha should be crammed into the brains of young boys? To me it seems that the History of India from 1600 A.D. will serve to educate the student as much as the whole of the History of India can be expected to do. Let it not be objected that it will be an abrupt beginning. For there is a precedent. Students learn English History from Henry VII. If even in English History where constitutional points are to be explained, where there is not a single question, social, religious, or political, which can be explained without making reference to, and connecting it with,

one of a similar nature in other periods, that is with its earlier forms in the past and its later developments afterwards, if even there it is possible to begin from Henry VII, why should not we begin the History of India from 1600—a History where such correlations of facts are comparatively fewer? Along with the History of India some elementary notions of the administration of India must be taught to our boys even in the earlier forms. A very easy and intelligible compilation on the lines of Lee Warner's *Citizen of India*—not at all an abridged form or a translation of the same—may be put into the hands of our students. A student may be made to know how his town is governed, his District and also his Province, before he is asked to compare and contrast the reigns of Akbar and Aurangzeb. The former would be of more use than the latter. Moreover a firm foundation being laid in the earlier forms, the superstructure will be necessarily easy and strong. No cramming need be resorted to in the High School forms when Lee Warner's *Citizen of India* has to be studied.

In the matter of Geography, instead of the Geography of the whole world as is now the case, the Geography of India alone would, I think, suffice. A knowledge of the Geography of the world may be conveniently left to the students of the High School classes—IV, V and VI forms. What profits it to a student in the lower forms of our Presidency to learn by rote the names of towns on the Danube or the Rhine or the exports and imports of Mexico or the shortest route from one far-off town to another, when he does not know clearly the products of his own land, the industrial centres, or the shortest route, say, from Madras to Benares?

Moreover it is only when the portions are thus limited that the teacher can conveniently make use of the right method and try to make the subject as interesting and useful as possible.

The next subject is "object lessons." These lessons are done even in the earlier standards. They go by the name of "object lessons" in most cases while in reality they do not at all deserve the name. A book consisting of questions and answers is invariably put into the hands of pupils and they are asked to get by-heart. No one would consider that an 'object lesson.' I mean no such thing. First of all no books must be prescribed. Books like Murche's *Object Lessons* there are for the teacher to consult. Objects must be placed before the boys wherever feasible, and they must be trained to observe what is placed before them and express their ideas in complete sentences. I need not dwell upon the method of conducting an 'object lesson' as it is known to all who know something of method. I would only say that 'object lessons' must be calculated not only to develop the powers of observation, but to afford an opportunity for simple, intelligent conversation. Boys must be made to observe things and converse with their fellows on the subject. That will be a beginning to develop the student's powers of observation as well as those of composition and conversation which would be largely required later on when he goes to the Upper Secondary forms. As to the importance of writing and drawing, I need not dwell upon the subject at all as it is a thing well known to all.

To come now to the High School forms. Here I would confine myself to English and general knowledge subjects. The first question

would be how best to cut short the present curriculum. It is admitted on all hands that the curriculum includes too many subjects. What subjects might be done away with or what portions of the subjects might be omitted is a difficult problem to solve. I have endeavoured to get over the difficulty thus. So far as English is concerned, the general opinion seems to be that Text-books must be re-introduced. This means to Sixth Form students increased labour. Again the charge that is levelled against High School teachers is that the knowledge of English possessed even by the successful matriculates of to-day is far from being satisfactory; the College Professors complain they have to deal with a set of unfit boys. What they now propose to do to remedy this exaggerated evil would amount to saying that all High School teachers, despite the excellent educational experts under whose control they have been working, have been found unfit to impart that education which would make the student fit to enter upon a university course. Under these circumstances I do not think we can fare better with a shorter time at our disposal than was allotted to language subjects in the lower forms. Nor can we think of meddling with the time allowed for Mathematics. On the other hand, the subjects being multiplied, it is but fair that a little more time should be allowed for mathematics—say about 6 hours a week. Thus we see we are driven to the necessity of considering the subjects that go to make up the general knowledge subjects. Taking into consideration the limited time at our disposal for the teaching of that group, we must see how best the present curriculum might be changed. I do not think that Indian History, Lee Warner's *Citizen of India*, English History, Geography of India and Geography of the whole world,

Physics and Chemistry—all these can be taught to pupils who have only 6 hours a week at the most to devote to those subjects. That will be expecting too much from them and therefore cannot but induce cramming and other improper expedients. The only course that would be of some use seems to me this:—that Indian history, administration, and geography be made the compulsory subjects and English history, General geography or Science be taken as optional; so that we may devote half the time allotted to this subject to Indian History, etc., and the other half to English history or Science. On the whole we must see that about half the student's time at school is set apart for language subjects, a fifth for mathematics, another fifth for general knowledge subjects and the rest for the remaining miscellaneous work.

One word more and I am done. Grant the curriculum is changed and the unnecessary subjects are weeded out. Will that suffice? No. Proper text-books are yet a desideratum. Methinks there is a way to get over this difficulty too. A Board consisting of experienced teachers of all grades may be formed. There may be four such Boards, at least one in each of the four circles into which our Presidency is divided for purposes of inspection. The Board may count among its main objects and duties the collecting of compilations on every subject from various persons and after getting a very easy and well-suited compilation for a particular standard, placing the same before the Text-book Committee for their approval which in such a case would be but formal. Thus it will be seen that a text-book of the easiest and fittest kind can be had for every standard or form, and the public need not be put to the necessity of choosing any of the existing books, defective as they are. So far as

text-books for English and History for the lower forms are concerned, a plan like to the above must be followed. Now one may have the capacity to compile suitable text-books, but not the wherewithal to publish the same. One may be fortunate enough to publish a book, but not fortunate enough to get it approved by the august Text-book Committee. Such difficulties will vanish when the Board takes upon itself the work of preparing a suitable text-book and recommending the same to the Text-book Committee for their approval. Let it not be argued that all will be well when the text-books are in the vernacular. I cannot believe for a moment that a translation into the vernacular mends the whole matter. A pedantic and stilted way of translating is as vain as the unintelligible original. Instances are not wanting where the translation looks more strange than the original. It matters very little in what language a thing is expressed, but it matters much how it is expressed. Again let it not be objected that the plan suggested above would be a check to the existing private effort to publish books; for if it be any check at all, it will not be a check that will do any harm but will only secure good in the long run. Now a person spends his money in publishing a certain book, places the same before the Text-book Committee or the public, waits with anxiety to hear their mandate and not unfrequently meets with disappointment or, say, is not always sure of success. Why not the same person therefore before investing his money, place the same before the Board and make sure that he can secure the good he wishes to obtain. This means no anxiety, no disappointment, no loss of money. To me it appears that the evil, if there be any, is problematical while the good is unquestionable.

Thus it will be seen I have tried to sketch, though in a crude form, a plan which might be adopted in working out a curriculum for the Secondary forms. Unless and until a curriculum of the sort sketched above is fixed, unless and until a genuine effort is made to lessen the overwhelming weight upon the students, unless and until the University and the Educational authorities responsible for the control of High Schools act in unison and consult each other on all matters educational, thinking not that they are two different bodies set apart for two totally different objects, but that they are only two different bodies, set apart to attend to different stages of one and the same object, the High School course will not be and cannot be a stepping stone to the University, the existing all-pervading spirit of cram cannot be exorcised, the ever-prevailing and never-ending pernicious custom of notes-dictating and made-easy-making will never cease, the slur that is cast upon High School teachers cannot be removed, and the result cannot be anything but wholly unsatisfactory. Is that time come? Then High School education and University education will grow into one harmonious whole, and the conditions under which young India are brought up will make possible a bright and happy future for the country.

T. KRISHNASWAMI AYYANGAR.

CHAUCER'S HUMOUR.

ONE great distinction between Chaucer and his contemporary poets is that Chaucer was above all an artist. His poetry shows such a perfect balance between the universal and individual elements contained in it, that it stands for all time a living monument to the poetic fire that once enkindled his rapturous being. In this respect he offers a marked

contrast to Langland. As every student knows, the religious poetry of the 12th and 13th centuries attained its highest point in Langland, just as the story-telling poetry reached its culmination in Chaucer, but it is hardly exaggeration to say that for every reader who dips into the pages of *Piers the Plowman*, there are hundreds who study *Canterbury Tales* with avidity. The reason is that Langland, though he embodied in himself all that was best and finest in the Saxon imagination, was not able to impart to his poetry a note of the universal, viz., that larger view of life and society, broad-based upon human nature, which alone gives immortality to works of art. Moving in a circumscribed atmosphere, and unable to understand the movement of the time, or the throes through which society was passing, he approached his work with nothing but the burning indignation of a bitter satirical writer. Hence his work, though contemporaneous with Chaucer's, exhibits a remarkable imperviousness to those continental influences which have transformed the latter. On the other hand Chaucer, with his varied experience of the different walks of life, was admirably fitted to understand the tendencies of the age. The son of a London vintner, he served as a page in the house of John of Gaunt, and thus was able to acquaint himself with the manners of English middle-class life as well as the artificial niceties of taste of the Norman nobility. Hence where his artistic talent shows best is in the reconciliation of contrary qualities in his poetry. He harmonises the inconsistencies of human nature in such a skilful way, that his characters in spite of their many weaknesses never lose their regard in the affections of the reader. Their foibles are exposed now by bright flashes of wit, now by unexpected views of irony, but never so as to alienate the sympathies of

the reader. As in reading Ben Jonson's *Poetaster*, the reader feels that he is made to love the persons and to hate their vices. We shall illustrate by a few examples taken at random this saving quality of humour which, as Minto points out, is neither Mephistophelean mockery nor Satanic grimness, but thoroughly genial.

The *Prologue*, which is the best known of Chaucer's works, being a product of consummate art, furnishes a good many instances of that oblique satire referred to above. Though built upon a simple plan, it introduces us to a gallery of brilliant portraits, each of which is at once typical and individual. The persons of the pilgrims as well as the characteristic traits appertaining to them are so minutely delineated, that the details fix themselves in one's memory never to be forgotten. The social and religious abuses of the 14th century are satirised in the persons, but never so as to hold them up to ridicule. Who will not love the fat monk or the Wife of Bath with all their faults? Who is there that does not connive at the follies of the Pardoner in the inexhaustible merriment he affords to the company! Or can any one be compared with the Host in the exercise of his power in this little world of Canterbury pilgrims!

In all his satires Chaucer takes off the edge by humour. Note how the worldliness of the monk is admirably hit off by saying that the head of the gold pin used by him to fasten his hood closely under the chin was a love-knot. Again, the dissoluteness of the Friar is couched in euphemistic terms:—

"He hadde ymade ful many a mariage
Of yonge wimman, at his owen cost."

Similarly the love of lucre characterising the Doctor of Physic is brought out in the following lines:

"For gold in phisike is a cordial;
Therefore he loved gold in special".

With the above, the lines describing the poverty of the clerk of Oxenford may be aptly compared:

"But all be that he was a philosopre,
Yet hadde he but litel gold in cofre."

Regarding the wife of Bath we have the following sly insinuation:

"Housbondes at the chirche dore had she had five,
Withouten other compaigne in youthe."

We are told of the Reeve—

"His lord wel coude he plesen subtely,
To yeve and leve him of his owen food,
And have a thank, and yet a cote and hood."

Note how in an artful manner, though using only simple language, the depth of ingratitude, the tendency to feather one's nest is laid bare without destroying the regard for him in the affections of the reader.

Lastly, we are afforded an insight into the profane character of the Soinpreour in the following lines:

"And if he found owhere a food felawe,
He wolde techen him to have more awe
In swiche a cas of the archedevenes curse;
But, if a mannes soule were in his purse;
For in his purse he shulde ypunished be."

Coming to the Tales themselves, we find there is an admirable harmony between them and the characters of the persons who relate them. This, according to Dr. Ward, is what distinguishes the *Canterbury Tales* from Boccaccio's *Decamerone*, where the framework in its relation to the stories is of little or no significance. Again, the tales themselves are not Chaucer's own invention. Except perhaps in the case of the *Squieres Tale*, he rarely invents his plots but takes them all from some old tale already in existence, which he improves by drawing upon his own imagination. The way in which he does this might be illus-

trated by considering the Tale of the *Man of Lawe*. The plot of this is taken from an old tale. As Chaucer could not change the entire framework, the defect of the original still remains, viz., both the halves of the story turn upon the machinations of a mother-in-law. What Chaucer has then done is that he has added 350 new lines according to Mr. Broch's calculation. These additions are so artfully adjusted to the outline of the old tale that the whole leaves upon one an impression at once natural and harmonious. In the process of transformation the old materials lose all their uncouth features. Where this is not possible, humanizing touches are added so that the questionable aspects of the story may not force themselves upon the attention of the reader. The *Clerkes Tale* exhibits best these humanizing touches, because the nature of the story requires them so largely. Griselda's patience is such as would unsex her in our eyes, were it not that Chaucer with his unerring insight into human nature has softened its ragged outline by such admirable additions as the following:—

"O needles was she tempted in assay!
But wedded men ne knowe no mesure,
When that they fynde a pacient creature."
"He hadde assayed hir ynough biforn
And fond hir ever good; what neded it
Hir for to tempte and alwey more and more?
Though som men preise it for a subtil wit,
But as for me, I seye that yuel it sit
Tassaye a wyf whan that it is no nede,
And putten her in anguish and in drede."

As already stated, humour in its broad sense appears in the tales themselves in the way in which the characters expose their weaknesses without exciting in the mind of the reader any sense of disgust or hatred. Take for example the *Pardoners Tale* and note with what eloquence he discourses upon his wares and

how he concludes his outburst by calling upon the Host, as being most enveloped in sin, to come forward and receive his pardon. As we read the tale, we quite understand the hollowness of the pretensions put forward by the Pardoner, and yet we never feel inclined to avoid his company.

Dr. Ward rightly says that the connecting passages between Tale and Tale are full of dramatic vivacity. In illustration of this, I would instance the remarks of the Host at the conclusion of the Tale of Melibee. These connecting links serve also as pegs on which to hang observations as to the stories that have been related. In them we may also watch how characters like the Knight and the Host regulate the behaviour of the company. As Dr. Courthope points out, the busy Host interferes to put down the squabbles between the meaner persons; when, on the other hand, the Monk wearies the audience with the insufferable length of his Tragedies, the knight, as becomes his high station, is made to act as the saviour of society. It will be seen therefore that each pilgrim is assigned his proper place in the company and that with perfect tact, never violating the rules of good-breeding.

I shall conclude this article with another quotation from Courthope's *Life in Poetry and Law in Taste*: "Since the Wife of Bath related her experiences of marriage, this kind of oblique satire has made itself felt again and again in the mouths of ideal personages in English literature, Falstaff and Dogberry, Sir Roger de Coverley, Bailie Nicol Jarvie and the Laird of Dumbiedikes, Mr. Pickwick and Mr. Micawber, Mr. Nickleby, and even Mrs. Gamp. No foreign nation having produced ideal work of a like character (with the single notable exception of *Don Quixote*), Eng-

lish poetry may fairly claim pre-eminence in creative humour, and as *The Canterbury Tales* is the first example of such imitation, the glory of having impressed this character on English poetry must be ascribed to Chaucer."

S. SREENIVASAMOORTHY.

CLASSICAL EDUCATION AND GAMES IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS.

[The following letter is taken from 'The Upton Letters' by T. B., which has excited a great deal of interest among those caring for Education and Literature.]

UPTON,

July 16, 1904.

DEAR HERBERT,—I declare that the greatest sin there is in the world is stupidity. The character that does more harm in the world than any other is the character in which stupidity and virtue are combined. I grow every day more despondent about the education we give at our so-called classical schools. Here, you know, we are severely classical; and to have to administer such a system is often more than I can bear with dignity or philosophy. One sees arrive here every year a lot of brisk, healthy boys, with fair intelligence, and quite disposed to work; and, at the other end one sees depart a corresponding set of young gentlemen who know nothing, and do nothing, and are profoundly cynical about all intellectual things. And this is the result of the meal of chaff we serve out to them week after week; we collect it, we chop it up, we tie it up in packets; we spend hours in administering it in teaspoons, and this is the end. I am myself the victim of this kind of education; I began Latin at seven, and Greek at nine, and when I left Cambridge I did not know either of them well. I could not sit in arm-chair and read either a Greek or a Latin book, and I had no desire to do it. I knew a very little French, a very little mathematics, a very little science; I knew no

history, no German, no Italian. I knew nothing of art or music; my ideas of Geography were childish. And yet I am decidedly literary in my tastes and had read a lot of English for myself. It is nothing short of infamous, that any one should, after an elaborate education, have been so grossly uneducated. My only accomplishment was the writing of rather pretty Latin verse.

And yet this preposterous system continues year after year. I had an animated argument with some of my best colleagues the other day about it. I cannot tell you how profoundly irritating these wisecracks were. They said all the stock things—that one must lay a foundation, and that it could be laid only by using the best literatures; that Latin was essential because it lay at the root of so many other languages; and the Greek because there the human intellect had reached its high-water mark—"and it has such a noble grammar," one enthusiastic Grecian said; that an active-minded person could do all the rest for himself. It was in vain to urge that in many cases the whole foundation was insecure; and that all desire to raise a superstructure was eliminated. My own belief is that Greek and Latin are things to be led up to, not begun with; that they are hard, high literatures which require an initiation to comprehend; and that one ought to go backwards in education, beginning with what one knows.

It seems to me, to use a similitude, that the case is thus. If one lives in a plain and wishes to reach a point upon a hill, one must make a road from the plain upwards. It will be a road at the base, it will be a track higher up, and a path at last, used only by those who have business there. But the classical theorists seem to me to make an elaborate section of macadamised road high in the hills, and having made it, to say that the people who like can make their own road in between.

How could I mend all this? Well, I would change methods in the first place. If one wanted to teach a boy French or German effective-

ly, so that he would read and appreciate, one would dispense with much of the grammar, except what was absolutely necessary. In the case of classics it is all done the other way; grammar is a subject in itself; boys have to commit to memory long lists of words and forms which they never encounter; they have to acquire elaborate analysis of different kinds of usages, which are of no assistance in dealing with the language itself. It is beginning with the wrong end of the stick. Grammar is the scientific or philosophic theory of language; it may be an interesting and valuable study for a mind of strong calibre, but it does not help one to understand an author or to appreciate a style.

Then, too, I would sweep away for all but boys of special classical ability most kinds of composition.

Fancy teaching a boy side by side with the elements of German or French to compose German and French verse, heroic, Alexandrine, or lyrical! The idea has only to be stated to show its fatuity. I would teach boys to write Latin prose, because it is a tough subject and it initiates them into the process of disentangling the real sense of the English copy. But I would abolish all Latin verse composition and all Greek composition of every kind for mediocre boys. Not only would they learn the languages much faster, but there would be a great deal of time saved as well. Then I would abolish the absurd little lessons, with the parsing, and I would at all hazards push on till they could read fluently.

Of course the above improvement of methods is sketched on the hypothesis that both Greek and Latin are retained. Personally I would retain Latin for most, but give up Greek altogether in the majority of cases. I would teach all boys French thoroughly. I would try to make them read and write it easily, and that should be the linguistic staple of their education. Then I would teach them history, mainly modern English history, and modern Geography; a very little mathematics and elementary science. Such

boys would be, in my belief, well educated; and they would never be tempted to disbelieve in the usefulness of their education.

When I propounded these ideas, my colleagues talk of soft options, and of education without muscle or nerve. My retort is that the majority of boys educated on classical lines are models of intellectual debility as it is. They are uninterested, cynical, and they cannot even read or write the languages which they have been so carefully taught. What I want is experiment of every kind; but my cautious friends say that one would only get something a great deal worse.

That I deny. I maintain that it is impossible to have anything worse, and that the majority of the boys we turn out are intellectually in so negative a condition that any change would be an improvement.

But I effect nothing; nothing is attempted;—nothing done. I do my best—fortunately our system admits of that—to teach my private pupils a little history, and I make them write essays. The results are decidedly encouraging; but meanwhile my colleagues go on in the old ways, quite contented, pathetically conscientious, laboriously slaving away, and apparently not disquieted by results.

I am near the end of my tether—one cannot go on for ever administering a system in which one has lost all faith. If there were signs of improvement I should be content. If our headmaster would ever insist upon the young men, whom he appoints, obtaining a competent knowledge of French and German before they come here, it would be something, because then when the change is made, there would be less friction. But even a new headmaster with liberal ideas would be hopelessly hampered by the fact that he would have a staff who could not teach modern subjects at all, who knew nothing but classics, and classics only for teaching purposes.

It does me good to pour out my woes to you; I feel my position most acutely at this time of the year, when the serious business of the time is

cricket. In cricket the boys are desperately and profoundly interested, not so much in the game, as in the social rewards of playing it well. And my worthy colleagues give themselves to athletics with an earnestness which depresses me into real dejection. One meets a few of these beloved men at dinner; a few half-hearted remarks are made about politics and books; a good deal of vigorous gossip is talked; but if a question as to the best time for net-practice, or the erection of a board for the purpose of teaching slip-catches is mentioned, a profound seriousness falls on the group. A man sits up in his chair with real conviction and heat, with grave gestures. "The afternoon," he says, is not a good time for nets; the boys are not at their best, and the pros. are less vigorous after dinner. Whatever arrangements are made as to the times for school, the evening must be given up to nets." The result is a pedantry, a piggishness, a solemnity about games which is simply deplorable. The whole thing seems to me to be distorted and out of proportion. I am one of those feeble people to whom exercise is only a pleasure and a recreation. If I don't like a game I don't play it. I do not see why I should be bored by my recreations. An immense number of boys are bored by their games, but they dare not say so because public opinion is so strong. As the summer goes on they avail themselves of every excuse to give up the regular games; and almost the only boys who persevere are boys who are within reach of some coveted 'colour,' which gives them social importance. What I desire is that boys should be serious about their work in a practical, business-like way, and amused by their games. As a matter of fact they are serious about games and profoundly bored by their work. The work is a relief from the tension of games; and if it were wholly given up, and games were played from morning to night, many boys would break down under the strain. I don't expect all the boys to be enthusiastic about their work; all healthily constituted people prefer play to work,

I myself not least. But I want them to believe in it and to be interested in it, in the way that a sensible professional man is interested in his work. What produces the cynicism about work so common in classical schools is that the work is of a kind which does not seem to lead anywhere, and classics are a painful necessity which the boys intend to banish from their minds as soon as they possibly can.

This is a melancholy jeremiad, I am well aware; but it is also a frame of mind which grows upon me; and to come back to my original proposition, it is the stupidity of virtuous men which is responsible for the continuance of this arid, out-of-joint system.

Ever yours,
T. B.

CURRENT CRITICISM OF THE KINDERGARTEN.

By Dr. M. V. O'SHEA, Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin. [From the *School Journal*.]

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL UNSETTLEMENT.

IT may be well to acknowledge at the outset that there is no department of educational activity from the kindergarten to the university which is not under fire to-day. There has been no vital proposition made in the past ten years, affecting either curricula or methods or management, which has not had illustrious names alike for advocates and for opponents. The radicals in education, of which the number is constantly increasing, are dissatisfied with the mediæval character (as they maintain) of much of our current theory and practice, while the conservative people among us lament that we have already strayed so far from the traditions of the fathers. The times are ill at ease in all things educational. Those who view education from the standpoint of contemporary scientific thought feel that much of the philosophy that has come down to us from other times is unsound because it is founded upon a very incomplete and largely erroneous knowledge of the mind of

man. The new conceptions of human nature growing out of evolutionary doctrine are producing active fermentation in all departments of teaching, and it is inevitable that they should create disaffection with the present order. Whether we like it or not, there is no escape from this situation. The innovators, having faith in the new light being shed by modern science, will be urging us forward; they will be pointing out the crudity of things as they are, while the conservative will be sounding the praises of the ancient régime and bemoaning the decadence of modern institutions.

ALLEGED SHORTCOMINGS IN KINDERGARTEN.

Now, so far as I can tell, the kindergarten is not subject to more extensive or harsher criticism to-day than other departments of our educational system, though the critics have attacked it so recently that the shortcomings ascribed to it are fresh in the public mind. It is charged, in the first place, by the conservatives and disciplinarians, such as Munsterberg and Briggs, with sentimentalism; it humours its children, and does not develop in them respect for authority or habits of industry and self-control. Its pupils acquire the notion that the school is a place for fairy tales and play, and they must suffer many hard knocks in the elementary school before they learn that they should restrain their spontaneous activities and apply themselves to hard tasks. Teachers of the old school have testified that children entering the primary grade from the kindergarten are considerably worse off than their fellows who have been let run at large, for they have gained wrong notions respecting their duties and privileges in the school-room. They expect the teacher to entertain them, and as for learning the lessons assigned them they strenuously rebel. It should be added that these charges have all been denied by teachers of high standing, with the result that the evidence is contradictory at every point.

WEAKNESS OF THE ALLEGATIONS.

Like all other educational questions, this one is so complex that it is impossible to do more than

offer opinions upon it. We are certainly without any reliable data whatever showing that the kindergarten is spoiling its pupils in the manner indicated. The few complainants, so far as I have read them, present no evidence that would receive the slightest attention in any scientific camp. They rely upon the method of ridicule, and they imagine that when they have turned a laugh upon some practice of the kindergarten they have proved a point against it. And it is easy for many people to make merry over any of the innovations in teaching, which is equally true of everything novel. When old fogies cannot adjust themselves to changing conditions, they console and strengthen themselves in their helplessness by poking fun at all things new.

This is not to say that the criticisms of the kindergarten are without foundation, but only that the critics have not complied with the simplest principles of scientific procedure in pointing out defects. It is possible that the whole matter is purely relative any way. It is easily conceivable that when children have had much freedom and life in a kindergarten, and are then transplanted to a dry, desert-like primary grade, it will take them some time to get acclimated. I have observed very closely a situation of just this sort, and I have wondered often whether the habits and expectations acquired in the kindergarten were not a disadvantage under the changed conditions. The children were subject to constant nagging in the new situation, and it took some time for them to learn to sit still, keep their mouths shut, learn their lessons, and always do as they were bid. But in a primary school where rigidity and militarism give place to vital, interesting activity I have observed that the kindergarten child is more completely *en rapport* with his environment than his less fortunate comrade. He has more self-confidence, is more executive, dynamic, expressive, and, from the very beginning, he reacts more effectively to the educative stimulations of the class-room. In the University of Wisconsin, during the past year, special studies have been made upon the abilities of children trained in different ways, and

we are confident that the kindergarten child has himself better in hand, in all this means, than the child of the street or the home or the formal primary grade.

LACK OF A STANDARD TEST.

It is suggestive to note, in this connexion, that, according to my observations, children who have thoroughly enjoyed the kindergarten sometimes thoroughly dislike the restrictions and formalism of the primary grade. I realize that the disciplinarians regard this as a point against the kindergarten, for the children need, for their souls' health, to do tasks which they dislike. Now, it is needless to wrangle over this question; no one's views can be changed by argument about it. If you are a formalist, and believe in the prophylactic value of drudgery, you will find fault with the kindergarten; and you can find plenty of reasons to fortify your position. If, however, you are a naturalist and have faith in the moral worth of following lines of interest in educational work, then you will endorse the fundamental principles of the kindergarten; but you cannot demonstrate the soundness of your doctrines to those whose conception of human nature and whose temperament are the antithesis of yours. We cannot at present prove anything regarding this complex question; we have devised no system of experiments that will show precisely what is the motor, intellectual, emotional, and moral status of the kindergarten as compared with the non-kindergarten child at different stages in his development. Viewing the situation with my conceptions of human nature and education, I feel that the year or two spent under a wise kindergartner are of positive value.

ROOM FOR IMPROVEMENT.

But, having said this, I must hasten to add that I believe there is room for improvement in the kindergarten in respect of some of the matters we have been discussing. I fear that sentiment plays too large a part in the treatment of many children; and by sentiment is meant the desire and the effort to shield the child from all pains and

penalties as a natural consequence of his experiments with people and things. The kindergartner is sometimes taught that a child comes among us fresh from the hand of the Creator, and he is pure and spiritual in his tendencies and impulses. If he never have experience with anything but gentleness and tenderness in the people about him, the divinity within him will unfold most readily. The kindergartner would save the child his trials and tribulations by taking them upon herself, little thinking that to spare the child the results of his acts now is to heap up difficulties for him in the future. So far as I can discern, all contemporary science treating of human nature suggests the conception that the child is equipped at birth mainly with impulses which are bequeathed to him from his primitive ancestors, but which are not adapted to modern society in just the way in which they are inherited. So that the education of the individual consists in no small measure in learning to inhibit his original tendencies. He can, undoubtedly, acquire these inhibitions best by forming strong attachments for modes of conduct in harmony with existing social institutions and practices; so that in the kindergarten, as elsewhere, we must aim primarily to win the novice in behaviour to social and moral interests and actions. But, so far as I can discover, there has never been worked out any plan by which the child can be brought into line with his social environment without having some experience of penalties for unsocial conduct. The social lessons are not learned without a struggle, and the longer they are deferred the harder they become. If the child never suffers for non-social conduct in the kindergarten, he will be likely to make it up with heavy interest farther along. Pain is, when it results from violation of social and ethical laws, a most valuable prophylactic agent if it come early enough, before attitudes and expectations become established. So it has seemed to me that it would be well if the kindergarten, while preserving all of its positive methods in making the child a social being, would at the same time help the child to appreciate as a

result of vital, significant experience, that it pays in terms of pleasure and pain to meet his fellows half-way, and not to trespass on their rights for his own advantage. The kindergartner ought to help in making children appreciate that a bullying attitude leads to unhappy consequences.

FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTIONS.

I come now to say a word respecting the fundamental conceptions of the kindergarten, which have been vigorously assailed by certain distinguished present-day naturalists. It is charged that the Froebelian philosophy is mystical and fanciful, and that it is not founded to any extent upon exact observation of the developing human mind. It has resulted, then, that materials and processes which are artificial and formal have found their way into the kindergarten, the doctrine of symbolism being especially faulty. The child is kept at the gifts when he ought to be in contact with Nature and doing things of genuine value. To my mind, this general criticism is merited in many kindergartens. I think all we know of the functioning of the human mind as an instrument for securing adjustment to the world, to which may be added the results of experience, testify to the fruitlessness of trying to instruct babes by means of symbols. The time devoted to this work ought to be spent in dealing at first hand with real objects in the real world environing the child. Even if the gifts be used for constructive activities, the work is still apt to be more or less artificial and trivial. The spontaneous activities of the child outside of the kindergarten are apt to be considerably more energetic and significant and effective. I have seen boys of six held to activities in the kindergarten which they had outgrown at four, or, at least, their abilities at the time were quite beyond the simple and mechanical tasks they were performing. I am confident this objection will not apply to all kindergartens, but I fear that the average orthodox one has underestimated the general dynamic needs and possibilities of most of its children, while at the same time it has very greatly overestimated the generalizing powers of

the young mind. Consequently some of its processes are ill-suited to the normal child of five or six.

REFORMS IN PROGRESS.

I think, however, that movements are already in progress which promise to bring about needed reforms in the kindergarten. In general these reforms should make its work more natural, more closely related to the life the child lives outside of school. The kindergarten, disclaiming as it does any intention to give the child a knowledge of linguistic arts, should be chiefly serviceable in furnishing models for his spontaneous activities. It should give him suggestions to guide him in his construction and play activities, so that these may be made constantly more complex and give him increasing executive skill, self-control, and social insight and co-operation. The kindergarten, as I have seen it, is doing considerably in this direction now; but it might do more if it would base all its activities upon the nature and needs of the actual child, with his primitive and motor tendencies, rather than upon the idealized and metaphysical being which the Froebelian philosophy, as popularly expounded among us, does seem to construct.

TRAINING OF THE KINDERGARTNER.

There is space left to say but a word respecting the current criticisms of the training of the kindergartner. There is a deep-seated conviction among the naturalists that the majority, perhaps, of the kindergarten novitiates have their intellects trained too little and their emotions stimulated too much. They are, it is said, quite deficient in the ordinary subjects of mental discipline—mathematics, history, language, science. They have very slight foundation for undertaking a study of the most intricate object in the world—the developing human mind. It follows, inevitably, then, that they get a very superficial knowledge of the true nature of the child and his educational needs. They learn the traditional phrases of the cult, but they cannot employ them to guide themselves in concrete situations. It is universally acknowledged, so far as I have been able to ascertain, that the

kindergartner usually has the right general attitude towards her special work; but she lacks the understanding to particularize this attitude in special situations, and to devise the most effective means to accomplish the ends which she would attain. I think it very likely that the naturalists have some reason for their complaint, though there are signs of improvement in this respect, too. In some training schools, at any rate, the kindergartner is well grounded in contemporary biological and psychological science as a foundation for the special study of kindergarten theory and practice.

GEOGRAPHY AS NATURE STUDY.*

The following suggestions are intended not to create a distaste for the proper study of grammars and lexicons, but to stimulate the desire to learn the meaning of things. In the teaching of geography, the home and field should be used to the fullest extent possible. The rill is a river in miniature. It obeys the same laws, does the same kind of work, and may teach the same lesson. If we understand the hills and the lessons they teach, we have a good introduction to the secrets of the mountains. The pond or the reservoir may show us many of the phenomena of the sea. The plant and animal geography of our own country is influenced by and conditioned upon the same forces which operate the world over.

The Study of the Weather: Meteorology.—This includes the temperature, moisture, pressure and movements of the atmosphere, storms and other phenomena of the air. Much good work can be done with only such instruments as are found in the science laboratories, and such as may be constructed without difficulty for the purpose. But with a small outlay for instruments and books, results of greater scientific value can be secured. Some of the

work which may be done with few or no instruments would be the keeping of records of rain and snow-fall, temperature, the direction, and approximately the rate of the wind, the quarter from which storms come. Rainfall records can be kept in an ordinary diary, or on a calendar. The letters "r" and "s" may stand for rain and snow, and any simple device may be adopted to show whether the storm was between 12 o'clock midnight and 12 o'clock noon, or between noon and midnight. The letter placed in front of a vertical line, thus, "r," might be used to indicate rain before noon, and the letter placed after the vertical line to denote rain or snow after noon. A still more detailed record could be kept by putting with the letter the figure denoting the hour, thus, "s8" would mean snow at 8 o'clock in the evening. For satisfactory results in measuring the quantity of rainfall, the rain gauge should be used, but an approximate estimate can be made by choosing a suitably exposed place and arranging a receiver for a vertical-walled vessel of sufficient depth to prevent the water splashing out. After the storm the depth of the water in the vessel will represent the rainfall. If the area of the top of the vessel in square centimetres is known, more accurate results can be secured by pouring the water into a tube graduated in cubic centimetres.

The directions from which storms come should be recorded, and it would soon be apparent to what particular winds we are chiefly indebted for our rainfall.

Very satisfactory temperature records can be kept with a very inexpensive thermometer. The readings should be made at the same hour or hours daily. An easily constructed weather vane will serve as a means of indicating the direction of the wind. Below the vane, but on the same support, a cross can be arranged to mark the cardinal points of the compass, and to facilitate the reading of the vane. The apparatus should be at a sufficient height to be unaffected by the presence of houses and other buildings. The following scale may be used for estimating the rate of the wind:—

- (1) Light, 2 to 5 miles per hour, moving leaves

- (2) Moderate, 7 to 10 miles, moving branches.

- (3) Brisk, 18 to 20 miles, swaying branches, blowing up dust.

- (4) High, 27 to 30 miles, swaying trees, blowing up twigs.

- (5) Gale, 45 to 50 miles, breaking branches, loosening bricks, signs, &c.

- (6) Hurricane, 75 miles, destroying everything.

The History of Water.—The water which falls to the earth's surface as rain and snow is disposed of in three principal ways:

- (1) A part enters the ground, becoming ground water. Of this ground water, a part issues again as springs and finds its way to the rivers and thence to the sea.

- (2) A second part forms pools, rills, streams, and reaches the drainage lines without passing beneath the surface of the earth. This is called the "run-off."

- (3) A part is evaporated back to the atmosphere before it enters the ground or joins the run-off, but still more passes back to the atmosphere by evaporation from the surface layers of rock and soil which had absorbed it as ground water. Observe how this division of the water into these parts is affected by:—

- (1) The shape of the surface on which it falls.

(a) Loose sand, soil, clay.

- (2) The kind of material upon which it falls.

(b) Broken or jointed rock.

(c) Unbroken bare rock of different kinds.

- (3) The rate at which the rain falls, and the duration of the storm.

- (4) The dryness of the surface upon which it falls.

- (5) The season, temperature, wind, &c.

Evaporation.—The study of the conditions affecting evaporation furnishes very interesting work, and can be carried on without any apparatus,

though the thermometer and a hygrometer would be very useful. Observe the rate of evaporation as affected by:—

- (1) The temperature of the air and of the surface from which evaporation is taking place.

- (2) The movement and temperature of the wind.

- (3) The moisture contained in the air (humidity.)

- (4) The slope of the surface and the exposure to the sun.

- (5) The area exposed to evaporation.

Experiments may be made on various kinds of materials:—

- (1) Put a measured gallon of pure water into a shallow vessel, and the same quantity into another vessel having one-half or one-third the surface area. Record the temperature of the water and the weight of the filled vessels, and expose them in the same place. After a number of hours or a couple of days, weigh the vessels and compare the loss by evaporation. If it is not convenient to conduct the experiment by weighing, the loss may be seen by measuring the water remaining, but this will necessitate pouring it out of the vessel used.

- (2) Take two vessels of the same form and capacity, and of the same material, and put into each a weighed or measured quantity of water, say 10 pounds or one gallon, and see that the temperatures are the same. Add half-a-pound of common salt to one of the vessels, and stir it gently until the salt is dissolved. Expose them in a place favourable for evaporation and compare the loss of weight after a given number of hours. The effect of other salts and of greater proportions of common salt may be tested.

- (3) Take equal volumes of fine sand, coarse sand, sand and clay mixed, and pure clay; dry them and place them in vessels of the same kind and form so that the materials are the same depth in all. Add to each a weighed or measured quantity of water and see that the water is uniformly distributed through the masses. Record the weight of each, and expose them in the same way, and com-

* From a paper entitled "The Home Field in the Study of Geography," by Prof. R. D. George, Professor of Geology in the University of Colorado, published in "Investigations of the Department of Psychology and Education of the University of Colorado," June, 1905.

pare the loss by evaporation after a certain time, and compare the depth of surface drying in the different materials.

(4) Make the same tests, but cover the vessels with thin white cloth, and again with thin black cloth. In each case expose them to direct sunshine.

(5) Take two vessels of the same kind and form and place in each the same quantity of fine sand moistened with the same amount of water. Cover one with black cloth and the other with white. Weigh them and place them in the sun, and after a given time compare the loss of weight by evaporation.

(6) Repeat any or all of these experiments under different weather conditions; for example, on a hot day and on a cool day; in a strong wind and protected from the wind; when the air is very dry and when it is filled with moisture.

(7) Experiment 3 may be varied by having two sets of vessels, and leaving the materials very loose in one set, and compacting them in the other.

Stream Study.—This should include the exploration, and if possible, the mapping of the basin of the stream, measurements and record of its flow from season to season, the character of its waters and the work they are doing. A drainage basin generally includes:—

(1) A permanent stream with permanent branches.

(2) Intermittent streams.

(3) Storm washes, gullies and ravines, which have streams only during and a short time after storms.

In a study of the drainage courses and the boundaries of the basin, answers should be sought for the following questions:—

(1) What conditions are necessary to information of a permanent stream?

(2) Why are some of the streams of this basin intermittent?

(3) What conditions have influenced the

location and direction of the various tributaries of this basin?

(4) Is the size of the drainage basin fixed, increasing or decreasing? What are the causes of changes of area or drainage basins?

The stream basin includes all that area from which the waters would find natural drainage toward the stream. If the study of the river is too great an undertaking, a tributary can be chosen. Each branch watercourse should be traced headward to the divide which limits its drainage area, and if a reasonably good map can be found, showing section lines and other details, the position of the divide can be traced upon it. The direction of stormwater channels and washes can be added; the position of rapids and falls, terraces, bars and islands indicated. The shape of the channel can be shown, and the nature of the material in which it is formed may be indicated throughout its course.

In measuring the flow of the stream, choose a place where its course is straight for 50 or 100 feet, and where the banks and bottom are regular and the width is uniform. Set up two stakes 100 feet apart and as close as convenient to the water's edge. Toss a chip into the water a few yards above the upper stake and note, exactly the second at which it passes each stake. The difference between the times at the two stakes will be the number of seconds required for the water to flow 100 feet. A number of tests should be made so as to find the rate in the middle and at points between the middle and the banks. If the tests are well distributed across the stream, the average of the results will be about the rate of the surface flow of the stream. Suppose that five tests give the following results in seconds: 9, 12, 11, 8, and 12. The average surface flow would be the sum of these divided by 5, that is 10 seconds for 100 feet, or 10 feet per second. As the rate at the bottom is less than the surface rate, it is usual to assume that the rate is nine-tenths its surface rate, which gives us 9 feet per second.

Various methods may be used to find the average depth. If the stream can be waded, it may be mea-

sured with a pole at regular intervals from bank to bank. If it is too deep for this method, a sounding line can be fastened to the end of a pole. The sinker should be heavy enough to carry the line to the bottom in spite of the current. There should be markers on the line, at intervals of three or four inches, to aid the eye in fixing the point to which the line sinks in the water. If tests are made at regular intervals from bank to bank, the average of the results will be the average depth of the stream.

The width can be measured by a cord or a tape line. If necessary, a cord can be got across by tying a pebble to it and throwing the pebble to someone on the opposite bank. It is customary to allow a small amount for the eddying and back flow close to the banks, but sometimes this is not necessary.

Having the rate per second in feet, the average depth in feet and the width in feet, the flow in cubic feet per second will be the product of the three numbers.

The energy of a stream is spent in doing various kinds of work. Some of the more apparent parts of this work are: the widening, deepening and lengthening of the valley; the removal of the materials loosened in this process; the building of bars, terraces, islands and deltas. Suitable sections of the valley may be chosen and mapped in detail. Cross sections and longitudinal sections of the valley and channel should be drawn to scale if possible. The positions of bars, islands, terraces and deltas should be indicated, and the distribution of mud, sand, gravel and boulder areas could be shown by means of different colours. The pebbles and boulders of the valley show the kinds of rock on which the stream is working, and their size, outline and surface tell something of the length of their journey. A more detailed study of the materials of the valley can be made by collecting pebbles and chips from the boulders and comparing and arranging them according to varieties, and if possible tracing each variety to its source higher up the stream. In

this work, a more or less detailed geological map of the valley can be made.

The waters may be examined for suspended solid matter and for matter in solution. The amount of matter carried in the solid form may be estimated in various ways. A measured quantity of the water may be evaporated, and the solid matter left in the vessel may be weighed. Or, a carefully measured gallon or two of the water can be weighed accurately, and its weight compared with that of the same measure of clear water. The difference between the weights will be the weight of the suspended matter less the weight of the water displaced by it. If we call the weight of stream water 4.0, the weight of the solid matter carried by the stream would be about 2.5, and 2.5 pounds of solid matter would weigh only 1.5 pounds in water.

And in order to find the weight of the solid matter in the water, we must multiply the difference between the weight of the stream water and that of the clear water by $\frac{2.5}{1.5}$ or $\frac{5}{3}$. Thus, if the difference between the two weights were 3 pounds, the weight of the solid matter would be 3 pounds multiplied by $\frac{5}{3}$, or 5 pounds. If the flow of the stream is known, a calculation can be made showing the amount of suspended matter being carried by the stream at the time the test is made.

An interesting experiment on muddy waters may be made by taking three glasses of the water and pouring into one a teaspoonful of salt, and into another a teaspoonful of powdered alum, and stirring them until the salt and alum are dissolved. Stand the three glasses where they will not be disturbed, and note the difference in the times required for the water in the glasses to become clear.

To test whether the stream is carrying matter in solution, take a measured quart of the water from the stream when it is clear, and evaporate it by slow boiling, and note the amount and character of the deposit, if any, formed in the vessel. Test the deposit with acid. Effervescence indicates carbonates, probably of lime.

The Formation of Soil.—The decay of rocks and the formation of residual clay and soil may be

studied almost anywhere in the foothills and mountains, and at many places on the plains, especially along stream gorges and valleys. In the mountains select a rather level area in such a position that the decaying rock would not be readily carried away by wind and rain, and where it would not be greatly added to by matter washed or rolled in from the surrounding rocks. If the spot is covered with grass, it will be found that the soil at the roots of the grass will be more or less darkened, possibly almost black, from the presence of decaying plant matter. Deeper, it is lighter coloured, coarser and more gritty, and gradually passes into rusty, angular, pebbly or coarsely granular material. Still deeper the proportion of fine material become less and less, and blocks of partially decayed rock appear and finally the solid rock is exposed. A very interesting collection may be made showing the various stages in soil formation, from fresh rock to soil-supporting vegetation.

On the plains it is possible to find places where the streams have cut down into the rocks and have left them exposed. In such places one may sometimes trace the change from a solid rock below, to a more and more broken and decayed mass, and finally upward into clay soil.

Briefly stated, the process of soil-formation is as follows: most rocks are made up of grains of two or more minerals, and the minerals themselves are made up of simpler substances called elements. Water, the gases of the atmosphere and the substances formed by the decay of plants, all tend to unite with these elements and form new compounds, many of which are easily soluble and are partly or completely washed away to the rivers and carried to the sea. Others are less soluble and remain longer, and still others are almost insoluble. These last are the principal soil-formers, but with them, especially in dry regions, small quantities of the soluble salts remain. This soil material may accumulate and form a thick covering over the rock from which it is formed, or it may be carried away by wind and water and laid down elsewhere. Much of the mud of stream channels is fine soil material which has

been washed down into the valleys and is being carried away to the sea. If the rock is seamed and jointed, air and water get at it more easily and the work of decay goes on faster. Freezing and thawing and other changes of temperature cause fine fracturing, and so hasten decay.

Plant and Animal Geography.—The study of the distribution and habits of plants and animals is one of the most interesting kinds of field work, and while a knowledge of species and varieties is very helpful, much instructive work can be done without it, especially if it is possible to secure the co-operation of the teacher of biology. The following outline is intended only to indicate some lines of work. It may appear to trespass on the field of biology, but in a broad sense biology is the story of geography told in the language of life. An intelligent understanding of either science necessitates a careful study of the response of organism to environment and the effect of environment upon organisms.

A. Plant Classes: (1) Trees and shrubs. (a) Leaf trees. (b) Needle trees, trees with needle-like leaves. (2) Herbaceous plants.

B. Regional Distribution: (1) Mountains. (a) Alpine—above timber-line. (b) Sub-alpine—9,500 to 11,000 feet above sea level. (c) Lower slopes, from the plains up to 9,500 feet. (d) Mountain, meadows and parks. (2) Foothills and Plains: (a) Canyons. (b) Hillsides and mesas. (c) Open plains.

C. Distribution relative to Exposure to Sun and Wind: (1) Vegetation on various slopes. (2) Height of timber line and its relation to sun, wind and movement of atmospheric moisture. (3) Effects of shade on the holding of moisture and on plant distribution. (4) Wind timber.

D. Influence of Man: (1) Effects of cultivation of the soil. (a) Introduction of new plants. (b) Disappearance of certain plants. (2) Effects of irrigation. (3) Effects of railway and highway building. (a) Introduction of new plants by migration along railway and highway. (b) Vegetation

of new cuts and fills. (4) Effects of removal of timber trees on: (a) Other trees and shrubs. (b) Herbaceous plants.

E. Relation of Vegetation to Soils: (1) Vegetation of sand and very sandy soil. (2) Vegetation of residual clay. (3) Of loam, alluvium and vegetable mould. (4) Of boulders and bare rocks (mosses, lichens, &c.).

F. Relation of Vegetation to the amount of Moisture: (1) Stream border, swamp, bog and meadow types. (2) Plain types.

G. Seasonal Progress and Development: (1) Effects of slope, shade, altitude, &c. (2) Spring flowering plants, summer flowering plants, &c.

H. Relation of Vegetation to Underlying Rocks.

I. Plant Geography: One plant map of the vicinity might show by different colours the distribution of needle-trees (conifers), leaf-trees and shrubs. A second could show the distribution of herbaceous plants. Different localities would show more or less definite groupings.

Animal Life: The principal groups are: (1) Mammals. (The group includes all hairy quadrupeds.) (2) Birds. (3) Reptiles. (The group includes snakes, turtles, the horned toad, Gila monster, &c.) (4) Amphibians. (The group includes frogs, water-dogs (salamanders, &c.) (5) Fish. (6) Worms. (7) Molluscs. (The group includes snails, oysters, &c.) (8) Arthropods. (The group includes crustaceans, centipedes, insects, spiders, &c.)

How is the Distribution of each Group influenced by: (a) The presence or absence of timber? (b) The supply of moisture? (c) The topography—plains, foothills and canyons, mountains? (d) The nearness and work of man?

Each of the Groups may be studied under the General Headings: (a) Range, migration, both local and distant. (b) Summer life. (c) Winter habits, colour changes, &c. (d) Stages in life development. (e) Food and supply.

RURAL EDUCATION-DEVELOPMENTS IN ENGLAND.

(Extract from the "Times.")

It is a strange British characteristic which leads us systematically to ignore the progress of our own country. Our reputed national boastfulness limits itself to matters of time-honoured custom of inherent disposition, and we often regard as Utopian ideas which are being realised at our very doors. In matters educational this is due in great measure to the lack in Britain of those systematic Government reports which are so prominent in the States and Provinces of America and Canada. The absence of such reports retards progress, by squandering originality, and permitting in the public at large an unsympathetic, uncomprehending attitude towards educational effort.

Thus, for example, since in the majority of rural elementary schools in England education is still very wooden, many people fail to recognise that a reform movement has been in progress for the last few years, and is gaining force every day. This change has a two-fold origin—educational and technical. On the one hand, it is part of the general educational awakening due to the abolition of payment by results, and, in 1902, of the rigid set curriculum in favour of one chosen by the teacher; and this awakening is further evinced by the notable Codes of the last two years, and by the encouragement, by special Government grants, of manual training, cooking, dairy and laundry work, household science, and school gardening. These changes gave an opportunity of which a few really intelligent head-teachers were quick to avail themselves. On the other hand, the reform movement is a result of the connection established by the Education Act of 1902 between the county councils and the schools, whereby bodies already engaged in technical agricultural instruction have become responsible for general education. Since 1889 there had been in the counties a rapid develop-

ment of zeal for technical instruction in agriculture. In that year not only were the Board of Agriculture founded and Governmental grants to Agriculture begun, but the Technical Instruction Act conferred on counties the power to develop technical 'agricultural' instruction. Further, the Customs and Excise Act of 1890 gave them, in the so-called "Whisky Money," the means to that end. In consequence of these measures, there was by 1902 only one county in England and Wales which did not in some way, however slight, provide for technical or higher agricultural instruction. No fewer than eight agricultural colleges, or university agricultural departments, had been provided by various groups of counties, and, besides this, many counties provided travelling lecturers in agriculture, horticulture, and poultry and bee keeping, and classes in hedging and thatching and similar subjects; others maintained local experimental plots and travelling dairies, or gave scholarships for higher agricultural education. The Education Act of 1902, by putting the elementary schools into direct relation with this technical movement, has greatly stimulated that modification of the curriculum which, on educational grounds, had here and there begun. Further, it has raised the county rate to such an extent that farmers are grumbling; and in a few cases this has led to fruitful discussions in farmers' clubs on the character and value of present-day rural education. Such discussion is a hopeful step forward from the usual heavy English indifference to educational aims.

The most active counties—for example, Staffordshire, Kent, and Surrey—are doing much to encourage change. Staffordshire is this year arranging for practical gardening to be taught in sixty-four elementary schools. It has also, to test the value of elementary agriculture as a subject for upper standards, instituted an experimental course in agriculture for twenty picked boys, in each of two neighbourhoods; in each case boys from four schools attend at a centre

twelve weekly lessons of two hours each on farm life and management. Surrey, which since 1894 has carried on continuation school gardens in the summer and continuation schools on rural subjects in the winter, is now encouraging in its elementary schools manual work, cooking, school gardening, and Nature-study, is holding classes in manual work for teachers, and is giving annual assistance to teachers who attend the summer course in Nature-study at the South-Eastern Agricultural College at Wye. Kent gives similar encouragement. Concrete examples of what is possible are afforded by one or two of the best schools of these counties.

In Kent, the Chislehurst Road School, Orpington, has, besides infants, about three hundred children, chiefly those of small shopkeepers, mill hands, and farm labourers; it is distinguished for its admirable Nature-study and its experimental school gardens, and has, further, woodwork for boys and cooking for girls. Only one hour a week is given to Nature-study, besides one hour to composition, and three quarters of an hour to brushwork connected with it; yet, owing to careful gradation of the work through the various standards and the insistence on accurate observation, the basis of a scientific training is being given. Each class has its garden, where plants are grown for experiment, although only about one-eighth of an acre is available for gardening purposes; for example, Standard V is this year experimenting in the pollination of flowers, by means of sweet peas, primroses, nasturtiums, and other plants, some being tied up in muslin bags to prevent cross-fertilisation. Standards VI and VII are testing the effect of different soils and manures on cabbages. Within the school the simplest apparatus is used—such as a wooden box with glass sides, a jam jar, a test tube—in order to watch growth from the seed, to note the effect of the exclusion of light, and to find out how plants eat and breathe. In Standard V pure Nature-study

is supplemented by an elementary experimental study of the physics and chemistry of air and water, and, in Standards VI and VII, of soils, and by simple lessons in land-measurement and the construction of weights. Additional experimental work in physical geography is done. From Standard I upwards wind and weather are daily recorded, and also the changing position of the sun-shadow at noon on the schoolroom wall; in Standard III two boys are deputed to take a weekly record of the temperature under, and above the soil; others measure the angle of the sun's elevation at noon and the weekly length of the shadow of the cricket wicket in the playground. Throughout the school observations are taken with extreme care and accuracy, and recorded both in public charts and by painting and writing in the children's neatly kept note-books. Often quite excellent brushwork studies are made. An inspection of this school confirmed the writer's opinion that in accuracy and thoroughness the average of work done in English schools is far above that of American ones.

The British School, Dorking, is a non-provided village school of about 320 children, drawn mainly from the families of clerks and small tradesmen of Dorking. Throughout this school Nature-study is correlated with language-work, drawing, painting, and plasticine modelling. The use of plasticine for Nature-study expression is of great value in training hand and eye and developing sense of form. All the older boys learn woodwork; a special room has recently been fitted up for the purpose, and the head-master is himself a certificated teacher of the subject. Another room, usually a class-room, can be adapted for use three times a week as a kitchen, where twenty girls at a time can learn cooking. Girls from the top classes are selected in turn, each class having a course of not less than forty hours, in accordance with the Board of Education Regulations. Finally, there is a small school garden, where fourteen boys learn gardening; each garden is shared by two boys, and all learn to grow vego-

tables. The Board of Education grant 4s. per pupil per course of forty hours, but limit the number taught at a time to fourteen. Another somewhat similar Surrey School is that at Westcott. This is a National school of 150 children, whose parents are chiefly employed on the gentlemen's estates round the village. Here, also, Nature-study, accompanied by modelling and brushwork, runs through the school; in the highest standards it ends in very simple physical and chemical experiments, bearing on gardening for boys or on domestic science for girls. There is also cooking for girls and gardening for fourteen boys. The latter are taught by the head-master, who aims rather at education than at technical instruction. The boys are allowed to learn by experience, and even by failure, rather than by much guidance. The pupils selected are those who show lack of marked so-called intellectual promise; they make excellent gardeners, and easily find places in the neighbourhood on leaving. From the educational point of view, however, it seems unfortunate that the Government grant is only given for boys over eleven years of age, and that it is only possible for so few boys to learn. Gardening should be part of the general curriculum of the rural school, as it is in the Macdougall Schools in Canada—not a subject for the few.

These are examples of exceptionally good schools in the most progressive and populous parts of England. But in many parts of England and Wales schools are too small for much reform to take place without "consolidation," as the uniting of smaller schools to make a larger one is called. For example, in the Lindsey and Kesteven districts of Lincolnshire the average attendance in twenty-five rural elementary schools is from ten to twenty pupils, in forty-seven schools from twenty to thirty, and in one hundred and five schools from thirty to fifty. In Cornwall there are four rural elementary schools with average attendance of from ten to twenty pupils, twelve schools with attendance

from twenty to thirty, and thirty-six schools with attendance from thirty to fifty. In Norfolk there are twenty-two similar schools with attendance from twenty to thirty, and one hundred and three schools with attendance from thirty to fifty. The only change in the curriculum possible in such small schools would be by means of itinerant teachers; for the Government grants for school classes in cooking, laundry, dairying, handicraft, and household management are given only if the teachers hold diplomas of considerable value in these subjects; and the further condition that suitable accommodation and apparatus must be provided would make such teaching too expensive. In gardening, again, it would be impossible for the teacher to leave the entire school in the hands of an untrained subordinate, who in such a school would be his only assistant in order to conduct it; while Nature-study taught by the type of teacher which is all that such a school can afford would be in most cases as valueless as the present instruction. But every such school as those quoted could be closed, and the children conveyed to a neighbouring school, if one or two good-sized vans were in each case employed. Expense would probably be saved; for, in addition to the experience in Canada and the United States we have a little evidence in England to guide us. In a few isolated cases vans are now employed. In Lincolnshire, since the passing of the Act of 1902, the further provision of small schools has in three cases been obviated by the use of vans at Wootton, in North Lincolnshire, for the whole year, and at Owston Ferry in the west and Friskney in the east, for the winter. The children are conveyed distances varying from two and a-half to four miles; drivers, horses, and vans are engaged by the county education authority by contract; the former are usually small farmers or posting agents, and must be over eighteen years of age. In Devonshire three vans, holding from ten to thirty-two children, have been employed, one for each of three villages, and one trap holding ten

children for a fourth village—viz., Holworthy, Dartington, Sutcombe, and Ashburton; the distances which the children are conveyed vary from two to four miles. In Cornwall, twenty-six years ago, the Rev. Canon Thynne provided a van and horses for the National School of Kilkhampton, and paid an old man to drive it; from eighteen to twenty children have been conveyed ever since, with most satisfactory results. A second van, conveying sixteen children, was subsequently provided by the Wesleyans for their school, and the vans are now used conjointly for the two schools of the village. The school managers in this case own the vans; the hire of horse and driver for each is barely covered by its use a week. In the case of Devonshire it has been possible to close two schools by the use of vans, and in Lincolnshire the provision of three new schools has been obviated. Consolidation, therefore, is possible in England as in America, and it is almost certain that it would have the same results—the children would be under better teachers, would be better classified, and would come under the inspiring influence of a big school, whilst provision for the teaching of practical subjects could be made, and also for school libraries. The expenses of consolidation would be far less in England than in America, because in the districts where consolidation is most needed almost every school has accommodation for far more children than attend, and thus the structural alterations for larger numbers would be relatively insignificant. For example, Sutton St. Edmund, in Lincolnshire, has two Council schools, with average attendance in 1904 of sixty-four and thirty-two children respectively; the larger school has accommodation for 132; and this represents a very general state of affairs in Lincolnshire.

The problem of obtaining teachers able to adapt education to rural needs, an even more important one than that of consolidation, is being met in many counties by Saturday lessons in gardening and Nature-study for teachers, given

by county agricultural lecturers, or by August courses at the various agricultural colleges, which teachers are invited, and sometimes financially assisted, to attend. An excellent example of such a course for teachers was given by the horticultural department of Reading College two years ago, when the entire course centred round the choice and use of a school garden. The twenty-five rural teachers who attended did morning work in the college laboratories in such subjects as the physics and chemistry of soils, the various methods of plant feeding, and the effects of light on plants; in the afternoons they planned and planted model school gardens. The college lecturers subsequently kept in touch with the teachers; a Naturalists' Club was formed, which meets periodically for expeditions, and excellent work in Nature-study in many of the rural schools of Dorset and Bucks has been the result. Similar courses at other agricultural colleges are helping to solve the problem raised by the teachers' ignorance of Nature. But the great need of rural schools is, after all, teachers of general intelligent and wide outlook. When the girls now in secondary schools realise the delightful career open to the intelligent village schoolmistress, a greater revolution will be possible.

For it is not so much by a mere change of curriculum that rural education is to be reformed, as by a change in the whole point of view. The danger is lest, in zeal for reform, we endeavour merely to train labourers, farmers, and gardeners, and forget to train men. Village life will never be satisfying unless it offers human interests, and there is crying need for a radical change in the teaching of history and literature in the rural school. The history of their own village, explaining the origin of its industries, its church, its green, its school, its parish council, would do as much as Nature-study for the encouragement of village life. The marriages, diseases, and deaths of kings are not, after all, the essentials of history, nor even the doings of

parliaments and armies, from the villagers' point of view. "Reading," again, should be a training to love books; more silent reading in school is needed, and less practice in the mechanical enunciation of words.

Space does not admit of any account of the secondary agricultural schools which a few counties are providing. By the provision of these, supplemented by scholarships from the elementary schools, an educational ladder available for the few from rural school to agricultural college would be complete.

Is it too much to hope that the radical reform in the spirit of rural education which is thus slowly beginning will abolish the traditional "Hodge" of agriculture, and train instead an agricultural labouring class out of which the future may recreate the yeomanry of England?

OUR ENGLISH LETTER.

CAMBRIDGE, November 1905.

There is no lack of interest in education at the present time. Whatever may happen to the broth will not happen because the cooks are too few. Everywhere we find men writing, talking, and even, occasionally, thinking about educational matters. I have already spoken of 'Kappa's' letters, sent week by week to the 'Westminster Gazette,' which evoked so much criticism and reflection. Of all the criticisms, the most remarkable (we do not say the best) is that which Mr. H. G. Wells has contributed to a recent issue of the same admirable paper. It occupies nearly a page, and is entitled 'Distressed Parents, a School-boy, and some Reflections'. We cannot of course in a brief summary do justice to the vigour and wit which characterise this article, as they characterise everything that Mr. Wells writes. We must content ourselves with giving his conclusion. The root of the evil is the dullness of the schoolmaster: "could I put the thing directly to the profession, 'do you not feel

yourselves needlessly limited and dull?" I should receive a majority of affirmative responses. We do not insist upon our headmaster being a man of marked intellectual character. It is assumed that he "has done good work," as they say, the sort of good work that is usually no good at all, that increases nothing, changes nothing, stimulates no one, leads nowhere. Closely related is our extreme insistence upon what we call high moral character, meaning really something very like an entire absence of moral character. We insist upon tact, conformity, and an unblemished record. Now in these days tact is evasion, conformity silence, an unblemished record mere evidence of the damning burial of a talent. At the approach of anything likely to interest an average adolescent he must have acquired the habit of the modest cough, the infectious habit of the nice evasion. How can "Kappa" expect inspiration from the decorous resultants who satisfy these conditions? The secondary schoolmaster is haunted by a ridiculous dread that boys will "do something;" and so he achieves his end and turns out at last clean-looking, passively well-behaved, apathetic, obliterated young men, with no spark of initiative at all, quite safe not to "do anything" for ever.

Such is Mr. Wells's indictment—the half-truth which is ever the most dangerous of falsehoods. There is much in what he says. The schoolmaster is often too respectable, and English public-school boys are often too much after a conventional pattern. But there is much to be said in the other side—if only we had now the time to say it. It is probable that no professional man—not even the professional politician—has habitually to deal with such intractable material as the schoolmaster is expected to deal with by the cart-load, to shape, and to polish. He receives boys, sometimes in good condition, sometimes in thoroughly bad, from the hands of parents occasionally reasonable, generally not, and is called 'dull' if in a year or two he does not make of every one of them a vessel fit for honour. As

some schoolmasters wrote in answer to Mr. Wells, to them is handed over the human being at far the most difficult and dangerous period of its life, and after other, and often incompetent hands have dealt with it haphazard for years. Consider also that they never have a fair chance at one boy at once, but only at boys in the aggregate: they deal not with the individual but with the mob. And surely it is some little success that they contrive to regulate the mob, to direct its energies to some not mischievous object, and to keep it from being a scandal and a danger to all around. Schoolmasters have only to leave schoolboys alone for a week or two, and the military would have to be called out. They may be dull; but after all a hot-water pipe is better than a raging conflagration.

It is a common complaint against Oxford and Cambridge that they are hopelessly behind the times, unpractical, and in fact as dull as, in Mr. Wells's opinion, schoolmasters are. Here again it is the half-truth, or rather the quarter-truth, which has done harm. A letter signed 'Vindex' in a recent issue of the Times shows how far the popular conception of the older Universities has gone. 'I have been asked,' he says, 'whether there was a laboratory at Cambridge. I have been told by a prominent Member of Parliament that he was glad to hear that Cambridge was waking up to take interest in some modern subject. The Secretary of the Chamber of Commerce of one of the foremost cities in the United Kingdom denied positively in my hearing that Cambridge gave degrees in Science at all.' All these absurdities, and others like them, he proceeds to 'show up,' sparing no one who has been occupied in giving credence to them. As a matter of fact, thirty per cent. of the Honours men at Cambridge take their degrees either in Natural Science or in Mechanical and Applied Science; and the former Tripos has been open for fifty-four years! It makes one despair of one's country when one finds that after all this, such utter ignorance should prevail.

There may be much yet to do before Oxford or Cambridge can be considered quite up to date; but it is almost wicked to permit, by ill-considered utterances, such distorted ideas to go abroad. It is probable that Science is better taught, and to more men, in Oxford and Cambridge than in any four 'Modern' Universities put together.

Among the subjects treated by 'Kappa' was that of bullying, which—though far less prevalent than of old—unquestionably still exists in public schools, and from time to time becomes serious. 'Kappa' drew his illustrations from Mr. Lionel Portman's story, 'Hugh Rendal,' a book which has already achieved a position among school tales not second to that reached by Mr. Vachell's 'The Hill.' The bullying scenes in Mr. Portman's book are terrible enough, and certainly are drawn from the life. Mr. Portman is still a young man—so that bullying of a very bad kind still prevailed in at least one out of these several public schools only a very few years ago. How to prevent it is one of the most serious problems that bewilder the schoolmaster. One thing, however, is clearly shown in 'Hugh Rendal'; and that is, that the bullying could have been stopped very soon if the prefects and the upper school had done their duty. Its prevalence was due to a very low state of the general opinion. Masters can therefore hope that, by getting hold of the prefects, bullying on any large scale may be prevented: and, where the Headmaster is of the right sort, the prefects may be got hold of. Meanwhile, we can recommend all who wish to know something of what an English public school is like to read 'Hugh Rendal.' Of a humbler kind, but equally—or perhaps even more—true to life, are some of the tales by Mr. Wodehouse of which the most recent is 'The Head of Kay's.' In this, considerable space is devoted to a part of school-life which never came within the purview of 'Tom Brown'—namely the week spent in camp at Aldershot after the completion of each summer term. Since Cadet Corps have

become so important a branch of education, this camp-week has developed into a regular institution. Here the boys from the various schools learn to know each other, to rise at four o'clock, to make their own beds, to put up their own tents, and indeed to learn something of soldiering. Mr. Wodehouse's description (corrected, as he tells us in his preface, in accordance with the most recent criticism) is really admirable.

Little by little the great question of the tenure of assistant-masters is approaching solution. At the Grocers' School, now called Hackney Downs Grammar School, which is under the London County Council, the governors will recommend to the L.C.C. both the appointment and the dismissal of the assistant masters. Thus the Headmaster's power, in this respect, is reduced to its lowest terms. He may advise the governors to dismiss a man, and the governors may advise the L.C.C. authority. But till the authority agrees, the dismissal takes no effect. At Ipswich School the rule is as follows: 'The Headmaster shall, subject to the approval of the governors, have the sole power of appointing, and may, with the like approval, at pleasure dismiss, all assistant-masters in the school.' This does not sound much: 'tis not as wide as a church door; but it will serve us soon as the principle is adopted in all public schools; a genuine and undoubted grievance on the part of some of the best-deserving men in England, will be taken away.

As I write, I am advertised the 'Life' of that great, original, and even eccentric schoolmaster, Holy Hutchinson Almond of Loreto, by Mr. R. S. Mackenzie. With such a subject, Mr. Mackenzie has a chance of emulating the only really good life of a schoolmaster ever written in English, Stanley's 'Life of Arnold.' We shall look forward to reading it with great interest. Even Mr. Wells could hardly blame Almond for dulness or conventionality.

To those who feel drawn to books upon the general theory of education, few recent works can be more unhesitatingly recommended than

'The Boy and his School' by Mr. R. L. Leighton of Bristol Grammar School; a stimulating, bright, and suggestive essay of about a hundred pages, full of the ripe wisdom of experience, and informed by a lofty purpose. It deserves, and we hope will gain, a wide circulation.

Reviews and Notices.

NEW GLOBE READER V AND VI, (MACMILLAN & Co.)
1s. 6d. and 1s. 8d.

The little books are in good style. The printing is in fairly large type, and the illustrations are of the best kind. The selections are carefully made and include a number of pieces not commonly found in such readers. We wish compilers made a refreshing departure from the beaten track for the sakes of teacher and taught. The notes at the end of the 6th Reader contain the meanings of such words as *sanguine*, *strata*, *decorum*,—which is scarcely calculated to attain one of the objects aimed at, viz., encouraging the use of a dictionary by the pupils themselves.

HIGHER ENGLISH READER, (W. & R. CHAMBERS.) 2s.

This is a good specimen of the English Readers which the leading firms are putting on the market. The selections are of about the standard of the Matriculation class here, and afford variety, though few pieces are taken from quite modern authors. Meanings of difficult words, spelling lists, prefixes and suffixes, and lists of Old English, Latin, and Greek roots form an appendix of about 50 pages.

STORIES FROM THE HISTORY OF ROME, BY MRS. BEESLY. (MACMILLAN & Co.) 1s. 6d.

We welcome this charming little book as a useful contribution to children's libraries. It is perhaps impossible to combine more happily than Mrs. Beesly has done the qualities of perfect simplicity of style and perfect movement of incident. The reading of children must not be confined to fable and legend, and if it be objected that the stories narrated here are not based on historical truth, the authoress answers that they are typical of Roman manners and "are true in a more real sense than many a well-attested but less characteristic fact." The stories are so selected as to illustrate the peculiarly Roman virtues of duty to country and duty to parents, and a few show how the former often overpowered the latter.

The excellence of the book is explained by its origin. The stories were read by the authoress to her children, and the draft was improved as experience suggested.

OXFORD, BY ROBERT PERL AND H. C. MINCHIN.
(MACMILLAN & Co., LONDON.) 6s.

A very readable description of Oxford is given in this book, the chief interest belonging, however, to the 100 beautiful coloured illustrations. They are mostly views of the Oxford colleges and University buildings. Each chapter or section—no name is given—contains some historical allusion or biographical touch. Those that have been in the ancient city must feel their joy renewed by the memory of innumerable associations as they look at picture after picture and glance at the verbal description. The first historical mention of Oxford dates back to A.D. 912 when Edward the Elder, according to the English Chronicle, "took Lundenbyrg and Oxnaforð and all the lands that were obedient thereto." The popular belief that King Alfred founded the University is declared to have no documentary evidence.

CHILDREN OF THE EMPIRE, PART II, BY J. FINNEMORE. (W. & R. CHAMBERS.) 1s.

This booklet is one of a series of readers called Chambers' Supplementary Readers. The special feature of these Supplementary Readers is that they afford continuous reading. "Children of the Empire" has a special purpose,—that of giving some impression of "the vast diversity of race and colour, of climate and custom, found beneath the British flag." Accordingly we find in this second part four long stories dealing each with one of the following countries: Northern Canada, the West-Indies, South Africa, and New Zealand.

The narration is bright and in easy style, within the comprehension, say, of our fourth form. A few illustrations of local features add to the value of the stories as home reading. In the last story two little Maori children show a remarkable confidence in the impartial justice of the British people, which in the end is justified by the event.

"But perhaps they do not trouble to take care of any but British people," said little Amohia: "We are not white children."

"That does not matter one bit," returned her brother. "Our country belongs to Britain, and the British law is over it. I have heard it in the wharré, too. We are just the sons before the law as the British themselves, and the law will take care of us, as it takes care of them."

A CLASS-BOOK OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR, BY CLARKE AND MULLER. (LONGMANS & Co. 2s. 6d.)

This is as good a class-book as we have seen. It gives in addition to the usual contents of grammar books a few notes on Figures of Speech and on the scansion of English verse. Without descending into minutiae, the authors have made good the claim advanced in the Preface "that no difficulty has been knowingly shirked that seemed likely to present itself to teachers and pupils." We are pleased to find that many improvements on the customary treatment of Parts of Speech, Analysis, &c., made by Mason and Bain have been adopted in the book before us. For example it is gratifying to find the old tabular Analysis abandoned in favour of the detailed form, as it is called. The former in unskilful hands (and they are the majority everywhere) becomes a mechanical pigeon-holing of subjects, predicates, &c., besides giving the young learner the impression that subordinate clauses are not integral parts of a sentence in the same way as the parts of speech whose functions they discharge. The detailed form, on the other hand, tends to clearness of thought, and is capable of exhibiting the interrelation and proportion of the various parts of a sentence. The nature of the negative particle *not* is correctly described,—a merit which is not to be found in most handbooks. The distinction between the Direct and the Indirect objects is not insisted on; this is exactly as we would have it, though we are surprised that the authors should have omitted to explain such a great departure from practice. On the contrary it is disappointing to find repeated in such an up-to-date volume the misleading statement that *what* combines both antecedent and relative, being equal to *that which*. On this point Mason and Bain after him have said the final word. The Indirect Predicate receives adequate treatment. The illustrative sentences are taken from well-known authors. On the whole the book may be commended to the notice of teachers and pupils as one of the most safe and up-to-date guides to the study of English Grammar.

Indian Educational Notes.

MADRAS.

GOVERNMENT has promised a grant of Rs. 10,000 towards the cost of providing accommodation for the lower school and hostels attached to the Voorhees College, Vellore, subject to the condition that the total cost of the buildings does not fall below Rs. 30,000.

XI

MR. T. V. SIVAKUMARA SASTRI, B.A., I.T., Second and Acting First Assistant Lecturer, Kumbakonam College, is to act as Lecturer in the same College in the 9th grade of the Provincial Educational Service, during the absence of Mr. S. Narayanaswami Aiyer, on leave or until further orders. To have effect from 14th September, 1905.

THE Madras Hindu Association offers a prize of Rs. 100 for the best essay in English on "Shastric Sanction for the Marriage of Brahman Girls after Puberty." A Committee consisting of Prof. M. Raghachariar, Mr. V. Krishnaswami Aiyer and the Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswami Aiyer will award the prize. The competition is open to all. Complete references should be given to authorities cited. The essay should be in English, legibly written or typed. The Madras Hindu Association will have the full right of publishing and translating it in any language. No essay will be returned. All essays must reach Mr. G. A. Natesan, Joint Secretary, Esplanade, Madras, on or before the 31st March 1906.

WITH the object of reviving the study of Hindu medicine it has been decided to found a medical school with a hospital attached to it, at Mylapore, in January next. Mr. V. Krishnaswami Iyer, of the Madras Bar, has set apart Rs. 25,000 for the up-keep of the institution, which is to be known as the "Venkataramana Medical School," in memory of his father. Experienced medical practitioners capable of imparting instruction to the pupils in Charaka, Bhataka, Susruta and other celebrated treatises on indigenous Hindu medicine and surgery of recognised merit, are to be employed to take charge of the school and the hospital. Pupils are required to possess a good knowledge of Sanskrit, as the treatises have to be studied in the original. In the admission of pupils preference will be given to such as show some acquaintance with English besides. To a few pupils, say four or five, who may be in need of such assistance, a monthly stipend of from Rs. 10 to Rs. 12 will be given, of suitable arrangements will be made for their free boarding. Both the school and the hospital are to be run as charitable institutions.

THE MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

MEETING OF THE SENATE.

A Meeting of the Senate for the transaction of urgent business was held on the 15th instant, at the Senate House, when 39 Fellows were present,

and the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Benson, the Vice-Chancellor, presided. The business before the Meeting was the consideration of the Report by the Registrar embodying the Regulations framed and the Regulations passed by the Senate in Committee during several sittings in October and November last.

COMMUNICATIONS TO THE SENATE.

The Vice-Chancellor informed the Senate that in addition to the memorials which had been already placed before the Senate, several others had been received embodying Resolutions adopted by the citizens of Kumbakonam, Negapatam, and Tinnevely, at public meetings held at those places, and also from the Honorary Secretaries of the Madras Teachers' Guild and the North Arcot Teachers' Association. Copies of these memorials, the Vice-Chancellor informed the Meeting, were placed on the table for perusal by the members of the Senate; as also a memorial from Mr. Velayudam Pillay, late Manager of the Registrar's Office, regarding his dismissal.

AN EXPLANATION.

The Vice-Chancellor next said:—

Before proceeding to the business on the Agenda there is one matter that I wish to make reference to. I am informed that one or possibly more of the Fellows were under some misapprehension in regard to the manner in which the so-called Draft Bye-laws with regard to the Registrar came to be on the printed paper placed before the Senate. I am told that some Fellows are under the impression that these Bye-laws were placed on the printed paper by the Registrar on his own authority and without the sanction of the Syndicate. I may say that for my own part, I think we ought to know that Mr. Paterson is incapable of taking such a liberty with the Syndicate or the Senate, and I think I may say that if this had occurred, the Syndicate would have taken very good care that they were erased from the printed paper before being placed before the Senate. I merely mention this to show that the impression in regard to Mr. Paterson is entirely erroneous, and that the Syndicate directed them to be printed and placed before the Senate for consideration in case anybody wished to make any motion in connection with them.

THE DRAFT BYE-LAWS.

The Senate then proceeded to consider the Report submitted by the Registrar.

Before the Report was formally taken into consideration, several verbal alterations with a view

to improving the phraseology of the Regulations, were suggested by Fellows and were adopted by the Senate. The Draft Regulations as amended were then unanimously adopted by the Senate.

The Senate next adopted the motion "that the Regulations now approved, 1 to 157, take the place of Bye laws Nos. 1 to 157" as also "that the revised Regulations 1 to 157 be submitted to Government with the request that the time allowed for the consideration of the revision of the remaining Regulations may be extended to the 31st March, 1906."

The Rev. Father Sewell moved "that in Regulation 68 there be inserted after the word 'time' the following words:—'or who is precluded by reasons of religion from appearing in public.'"

Regulation 68 ran as follows:—

A candidate for a degree, who is not resident within the territorial limits of the University at the time, may, with the permission of the Syndicate, and on payment of a fee of Rs. 10, be admitted in *absentia* to that degree at the annual Convocation in March.

Dr. Bourne seconded the amendment

Mr. P. S. Ganapathi Iyer suggested the omission of the words "by reasons of religion" from the amendment. He said that there were other reasons besides religion which prevented Hindu lady candidates from appearing in public. He desired that such candidates should also be enabled to take advantage of section 68.

Father Sewell agreed to the suggestion, and the motion was accordingly amended and adopted with the omission of those words.

The Rev. Dr. Miller next moved the following Resolution, which he had already moved in Committee in a somewhat different form:—

That a Committee consisting of the Hon'ble Dr. Bourne, the Rev. J. Cooling, the Rev. Father Sewell, Mr. C. Sankaran Nair, Mr. H. J. Bhaba, Mr. M. Rungachariar, Mr. V. Krishnaaswamy Iyer, Mr. J. A. Yates and the Rev. E. M. Macphail, be appointed to consider and report on the suggestions on page 25 of the printed copy of the Draft Regulations submitted to the Senate on the 9th October last.

Mr. P. S. Ganapathi Iyer seconded the motion.

In so doing he said that the Committee was representative of both the Colleges and subjects. He made the Committee large in order that the members might form small Sub-Committees to discuss the various parts of the amendment.

Mr. V. C. Seshachariar seconded the amendment.

The Rev. E. M. Macphail inquired if Mr. Allen's amendment could be considered an amendment to Dr. Miller's motion.

The Vice-Chancellor ruled that it could.

The Hon'ble Dr. Bourne said that he could not serve on either of the Committees though he was ready to give his advice and help. He could not sit on Dr. Miller's Committee because that Committee would have to report on some of his own proposals. Mr. Allen's Committee would have to sit from day to day and he would have no time to devote to that duty. He had already spent a good deal of his time on the subject.

Dr. Miller also informed the Senate that he was unable to serve on any Committee.

Further consideration of the agenda was proceeded with on the 16th instant.

Mr. H. J. Allen subsequently moved the following amendment, which was also before the meeting:—

That the following Committee be appointed to report on the Draft Regulations relating to (1) curricula for degrees to be granted by the University; (2) examinations for those degrees, and (3) such other matters connected therewith as have not been already dealt with in the Regulations already passed by the Senate, and that with regard to the details of the curricula the Committee do co-operate with the Boards of Studies:—The Hon'ble Dr. Bourne, the Rev. Dr. Miller, Mr. H. J. Bhaba, Mr. J. Cook, Mr. J. A. Yates, the Rev. Father Sewell, Mr. Mark Hunter, the Rev. E. M. Macphail, Mr. R. L. Jones, Dr. A. Bishop, Mr. J. O. Tait, Mr. H. S. Duncan, the Rev. W. Skinner, Mr. E. W. Middlemass, the Rev. Geo. Pittendrigh, Mr. V. Krishnaaswamy Iyer, the Hon'ble Mr. P. S. Sivaswamy Iyer, the Hon'ble Mr. V. C. Desika Chariar, Mr. Runga Chariar and Sir S. Subramania Iyer.

The Rev. Dr. Miller said that there did not seem to be any opposition between his own proposition and the amendment of Mr. Allen. If his own proposition was carried, he intended to move for the appointment of another Committee exactly on the same lines as that of Mr. Allen. The business of the Senate had got into such a tangled condition that he would like to agree to anything which would conduce to a more satisfactory state of affairs.

The Hon'ble Dr. Bourne pointed out that Mr. Allen's amendment was to enlarge the Committee of Dr. Miller and to extend its scope, and, there-

fore, it appeared to him it was a proper amendment.

Dr. Miller said that his motion referred to certain proposals on page 25 of the agenda paper. Mr. Allen's amendment did not in any way refer to those proposals. It, therefore, seemed to him that the motion and the amendment referred to two quite different things.

The Vice-Chancellor ruled that Mr. Allen's amendment was in order, though it was wider in its scope than the Resolution sought to amend.

The Rev. Dr. Wolfe said that the proposals on page 25 of the agenda paper referred to three separate and definite things: (1) to the insufficiency of the Matriculation Examination, (2) to the so called Second Grade Colleges, and (3) certain courses for the B. A. He failed to see how Mr. Allen's amendment referred to those three things. Those were the three definite proposals which had been discussed at great length and referred to again and again. They were referred to in Dr. Miller's proposition, but not in Mr. Allen's.

The Hon'ble Dr. Bourne said that he had intended to bring forward an amendment like that of Mr. Allen. The difficulty seemed to be with regard to the proposals which he had made in a tentative spirit for the purpose of eliciting discussion. They had had a great deal of discussion, and he was perfectly prepared to modify some of his own views. He would take the opportunity of saying that the views he had put forward were his own views. One of the leading papers had, notwithstanding his assurance to the Senate and to the public that they were his own private views, stated that they were the views of the Government put forward under instructions from Government. He said that this was entirely false. He was not aware that Government had any views on the subject. He was quite sure that they had not come to any conclusion on any of those matters and were perfectly willing to listen to all the arguments which were put forward. The difficulty seemed to be that the proposals that he had made were too general. He gathered from the criticisms made, both in and out of the Senate, that they dealt not only with the things that he did propose, but with other matters which he did not propose, and it seemed to him that a number of people failed to understand them altogether and a large number failed to grasp the potentiality of the proposals. It would be a waste of time if either a Committee or the Senate were asked to discuss the fundamental generalities in a general form any further. What was now wanted was to show how it might be possible, in the light of the views that had been put forward, to alter

the courses of study or examinations if necessary and how any such scheme when prepared would actually work. Those were mere general propositions, and if they had some suggestions on some general propositions on a working basis, they would actually make some progress with the business on hand. He thought it would be possible, as Dr. Miller had apparently also thought, to settle general propositions in the abstract, but he was convinced that it was not possible, and until they had in a more concrete form examples of detail they would be unable to deal with them. He did not see any other possible way out of the present position than that suggested by Mr. Allen. In dealing with generalities such as the possible introduction of an Honours Course, he saw now that their University could not embark upon a system of Honours Courses in any general way. An Honours Course must differ for every subject. There were some subjects where the best plan for a student would be to take the course up to the B.A. standard and then build upon that standard. In certain other subjects, if students were willing to devote time and money for the pursuit, would be very much better for them to begin on a broader basis, in fact, the course should be of a different kind. It seemed to him that the Committee proposed should consist of men of different branches of study. He supported Mr. Allen's amendment.

Dr. Miller said that he very much agreed with what Dr. Bourne said about the Honours Courses. The main point was this. He could not see how it was possible to lay down a curriculum before they knew one or two general things, and the latter could not be known until they had the School Final Examination in some shape or form. Everything seemed to depend very largely on that. The proposals on page 25 contained (1) that the Matriculation Examination should be done away with. He was in favour of that, provided they knew that the School Final Examination would be of such a kind as to healthily and usefully take its place. Then again it was suggested that the F.A. should be abolished and that another examination called Matriculation should take its place at the end of the first year. He did not see how it would be possible to lay down a curriculum until they knew whether or not that suggestion was to be adopted. So it was with regard to the B.A. course. As Dr. Bourne very properly said it would be probably a great waste of time if the Committee laid down a curriculum for the Honours Course and the Senate decided there should be no Honours Course. The only way to get at the matter was to form a general

basis for their scheme and then to work out the details. He did not think it was possible to make a general basis until they knew a great deal more about the School Final Examination and also got the benefit of the report on the inspection of affiliated Colleges. He felt certain that if a Committee went into all sorts of details without knowing what the ground work of the plan was to be, it would result in nothing practical. The practical course was first to lay down the ground plan and then to fill it in. If Mr. Allen's Committee were to suggest improvements in the existing course without bringing in, by any sort of side wind, a revolutionary change in the existing conditions, he would entirely approve of the course. If Mr. Allen's Committee was appointed with vague general instructions, he ventured to predict that a large amount of time would have to be spent. General principles and details ought not to be mixed together but kept separate. There were various reasons why they should be kept separate. For instance it was unfortunate that there were a number of proposals laid before the Senate and the public without anybody to defend them. Dr. Bourne had most properly told the Senate that the series of Resolutions on page 25 were not his. But the public had got it into its head that they were his (Dr. Bourne—I said some are mine). As it was, they had been tumbled before the public without anybody to defend them, except some of them for which Dr. Bourne had stood sponsor. Dr. Bourne had told them that he saw the necessity for some proposals being modified in some degree. He (speaker) thought it was very important that they should carry the public with them. He thought it was a great mistake to think that the educated public in Southern India were in any way antagonistic to University Reform. There might be some in the Senate and probably more outside it who were ready to regard him as an opponent of University Reform simply because he thought that the reform should be gradual and not revolutionary. He was a strong advocate of distinct reform in the whole system of the University, and he was quite prepared to advocate certain proposals which were by no means revolutionary. He believed that the general public would welcome reform, provided it was brought forward in a considerate way and not so as to result in a fundamental upsetting of arrangements which were no doubt defective, but which had been working well so far. He urged in conclusion that he should first settle the ground-plan of what they were to do and then a Committee like Mr. Allen's might work out the details separately.

Mr. Allen's amendment was then put to the meeting and carried first as an amendment and then as a substantive proposition. The following additions were then made to the Committee:—Mr. H. J. Allen; Mr. P. T. Sreenivasa Iyengar; the Rev. J. Cooling; Dr. C. Mitchell and the Rev. J. Russell.

Mr. H. J. Allen next proposed that the Senate do go into Committee in order to frame Regulations relating to the affiliation of Colleges and Rules applicable to the affiliation of Colleges.

Dr. Mitchell seconded the motion.

Dr. Miller thought it would be wiser to appoint a small Committee for the purpose.

The Rev. G. Pittendrigh said that there was no use in the Senate going into Committee without the Report on the affiliated Colleges being placed before it.

Dr. Bourne said that they should decide the question soon and frame the Regulations. The Report on the affiliated Colleges would shortly be in the hands of the Syndicate to be dealt with as the Syndicate thought fit.

Mr. Allen's motion was put to the meeting and lost.

The meeting then terminated.

A MEETING AT SALEM.

A Public Meeting was held in the Salem College Hall, on Thursday, the 14th instant, to consider the changes proposed in the Regulations of the Madras University, when the following resolutions were passed, Dewan Bahadur S. Gopalachariar, B.A., B.L., being in the Chair:—

I. (a) That, in the opinion of this meeting, the changes with regard to the Examinations in Arts, proposed in the Draft Regulations are revolutionary in character and inadvisable.

(b) Higher education ought to spread among the people to secure social, moral and material progress.

(c) It is not only undesirable but positively disastrous to restrict artificially the number of youths seeking University education, which would be the effect of the changes proposed.

II. That, in the opinion of this meeting, the Matriculation or the Entrance Examination of the University should be absolutely independent of the proposed School Final Examination for the reason that their aims and objects are incompatible.

(a) The School Final Examination is intended to be a test of the attainments of students who

are entering on the practical business of life, and the Matriculation Examination, of students who are beginning a course of liberal studies. The curriculum adapted for the former will not be the most suitable introduction to the latter.

(b) The School Final Examination, being a test of fitness for the lower grades of Government service, will probably embrace studies of a practical nature and not necessarily those best calculated to develop intellect and prepare youths for a course of College studies.

(c) The School Final Examination will be organised and conducted by the Educational Department and will be liable from time to time to alterations purely in the interest of the needs of the inferior grades of public service.

III. That, in the opinion of this meeting, the standard of the Matriculation Examination of this University is sufficiently high, and such defects as may be noticed in the training and attainments of the successful students may be remedied:

(1) by a modification of the curriculum of studies;

(2) by greater regard being paid to the recruitment, pay and prospects of the teaching staff, especially the under masters, who are now too ill-paid and inefficient, under whose training students acquire faulty habits, which it is afterwards difficult to eradicate; and

(3) by altering the nature of questions set at the University Examinations in such a way as to discourage cramming.

IV. That the meeting, entirely concurring in the view of the University Commission of 1902, as expressed in para. 158 of its Report, that it is not expedient to lengthen the school course by one year (as is practically proposed to be effected by instituting the so-called pre-collegiate course) and correspondingly shorten the College Course, is of opinion, that the Matriculation Examination should be held as at present at the close of the High School Course; thus giving effect to the recommendation of the Commission by retaining the present system.

V. (a) That, in the opinion of this meeting, pupils seeking admission into the University will be put to considerable inconvenience and annoyance by being forced to secure provisional admission into a College before appearing for the Matriculation; and, therefore, they should be allowed to appear for the same from High Schools, without any such restriction, and that pass lists as well as failure lists should be published as at present.

(b) No necessity has been shown for the proposed procedure, which will only have the undesirable effect of restricting the number of pupils gaining admission into the University:—

(1) by the refusal of a College to admit on the score of want of accommodation, &c.

(2) by the possible withholding of the Syndicate's permission required under Draft Regulation II(d).

(c) Colleges will have no ground to grade them in their decision as to the admission or rejection of candidates, when they do not know which or how many of the applicants will pass or be selected by the Syndicate for admission into the College after passing?

VI. (a) That in the opinion of this meeting, the absence of a minimum age-limit for admission to the Matriculation Examination has not resulted in the forcing of immature youths in any large numbers; the necessities of the situation—the time required to pass through the ordinary course prescribed at present (five years in the Primary and six years in the Secondary Course)—already imposes a sufficiently high age-limit on pupils of ordinary capacities; and, therefore, an inviolable age-limit is unnecessary. If the Senate, however, will still insist on fixing a minimum age-limit, this meeting would recommend, having due regard to the educational requirements, facilities and other circumstances of this country, 14 as the safest limit.

(b) That this meeting further calls the attention of the Senate to the opinion of the Universities Commission of 1902, contained in para. 184 of its Report, that the minimum limit should be 15, which this meeting considers as too high.

(c) That, in the opinion of this meeting any hard and fast rule as to a minimum age-limit and certainly a higher limit than 14, will repress talented students and prevent them from going to foreign countries and studying for such examinations as the Civil Service, etc., as the several Regulations in force in those countries, as to the age-limit for admission to courses of study and examinations, will not only place the natives of this country at considerable disadvantage but even debar them.

VII. (a) That, in the opinion of this meeting, Second Grade Colleges, with a two years' course of collegiate study, have been doing good work, and hence these institutions with a gradual increase in their number are, in the present conditions of this country, absolutely essential for the spread of higher education.

(b) That this meeting is further of opinion that, if the existing Second Grade Colleges are

limited to a year's course of instruction as proposed, their utility will be considerably diminished and Higher Education retarded for the following reasons:—

(1) Students would then be taken away from home influence at an earlier age than at present, which is very undesirable.

(2) The removal of students to distant places for a longer period than two years would involve additional expenditure and thereby make higher education further prohibitive for many a family of limited means.

(3) First Grade Colleges would be incapable of accommodating all the students that will then be driven to seek admission therein.

(c) That above all, in the opinion of this meeting, Second Grade Colleges have greater facilities for moulding the character of the students by closer supervision and by the personal influence of the Professors, than First Grade Colleges, whose number is necessarily extremely limited, and will continue so far many a long year in this country, owing to the costliness of their establishment and maintenance and other causes, and in which on account of the large and unwieldy size of the classes, the Professors cannot possibly have an intimate acquaintance with individual students.

(d) That, in this connection, this meeting invites the attention of the Senate to the emphatic opinion expressed by the Government of India regarding Second Grade Colleges, in its letter of March, 1902, to the Provincial Governments on the Report of the University Commission.

VIII. That, in the opinion of this meeting the First Examination in Arts should be retained for the following reasons:—

(1) It is an efficient method of guiding and testing general education, before entering on a more specialised course.

(2) It is a better preparation than a High School course and a better test of fitness than the Matriculation, for entering upon certain professional studies, such as Law, Medicine, Engineering, Teaching, etc.

(3) It is a very useful test of a standard of higher culture for such students as are prevented by poverty or other causes from proceeding to the degree, and it is by no means desirable to deprive poor but eager and intelligent students of the chance of obtaining such education their means and opportunities permit.

(4) The College course between the Entrance Examination and the Examination for the degree

of Bachelor of Arts, without some such intermediate examination as this, would be too long and wearisome and runs the risk of encouraging negligence and idleness during a considerable part of the period embraced by the course.

IX. That, in the opinion of this meeting, it has not been shown that, under existing conditions, transfers from one College to another at the end of a term, are either too frequent or take place for other than sufficient and proper reasons, and, therefore, there should be no restriction or such transfers.

X. (a) That, in the opinion of this meeting, the present course of study, prescribed for the Examination for the degree of Master of Arts serves efficiently as the Honours Course, and, therefore, no necessity has been shown for introducing a new and prolonged course of study for the Honours B.A. Degree Examination.

(b) That this meeting is of opinion that the present system of one course and one examination in compartments for the B.A. Degree is the best.

XI. That the Chairman be hereby authorised and requested to communicate these Resolutions with a suitable letter to the Senate, and the Committee of the Senate to be appointed to report on the proposed changes.

A MEETING AT NAMAKAL

A Public Meeting was held at Namakal on the 16th instant, under the presidency of Mr. P. Narayana Chariyar, M.A., B.L., at which the following Resolutions were passed:—

I. That this meeting submits that the introduction of the proposed changes at the present stage of the country's progress is inadvisable, and would be attended with serious results regarding the progress of Education.

II. That, in the opinion of this meeting, Higher Education ought to spread among the people to secure social, moral and material progress, and that it is not only undesirable but positively disastrous to artificially restrict the number seeking the Higher Education, which would be the effect of the changes proposed.

III. That the Matriculation Examination of the University should be entirely independent of the School Final Examination, for the reason that a course of studies suited to the liberal culture of the former is quite different from that required for the latter, apparently intended to meet the ends of the lower grades of public service.

IV. That the Matriculation Examination, as it is, is sound enough in principle, that the inefficiency of the present Matriculates by way of inaccuracy and want of attention to detail is due to unsoundness in the Lower Secondary and Primary Courses, to want of encouragement by the teaching profession and over-work thrown on higher teachers, and that, by a slight modification of the curriculum and selection of suitable Examiners, the defects may be remedied.

V. That this meeting is of opinion that the Matriculation Course should not be lengthened at the expense of the College course, as under the changes proposed, but that the present system be retained.

VI. That this meeting is of opinion that requiring pupils to secure provisional admission into a College before appearing for the Matriculation Examination would be productive of great hardship, and ought to be dispensed with; and that the results of the Examination be published as at present.

VII. That this meeting is of opinion that no minimum age-limit is called for, as the time required to go through the Primary and Secondary Courses, at present, of itself secures the purpose will and that, if there should be any age-limit at all, anything above 14 would impose artificial checks on brilliant students in this country, and prevent them from competing, on favourable terms, for the competitive examinations of other countries qualifying them for higher grades of public service.

VIII. That, in the opinion of this meeting, the abolition of Second Grade Colleges or the reduction, to a year's course, of the period spent in them would check the spread of the Higher Education in this country by an undesirable weakening of the home influence at too early an age and for a longer period than at present, which would be the inevitable result of students being forced to attend distant First Grade Colleges, not to speak of the want of accommodation in the First Grade Colleges themselves, for all the students seeking admission; and of the necessarily weaker personal influence and supervision of Professors in moulding the character of students of an unwieldy class, that the justification for the existence of Second Grade Colleges has been recognised in the Government of India Resolution on Education.

IX. That, in the opinion of this meeting, the retention of the F.A. Examination is imperative as it is a better standard, preparatory to the B.A. Course, than the Matriculation Examination on the one hand, and as it is less specialised than the B.A. Examination on the other hand, that

students prevented by poverty or other causes from proceeding to the B. A. find it a useful test of a standard of Higher Education useful in Teaching, Law, Engineering and Medicine, and that, therefore, its abolition would make the Arts' Course too tedious.

X. That, in the opinion of this meeting, parents are best left free to send their sons from one College to another by reason of their own transfer or any other thing they think proper there being now few unnecessary changes calling for an alteration.

XI. That a separate Honours' Course is unnecessary, a pass in the first class or the highest rank of the B. A. being at present enough.

XII. That, if a separate Honours Course be considered necessary, facilities for the M. A. course may be afforded in such a manner that the object of the legislature promoting depth is obtained by special Lectures, Libraries, Laboratories, etc., and the M. A. Course be considered the Honours Course.

XIII. That the Chairman be hereby authorised and requested to communicate these Resolutions with a suitable letter to the Senate, the Syndicate and the Sub Committee of the Senate appointed for reporting on the proposed changes.

BENGAL.

Four Bengali students have been selected to proceed to America to study Agriculture in the Cornwall Agricultural College. Mr. G. C. Sen and Mr. T. K. Das Gupta, pupils of the Association for the Advancement of the Scientific and Industrial Education of Indians, have left to study, the former, dyeing at Leeds, the latter, Mechanical Engineering at Birmingham.

The Committee on Rural Schools have recommended—(1) that there should be everywhere a simple rural course suited to the needs of the agricultural pupils; (2) that wherever the demand made itself felt there should be a supplementary course equal to the urban primary school when the second course as well as the first demanded that the two should co-exist in the same lower primary schools. Stress is laid on the inclusion of some knowledge of sanitation, and it is suggested that wherever feasible land should be attached to these lower primary schools and used for the purpose of encouraging manual labour. The Committee outlined the kind of training establishments which should be formed for this purpose.

It has been settled that a Technical Institute in connection with the National University will be opened at Calcutta next month, with an endowment assuring an annual income of Rs. 20,000.

The members of the Simla Union Library have resolved to establish a Public Institute at Simla, as a memorial to Lord Curzon. With His Excellency's permission, which has very kindly been given the Institution will be called *The Curzon Institute Simla*. The objects of the Institute are to provide a suitable place for social gatherings and recreation with a decent library and reading room within the reach of the educated classes of all communities at Simla.

An influential Committee, representing all communities, has been formed to carry out the proposed scheme.

A Resolution of the Government of India in the Home Department is published upon the subject of introducing a uniformity of treatment in the spelling and arrangement of Indian personal names in official publications. It details the steps which have been taken from time to time in this direction, and the difficulties that have been encountered, and tells how some time ago the matter was referred to Local Governments for the preparation of a list of authoritatively written names as used in the various provinces. The Resolution goes on to say that these complete lists have been received and examined by the Government of India, and that it is now possible to issue general orders upon the subject, the final decision having been greatly facilitated by the careful manner in which the lists have been prepared, especially in Bengal, where the question was considered by a special committee, of which the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Mukherji was a member, also in Madras and the United Provinces. The resolution then discusses the general principles adopted in drawing up the lists. One of the most important of these principles has been not to insist upon absolute uniformity, but to reduce the variant forms in the case of each name as much as possible without conflicting sharply with popular usage. The Resolution instructs Local Governments to adopt the spelling as far as practicable in official publications, and points out that it is highly desirable that incorrect, variable and debased spelling should disappear from written usage in favour of accurate and consistent forms. It also suggests that the high Judicial authorities should co-operate, and expresses the hope that the example of a system of spelling

calculated to preserve the historical character, and association of Indian personal names will, in course of time, commend itself to the feelings of the people of India generally.

Out of the collection of books and MSS. made by Lieutenant-Colonel Waddell during the recent Mission into Tibet, the Government of India have been able to make a generous presentation to the Cambridge University Library of seventy-one numbers, twenty-three of which are in Manuscript and forty-eight printed from blocks. They have also presented the University museum of Archaeology and Etymology with a number of picture scrolls.

The following subject has been selected for Babu Brajraj Mohan Dutt's Prize Essay of Rs. 45 (forty-five) for the year 1904-1905:—

"Woman's place in a Bengali home."

The conditions for the award of the prize are:—

(1) That the competition be open to all educated women, being natives of Bengal including the districts which now form part of the New Province without regard to age.

(2) That the prize be given for an essay, to be written in either Bengali or Sanskrit.

(3) That the essays be sent to the Central Text-book Committee for adjudication within six months of the date of advertisement.

(4) That each essay be accompanied by the written declaration of the husband, parent or guardian of the competitor that to the best of his belief she has received no assistance of any kind, direct or indirect, in writing the essay.

PUNJAB.

Sir Lewis Tupper has been re-appointed Vice-Chancellor of the Punjab University, vice Mr. Gordon Walker, who has resigned.

At a meeting of the Lucknow Committee for the purpose of collecting subscriptions towards the Medical College Memorial, a sum of Rs. 86,000 was subscribed, bringing the fund up to Rs. 8 lakhs.

The long-talked-of Agricultural College in Cawnpore is about to become a reality. There is to be a European Principal assisted by experts,

chemists, botanists, entomologists, etc. The results expected from the proposed college are the training of candidates for the Government Revenue Service, and for the staff of the Agricultural Department. At the same time a sound technical education will be given to fit persons to become land agents. The whole scheme will be a development of the existing Cawnpore Agricultural School.

The Maharaja of Bolanpur has offered the handsome donation of Rs. 3,00,000 towards the building of Canning College, Lucknow, which is removing to a new site, the old buildings having become inadequate for the growing requirements of the institution.

On the recommendation of the Dean of the Science Faculty it has been decided by the Syndicate of the Punjab University to apply to the University of Cambridge for the extension of the privileges of affiliation to graduates of the Punjab who have passed the Intermediate examination of the Science Faculty and the examination for the degree of Bachelor of Science. In 1895 when the present affiliation rules with Cambridge were formulated, no students were reading for the degree of Bachelor of Science, and the wording of the rules appeared to contemplate the possibility of the Intermediate and Bachelor examinations not including a classical language, whereas in the Arts Faculty a classical language was compulsory for the Intermediate examination. It has been further decided to inquire of the University of Cambridge whether in case this application be granted, it would be possible for students who have not passed in a classical language in any University examination to enjoy the privileges of affiliation, provided they passed within a certain limit of time some examination in a classical language recognised by the University of Cambridge.

THE UNITED PROVINCES.

A sum of over seven lakhs has been subscribed to the Medical College to commemorate the visit of Their Royal Highnesses to the United Provinces. The project has met with liberal support, and it is hoped to obtain the remaining three lakhs required in time to enable Sir James La Touche to ask the Prince to lay the foundation-stone with the financial position of the College already assured.

Foreign Notes.

THE educational *entente cordiale* between America and Germany is manifested afresh in a mutual establishment of professorships. A "Theodore Roosevelt, Professorship of American History and Institutions in the University of Berlin," has been endowed by a gift of 50,000 dollars by Mr. James Speyer, of New York. The Trustees of Columbia University have nominated Prof. J. W. Burgess, Professor of Political Science and Constitutional Law, and Dean of the Faculty of Political Science, to fill the post (with summer excursions to other German Universities) and the Prussian Ministry of Education will no doubt appoint him in due course. On the other hand, the German Government will establish at Columbia University a Professorship of German History and Institutions under similar conditions. The idea of such an academic interchange appears to be an inspiration of the German Kaiser's. As President Butler says: "What is really needed is the careful, systematic, and scientific presentation of the culture of the one people to students of the other in the language that the students most fully understand." The reception of the lectures of Prof. Peabody in Berlin, delivered in English, is not encouraging; the students are reported to have pronounced that they knew, or might have known, the subject apart from the Professor's mission. We should have fancied they were right. However President Butler is "not without hope that before long Columbia University will be put in a position to make similar arrangements with the University of Paris and with an English University, possibly the University of London." How the University of London is to get funds to respond we do not know; it has certainly many purposes very much more urgent.

A course of lectures on Japanese education is the latest luxury promised by London University. The lectures will be delivered next summer by Mr. Masatake Saywayanagi, an official in the Japanese Education Department; and Mr. J. Martin White will defray the cost.

ACCORDING to the Japan Women's University Calendar for 1904-5 there are three departments in the University—(1) Domestic Science; (2) Japanese Literature; and (3) English Literature. The syllabus of (1) includes ethics (theoretical and practical), economics, the constitution and the civil code, hygiene, physiology, and applied domestic economy; while the students are exhorted

in a presidential address to be "obedient and obliging towards their instructors and superiors, and to make themselves assisting and affectionate sisters each towards the other." They are also enjoined to be perfectly orderly in their conduct, and whilst striving always to be active yet to remain "graceful and amiable in all that they say and do."

MR. GOLLANCZ has resigned the University Lectureship in English at Cambridge.

MR. R. B. HALDANE, K. C., M. P., LL.D., &c., has been elected Lord Rector of the University of Edinburgh, by 877 votes against 847; Mr. H. H. Asquith, K. C., M. P., D.C.L., &c., Lord Rector of the University of Glasgow, by 866 votes against 655; and Sir Frederick Trevelyan, Bart., F.R.C.S., LL.D., &c., Lord Rector of the University of Aberdeen, by 390 votes against 163.

PROF. G. H. DARWIN, F.R.S., President of the British Association, has been made a K.C.B.

SIR RICHARD JEBB, whose death we regret to announce, has long been regarded as the Prince of English Græcians, the Porson of our day and something more. His editions of the *Ajias* and *Electra* of Sophocles may be said to have inaugurated a new era in English commentaries on the Greek classics, combining as they did a profound knowledge of the Greek drama, its structure and versification, with a felicitous exactness in the English renderings. These were followed twenty years later by an edition of Sophocles in seven volumes, with a translation. It will be long before this monumental work is superseded. As a Greek and Latin stylist the late Sir Richard Jebb had few equals, and it has been said of his Latin prose that it might have passed muster with an educated Roman as the work of a contemporary of Cicero or Sallust. Probably the Latin speeches which he delivered in his capacity of Public Orator at Cambridge were among the best productions of their kind. Since 1881 he has been in politics but made no great mark in the House of Commons, though he took a prominent part in urging upon the easily persuaded ex-Premier the claims of the Church elementary schools.

The Educational Review.

We are sorry to have to say it but we must say that if the Council of Native Education, Madras, expects people to take it seriously it must manage its affairs better than it has done. Constituted as it is, surely, those responsible for the calling together of the Conference must have seen to its turning out less of a fiasco than it did. We learn that the only part of the programme that did come off was that entrusted to a schoolmaster. Many of the schoolmasters probably looked forward with eagerness to listening to words of encouragement and enlightenment on matters relating to their work, from non-educational dignitaries of rank and influence. They must have felt grievously disappointed. One gentleman, a schoolmaster, voiced the feelings of the men assembled at Pachaiyappa's, when he said that the names of the members made him expect something better than that he was invited to witness. Properly constituted by the strengthening of the schoolmaster element, and properly managed, the Council has plenty of useful work to do. As things are at present it is composed mostly of men whose interest in education is confined only to its political aspect. The Council must be more of a real working body than it is. We do not want to say more but we have said enough to show that there is considerable room for improvement in the way in which its affairs are conducted.

Some useful work was done at the meetings of the Madras Senate held on the 15th and 16th instant. The new regulations were approved with slight verbal alterations and in place of the

Committee recommended by Dr. Miller, a larger committee more fully representative of colleges and studies was appointed to revise the curricula and examinations and to frame regulations in connection with these. Dr. Miller had no objection to the appointment of the larger committee and he only desired that the new changes must be made in the light of the recommendations to be put forward by the inspection of Colleges Commission and in the light also of the scheme about the School Final to be put forward by the Government. There must have been no reasonable objection to such a thing being done and that is what the larger committee may be expected to do. But the proposer of the larger committee evidently meant otherwise. After the Senate had agreed to his scheme he proposed that the Senate should go into Committee to consider the draft rules about the affiliation of colleges. If the Senate had agreed to the proposal it would have committed itself to doing a preposterous thing. If the inspection of Colleges Commission had any thing pertinent to say on the matter it was surely worth the while of the Senate to wait for the report on the colleges. The Senate showed wisdom in not rejecting the proposal to consider immediately the affiliation rules.

We have heard complaints of the misprints and errors in the University Examination papers.

The B.A. and Matriculation Latin, the Matriculation Chemistry, Hindustani Translation, the F.A. Trigonometry, the F.L. Roman Law, the B.A. English: the papers on the above subjects have been criticised in this connection and the errors in some cases were of a seriously misleading nature. The Chairmen of the Boards of Examiners must surely pay more attention to the correction of the proofs than they seem to do. We have

[Dec. 1905.]

criticisms of slipshod work on the part of the candidates but ought not examiners to set a better example? The printers' devils have a great deal to answer for, but are they not too easily credited with errors not their own?

Replying to a memorial from certain residents in Benfai, praying for the compulsory introduction of moral training in schools, the Government of India justly pointed out that the parents had the moral training of their children largely in their own hands and that they could not be absolved of this responsibility. As regards the other factors influencing the character of school-boys, care was taken by Government to make them more and more potent. Higher standard of character and capacity is insisted on in the appointment of teachers. The courses of studies are so arranged as to bring out the best that is in the students. The school environments are being made healthier and purer. As a corrective to the notion that would credit the teacher as a character-builder, the Government of India did well in drawing attention to agencies other than scholastic that help to form the character of boys.

In this connection we will quote some very pertinent remarks on the subject from Mr. Wells' *Anticipation*: "The windy pretences of forming character, supplying moral training and so forth, under which the educationist of to-day conceals the fact that he is incapable of his proper task of training, developing and equipping the mind, will no longer be made by the teacher. The teacher will teach and confine his moral training, beyond enforcing the truth and discipline, to the exhibition of a capable person doing his duty as well as it can be done. He will

know that his utmost province is only a part of the educational process, that equally important educational influences are the home and the world of thought about the pupil and himself." Still the teacher can do a great deal in his own humble sphere. As the same author says elsewhere, "a teacher who is punctual, persistent, just, who tells the truth and insists upon the truth, who is truthful not merely technically, but in a constant search for exact expression, whose own share of the school-work is faultlessly done, who is tolerant to effort and a tireless helper, who is obviously more interested in serious work than in puerile games, will beget essential manliness in every boy he teaches."

It would perhaps be an exaggeration to claim that the Conference of Educationists at Royapettah on the 13th and 14th instant was a great success, if we judge it by the numbers that attended or by the level of the discussion. Nevertheless its proceedings are entitled to considerable weight because of the earnestness which marked them and because of the importance of the men that took part in them. The Rev. Dr. Miller is a host in himself and would have conferred distinction on any assembly; but there were besides him Dr. Wolf and Messrs. Lepper, Barlow, Lazarna, Srinivasa Aiyangar, Krishnaswami Aiyar, Santanarama Aiyangar, and others, from the mofussil. The city of Madras contributed to the gathering Messrs. Cooling Barrow, Hanumanta Rao and the inevitable (and shall we add, loyal?) Teachers' Guild contingent. Messrs. Mayhew and Anantanarayana Aiyar represented the zeal and clericalness of the Department, if not also its experience. The Exhibition was remarkable chiefly by reason of the Pachai-

Dec. 1905.]

yappa's College Show of apparatus for a special method of teaching English which it has been trying for sometime; but it is much to be pitied that there was no member of the staff to explain the exhibits to visitors, for certainly the exhibits were such as could not have conveyed by themselves an adequate idea of the method which they illustrated.

Perhaps the most important part of the work of the Conference was the resolution which it adopted unanimously on the subject of a Provident Fund for Teachers. On this subject we have written more than once. Now it will be enough to say that, in our opinion the Conference cannot do better than repeat this resolution year after year until something is done to make the old age of teachers tolerable. There is reason to believe that our Director has taken the subject into his earnest consideration; and it is opportune that the teachers assembled in Conference have strengthened his hands in case he should resolve to address Government, Managers, or both on this vital question.

It would have been strange if the subject of University Reform had not been included in the programme of the Conference. Nobody could have pleaded more powerfully than Mr. Lepper did for a considerable instalment of reform, though it must be said that his taste for prolonged metaphors, acquired, perhaps by his stay in India, was rather an encumbrance than a help in his presentment of a case fairly familiar to the audience in all its aspects. His frequent references to the 'enemies' of reform drew a remonstrance from Dr. Wolf who contended that there were none such; while any impartial spectator must have felt that there was something

seriously wrong with the proposed reforms if they alarmed two such veterans as Dr. Miller and Mr. Barrow, whose experiences of education differ in almost every respect except that of duration. The discussion, which scarcely touched the main issues, was chiefly valuable as it gave expression to a vague feeling of dissatisfaction with the quality of the modern professor, who after all has it in him to make or mar the educational system. Mr. Lepper scored a point when he got the Conference to pass a resolution embodying a desire for greater co-operation among colleges so as to make the lectures in any one of them available to the alumni of the others,—a step which must make for greater economy of effort and therefore for greater efficiency at least in the higher and more specialised branches of learning.

Mr. P. T. Srinivasa Aiyangar contributed a body of thoughtful and practicable suggestions on the co-ordination of the three different stages of our educational system, primary, secondary, and collegiate. His main contention was that each of these stages should be a complete whole by itself and not designed for the sole purpose of leading up ladder-wise to the next higher stage, though facilities should be provided for the transfer of the more promising material at convenient points from stage to stage. The emblem of three cones, under which he conveyed his teaching and which received the special commendation of Dr. Miller, was a convenient and brief, if not altogether novel, formula and must have helped the audience to fix their ideas. A smaller, but not less considerable point in his paper was a plea for the vernaculars being the sole media of instruction in the primary and lower secondary classes, both

[Dec. 1905.]

of which Mr. Gooding and he agreed to embrace under the single name of elementary instruction. The Review had referred to this topic more than once. The resolution adopted by the Conference on this matter will, it is hoped, find favour with managers and fix the waverers among them on the side of progress.

The sensation of the Conference was reserved to the end. Mr. Matriculation Examiners. Ramanujachari was the unwitting, and as it afterwards proved, the penitent cause of a vigorous onslaught on the Examiners for our Matriculation. In his paper on our Secondary Curriculum he alluded to the work of examiners in a tone of mild disapproval, but could not have dreamed that in doing so he was, to use a famous phrase, smoking near a gunpowder magazine. Up rose Rev. Lazarus of Vizagapatam and denounced the examiners in impassioned language. The audience applauded him to the echo and would not allow him to resume his seat until he had fairly spent himself. One or two other speakers followed in a similar vein and seemed likewise to get the approbation of the Conference. Examiners, on the other hand, found no mean champions in Messrs. Pollard and Lepper who, being on the defensive and using calm language, were listened to with respect, if not altogether with sympathy. In truth, however, Mr. Lazarus went much farther than facts would allow him, and practically gave himself away when he complained against examiners in Mathematics as setting up too severe a standard. We are the more sorry for this indiscriminate attack, because in the first place it might take away from the value of the criticism which has been made, in our opinion legitimately, on the work of Science examiners, and because in the second place even Science examiners

have during the present year, thanks to a change in their personnel for which we ventured to ask in an earlier number, manifested a juster appreciation of the standard of their examinees than in previous years.

At the same time we cannot let the occasion pass without pointing an obvious moral. Mr. Lazarus, by his excess of warmth, gave evidence of a feeling of soreness against examiners which unfortunately is shared by a large body of teachers. This most undesirable feeling has found expression in our columns. Some of our contributors employed language which perhaps a second judge would have avoided, but which certainly did not exceed the liberty allowed to public criticism or the vehemence natural to those that felt themselves wronged. But we have been blamed by those who ought to have known better for undermining the prestige of the University because forsooth we led the public, particularly the students, to believe that their examiners were not perfect. As if the University were so bound up and identified with examiners that a criticism of the latter meant disloyalty to the former! As if indeed there were greater need of students believing in the infallibility of examiners than of their believing in the character of teachers who were at about the same time freely censured not only for inefficiency, but for the practice and inculcation of dishonesty! But it is time we forgot these unpleasant episodes. The injury done to teachers has been atoned, and we are on the eve, let us hope, of a more intimate association of high school teachers with the Matriculation examiners. Dr. Miller's proposal for a separate Matriculation Board was thrown out; but his defeat was a moral victory, and, we make no doubt, presages a real victory at no distant time.

[Dec. 1905.]

The Bengal papers, including the impartial and broad-minded *Statesman*, write strongly against the appointment of a member of the Civil Service as Director of Public Instruction. Objection is taken to the Government's decision on two grounds: first, that the interests of education must in the end suffer under a head who is looked upon as an interloper by the officers of the Department and cannot therefore command their cordial co-operation; secondly, that it is an injustice to the Department which includes men who are every way qualified for the post, and who have not the same chances of promotion that Civilians have. The former objection is not formidable, as the feeling of irritation natural to those that are superseded will pass away soon, and the logic of accepted facts will prevail in the end. The latter objection is a serious one, and we find the answer made that there is no one in the senior ranks of the Education Department of Bengal who can be entrusted with its administration at a time when it is entering on a new phase of activity and an open mind is needed to guide it. Naturally enough this has been resented by the Oxford and Cambridge men of learning as involving an unfavourable judgment on the body from whom the Professors and Inspectors of the Department are generally drawn. We have no means of judging the merits of the question, but should strongly support the popular view if, as is suspected, the Government wants at the head of the Education Department a person amenable to the rigid discipline of the Civil Service and likely to tighten the hold of the Government on the educational machinery of the land.

In our own Province the opinion of the Indian public; would appear to have under-

gone a change. When Mr. Grigg was appointed Director in preference to Mr. Porter there was a great outcry, it being thought that the popular educationist suffered not for his lack of ability which was of the highest, but for his well-known sympathy with the people and his eager desire to serve them. He himself referred to his supersession in words remarkable for out-spokenness in an Indian official. They were somewhat to this effect: "Fate has been singularly hard upon a man who, made for success in one sphere of work, is translated to another, where, waking or asleep, he must be continually doing harm." Mr. Grigg seemed to fulfil this prognostication by his numerous schemes and excessive zeal. The people cried out for rest after what they looked upon as a period of mischievous activity, and his successor Dr. Duncan with his quiet ways and even temper appeared just the man to let the Department enjoy a spell of peace. Soon, however, people were tired of King Log, and Mr. Grigg's beneficence of purpose and large faith in education were remembered with fond regrets. This posthumous appreciation of Mr. Grigg has gone on increasing with the lapse of time among those who can re-call his regime. The question of appointing a Civilian was never seriously thought of in Madras, and we cannot say definitely how popular opinion will declare itself should it ever assume a living interest. But it is quite probable that in such a contingency a certain section of the people will look forward with equanimity to the advent of a Civilian as head of the Education Department. Our own inclination is distinctly in favour of an educationist being at the head of the Education Department; but as in several other matters we may find ourselves swimming against the main current.

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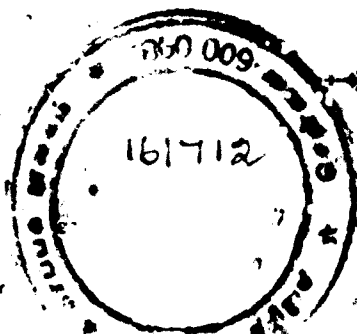
INDEX

PAGE	PAGE
Abolition, the I. S. Examination ... 384	College, the Columbia ... 273
Abolition, the Primary Examination ... 381	Colleges, the M.A. ... 566
Accommodation ... 562	Commemoration, Shakespeare ... 287
Act, the New ... 178	Committees, Visiting and Managing ... 242
Act, the Validation ... 120	Composition, Exercises in ... 418
Adam Smith, E. M. of L. ... 274	Concentration ... 239
Affiliation Rules ... 561	Conference, Coimbatore ... 364, 379
Algebra, Borohardt ... 518	Conference, Educational ... 682
Algebra, by Baker and Bourne ... 42	Conference, the Muhammadan ... 28, 58
Algebraical Groundings ... 419	Congress, National ... 58
Algebraical Problems, Nanjiani ... 42	Convocation, the Bombay ... 149, 173
Ancient Master, the, Coleridge ... 101	Convocation, the Calcutta ... 83, 119
Appeal, a Circular ... 63	Convocation, the Madras ... 196, 238
Appointments, Annual ... 634	Correspondence ... 217, 328
Arithmetic, by Milton ... 102	Correspondence, Foreign Traders' ... 549
Arithmetic, Borohardt ... 880	Council, Imperial ... 89
Arithmetic, by Pichu Aiyangar ... 42	Council, Legislative ... 240
Arithmetic, Clive ... 380	Course, the B.A. ... 60
Arithmetic, Consterdine ... 330	Criticism ... 240
Arithmetic, Macmillan ... 330	December last, Education in ... 58
Arnold ... 472	Degree, the Honour ... 238
Association, Muhammadan ... 238	Deighton's 'Gentlemen of Verona' ... 221
Association, N. I. ... 116	Director, a Civilian ... 685
Babes and Sucklings ... 356	Dutch Undergraduate, the ... 146
Bengal Student ... 569	Educational Conference ... 558, 632
Bernardo ... 572	Educational Ladder, the ... 320
Books of O. L. S. ... 478	Educational Policy, Indian ... 463
British Empire ... 371	Educational Thought, Chaos ... 402
British Isles, the ... 419	Educated, the, American Dudge ... 73
Carnegie ... 340	Education and Character ... 78
Celebration, Empire Day ... 238	Education and "Efficiency" ... 17
Chakravartini ... 473	Education, Bombay ... 136, 380
Chaucer's Humour ... 649	Education, Central Provinces ... 23
Church Case ... 15	Education, Classical ... 652
Class-books of Longmans ... 472	Education, Complaints about ... 635
Coins, the Place of ... 268	Education, Compulsory ... 480
College, Pachaiyappa's ... 188, 596	Education, Elementary ... 454
College, the, Certificates ... 568	Education, Female ... 61, 426
College, the Christian ... 593	

	PAGE		PAGE
Education, Fund	177	French Rhythms: Henri Blochet	625
Education in India	187	Fund, a Provident, for Teachers	683
Education, is English, necessary	8	Fund, the Nagapatam N. H. School	340
Education, Men of Action in	578	Garden, the, That I Love	307
Education, Montaigne on	183, 249	Gandhi, the	580
Education, the Moral, among Muslims	351	Geography, as Nature Study	658
Education, Muhammadan	339	Geography, by Carl Zebden	42
Education, Rural	683	Geography, by Lydd	339
Educational Science	411	Geography, by Haynes	330
Education, the Council of Native	681	Geography, Teaching of	313
Education, the Ladder of	316	Geography, the Globe, Readers	370
Education, the Law, and	215	Geometry: Barnard and Child	42
Education, the, of a Chemist	20	Geometry, Experimental	375
Education, the Organisation of	683	Geometry, Hall and Stevens	42
Education, the Practice of	65, 125, 341	Girls' High Schools	340
Education, the Primary	243	Globe Readers	322
Education, the Scotch University	295, 435, 639	Golden Treasury, by Palgrave	163
Education, the Viceroy on	463	Gokhale and the Viceroy	121
Education, Thoughts on	547	Grammar, English	671
Education, University	503	Grammar, German	623
Emile et Helene, a French Primer	164	Grammar, Greek	636
Empire, Children of the	670	Grammar, by Mary Hyde	418
Empire of India	371	Grammar, Tamil	647
Endowment, Educational	429	Graphs, Easy	419
English Course, Murray	418	Gruy, Poems of	101
English Language, Subramania Iyer	44	Greek Compulsory	139
English Letter	37, 99, 157, 218, 326, 367, 416, 439, 541, 620, 687	Guild, the Madras Teachers	235, 457, 543, 612, 632
English, Manual of, Welinkar	43	Guild, the retiring President of the	286
English Teaching	589	Hallet, the late Col. W. H.	281
Equation, Personal	222	Hartog, W. G.	626
Etymology of the word, "Education"	209	Health, Lessons on	625
Examination, School Final	564	Herbert Spencer, the, Scholarships	176
Examiners, Regulations about	633	High School, the P. Subramaniam	37
Examinerships, Canvassing for	635	History, the Teaching of	234
Example, a Good	360	Hobbes, E. M. of L.	219
Exercises, French	550	Indian Citizen	279
Extract, an important	486	Indian Educational Notes	45, 102, 164, 233, 277, 330, 371, 420, 473, 550, 626, 671
Frederick, Edward	623	Indians, a Conscience Classes for	153
Foreign Notes	53, 113, 172, 236, 284, 336, 376, 425, 479, 557, 631, 680	Indians, Ungrateful	124
Franks, University	55, 62	Indignation rub wild	202
French Course, Primary: Siepmann	164		

	PAGE		PAGE
Information, an Appeal for	10	Oxford: Peel and Michin	670
Instruction in Mysore	482	Paujaub Fracas	180
Kindergarten	16	Paraphrase, the, of Poetry	276
Kindergarten, Criticism of the	654	Paradise Lost, Milton	329
Language, English	340	Pass Course	567
Language, Tamil, a Hand-book of: Pope	163	Payne's Colonie	546
Language, Tamil, a Hand-book of, Part III	471	Pedagogy, Bab Ionian	213
Latin Course, by Marchant and Spencer	164	Pepys, Samuel	624
Laureate Poetry books	471	Picture Arithmetic	471
Learning for learning's sake	59	Plato, the Phaedo of	39
Lessons, Object, a Plea for	383	Prospects, Schoolmaster's	61
Libraries in Japan	358	Psychology: Kishan Singh	162
Libraries, Morley on	25	Readers, Globe	670
Literature, by Fowler	471	Reader, Higher English	670
Literature, Dramatic	272	Reading Books	635
Literature Readers	222	Regulations, the Draft	560
Literature, Tamil	221	Report, an Examiner's	242
Machine Construction	549	Reynold's Method, &c	414
Management	561	Rokeby, Scott: W. E. Hoare	161
Map, the, in the Class-room	584	Rome, History of	670
Mathematics, Considerine	419	Rules, New Educational	290
Mathematics: Stern	419	Saidapet Vacation Classes	180
Matriculation Board	634	Sandev in Madras	340
Matriculation Examiners	684	School Boy, a Public	580
Matriculation Examination	38	School Grounds	208
Matriculation, Misery	128	School, in relation to organisation, &c.	147
Matriculation Standard, the	563	School Register	222
Matriculation Student, A Grievance of	501	Schools, Different kinds of	573
Matriculation, the, Age Limit	565	Schools, European	432
Matriculation, the, Results	57	Schools Elementary, London	359
Matriculation, the, Science Board	58	Schools for "Maine"	205
Memory, My Book of	77	Schools, Primary, Bengal	77
Merimes, P.	549	Schools Rural for Madras	338, 377
Mignet, Francois A. M.	625	Schools, Rural, South India	360
Miss Carr, retirement of	337	Schools, Secondary, a Curriculum for	642
Mission Institutions	220	Schools, Secondary, the Teaching in	71
Molesworth, Mrs.	370	Schools, shoes in	339
Museums, &c.	239	Schools, Training	429
Music, a Curriculum of	254	Science, Elementary	370
Mysore Review, the	181	Scott's Novels	221
Natural History Stories	222	Script, Uniform	118
Nagapatam, N. H. School	121, 429	Secondary Classes, scope of lesson in	131
Numbers, preparations of	349, 448	Senate Meeting, Bombay	482

	PAGE		PAGE
Senate Meeting, Madras	... 481, 613, 633	Training, Moral	...
<i>Seaside</i>	... 275	Travancore Scholarships	...
Service, a hard	... 240	Trigonometry, by Bernhardi and Perrott	...
<i>Shakespeare and Drama</i>	... 258, 288	University, a National	...
<i>Shakespeare, the Academy</i>	... 472	University Authors	...
<i>Shakespeare, the Swan Edition of</i>	... 471	University, Calcutta	... 301
Sickness, Examination	... 236	University Education	... 165, 618
Society, the Asiatic, Bengal	... 117	University Examiners	...
Society, the R. Asiatic, Bombay	... 117	University Federation	...
Standard Library, Methuen's	... 221	University Inspection	...
Student in American Colleges	... 307	University Library, Madras	...
Student, self-supporting	... 339	University, Madras	... 174, 267, 530
Student, the, ideals of a	... 442	University, New, and Bombay	...
Students, admission and transfer of	... 568	University Senate, Bombay	...
Suggestion, an excellent	... 569	University Papers	...
Swadesi Movement	... 483	University Reform	...
<i>Sydney Smith, B. M. of Letters</i>	... 622	University, the Muhammadan	...
Syndicate and 'Madras Mail'	... 180	Universities, the Reformed	...
Tata Scheme, the	... 140	Vedas, the Arotic Home in the, Tilak	...
Tata, the Institute	... 177	Vernaculars as Media of Instruction	...
Teachers, as to the	... 213	Vernacular Text-books, Bengal	...
Teacher, as a Character Builder	... 469	Vice-Chancellorship, Our	...
Teacher, the Primary	... 378	Viceroy and Gokhale	...
Teachers, Private	... 240	Viceroy on Education	...
Teachers, Recruitment of	... 345, 576	<i>Vidya Chandrika</i>	...
Teachers, the	... 173	<i>Wednesday Review, the</i>	...
Teachers, who shall appoint	... 382	William Pitt : Macaulay	...
Teaching Staff, the	... 532	Woodstock : Scott	...
Text-book Circles	... 381	Wordsworth : Miss G. B.	...
<i>Thomas Moore, B. M. of Letters</i>	... 349	Wordsworth, Poems of	...
Thirupati and Education	... 115	York Readers	...
Training, Manual	... 352		



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TM 2, M 95. E
M 95. H